AL-RAYAN UNIVERSITY

Lexical Encounters in Translating International Humanitarian Terminologies by EFL Undergraduates at Hadhramout and Al-Rayan Universities.

Thesis Submitted to the Deanship of Graduate Studies & Scientific Research at AL-Rayan University to complete the requirements for obtaining a Master's degree in English Language and translation.

By

Fowzi Hasan Mohammed Bawazir

Supervisor

Prof. Dr. Najala'a Abdullah Ateeq Bajubair

2024/1446

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Approval of the Proofreader

I certify that the master's thesis entitled,

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Supervisor: Prof. Najla Abdullah Ateeg

Academic Title: A professor
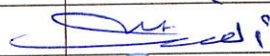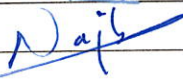
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Based on the decision of the President of the University No. (7) in the year 2024...... regarding the nomination of the committee for discussing the master's thesis entitled, (Lexical Encounters in Translating International Humanitarian Terminologies by EFL Undergraduates, at Hudhramout and Al-Rayan Universities) for the researcher Fowzi Hasan Mohammed Ba-Wazir. We, the head of the discussion committee and its members, acknowledge that we have seen the above mentioned scientific thesis and we have discussed the researcher in its contents and what related to it, and the thesis approved on 03/09/2024

Discussion Committee Decision

No	Name	Academic title	Committee Member	Signature
1	Dr. Najat A. Busabaa	Professor	External Examiner	
2	Dr. Hussein A. Habtoor	Professor	Internal Examiner	
3	Dr. Najla A. Ateeq	Professor	Supervisor & Member	

D

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E

The Qura'nic Verse

(إِقْرَأْ بِاسْمِ رَبِّكَ الَّذِي خَلَقَ. خَلَقَ الإنسَانَ مِنْ عَلَقٍ. اقْرَأْ وَرَبُّكَ الأَكْرَمُ. الَّذِي عَلَّمَ بِالْقَلَمِ)

الاية (1-5) سورة العلق

Read with the name of your Lord who created (everything), He created man from a clot of blood. Read, and your Lord is the most gracious, who imparted knowledge by means of the pen. He taught man what he did not know.

F

Dedications

I humbly dedicate this thesis to most three beloved people of my life,

First and foremost, to my beloved mother, who took care of me in all stages of my life until I got mature.

Second, to my father who worked day and night, facilitated and eased all difficulties and obstacles which I encountered in all of life stages.

Third, to my late beloved wife, (Um Al -Hasanain) who passed away three years ago and who was the inspiration and the secret of my success . Her always eternal dream was to continue life with me forever and see me in a higher position, but unfortunately, she left our world earlier, may Allah the Almighty have mercy on her soul and grant her paradise .

Acknowledgements

Abstract

The study aimed at exploring the lexical problems that fourth - year students in the English Department of Hadramout and Al-Riyan Universities face when translating humanitarian acronyms and terminologies from English into Arabic. The study has adopted an experimental quantitative method as a design for collecting as well as analyzing the data. The sample of the students consisted of 20 female students from Hadhramout University/ Women's College, and 5 students from Al-Riyan University/ College of Arts. The researcher constructed a translation test and conducted it among the study sample as an instrument for the study after obtaining validity and reliability. The study concluded that the translation problems that lexically faced the students in the translation test included collocations, acronyms, and neologism. The students have very weak background knowledge about how to translate these terminologies from English into Arabic. The researcher introduced some recommendations and suggested strategies for overcoming the translation lexical problems of acronyms and terminologies used by humanitarian organizations.

Keywords : lexical encounters, international humanitarian organization, terminologies

المحتويات

K

Chapter One: Introduction

Chapter One Introduction

1.1 Background of the Study

Translation has been playing a leading role in facilitating and advancing human communication at all levels; socially, politically, economically as well as culturally. (Anyabuike, 2018). However, the world of translation has not always been an easy task as there are many types of translation, such as medical translation, press translation, art translation, legal translation, etc. In this chapter the study provides a background and an over view of translation studies within the development of International Non- Governmental organizations (INGOs) and how INGOs are different from NGOs and why translating humanitarian terminologies has become essential nowadays.

1.2 Terminology and Translation Studies

Little has been written about how to design and teach a Terminology course for different user profiles. Notable exceptions are Parc (1997), Resche (1997), Soffritti et al. (1997) and more specifically, in the case of Translation Studies, Picht and Acuña Partal (1997), Monterde Rey (2002), Faber and Jiménez Raya (2003), and Fedor de Diego (2003). It is true that Terminology has only recently come into its own as a scientific discipline. Cabré et al (2003) underlines the fact that theoretical principles and methods in Terminology are still taking shape. For example, in Spain, Terminology was not taken seriously as an academic subject until 1991 when it began to be taught in universities as part of a degree in Translation and Interpreting. Although international conferences and symposiums on Terminology date from the 1930s (Chueca 1998), they were principally geared to scientists and engineers who were interested in the conceptual structure and standardization of linguistic designations for concepts within their own specialized knowledge domains.

1.3. Terminological competence in translation

In any analysis of the relation between Terminology and Translation, it is necessary to bear in mind that both are conditioned by semantic, pragmatic, contextual, and cultural factors that operate at the level of the source language and target language (House 2000:150). According to Cabré (2000: 73, 74), Translation and Interpreting Studies and Terminology are relatively recent academic disciplines despite the fact that they have existed for centuries as applied language activities. Furthermore, both are interdisciplinary, and also happen to be convergence points for linguistic, cognitive, and communication sciences. However, they are different because terminology, as the inventory of terms within a specialized domain, is not in itself a type of speech act, but rather an instrument used in specialized communication.

Translation primarily focuses on the communication process, whereas terminology receives a secondary focus. Terminology is interesting for the translator in the measure that it is part of the message conveyed by a specialized text. As a result, the relationship between Terminology and Translation is asymmetric since terminology has no intrinsic need to recur to translation. In contrast, translation must use terminology as a means to achieve the interlinguistic transfer of specialized knowledge units (Velasquez 2002: 447). It goes without saying that the adequacy of the terminology in a text as well as its suitability for the level of specialization determines to a great extent the quality of a translation. This signifies that the translator must successfully deal with terminological problems during the analysis of the source text and the production of the target text. Obstacles to the transmission of specialized knowledge stem from the translator's unfamiliarity with the terminological units, their meaning in discourse, and their possible correspondences in the target language (Rodríguez Camacho 2002: 319, 320; Cabré et al. 2002: 168, 9). The lack of reliable terminological resources obliges translators to acquire

information management skills and be able to manage terminology *ad hoc* in order to resolve translation problems. Translators thus need to develop strategies to carry out the following processes:

1) The identification and acquisition of specialized concepts activated in discourse;

2) The evaluation, consultation, and elaboration of information resources;

3) The recognition of interlinguistic correspondences based on concepts in the specialized knowledge field;

4) The management of the information and knowledge acquired and its re-use in future translations.

This set of abilities is part of the terminological sub competence (Faber 2004), a module of general translation competence. In this regard, Neubert (2000: 9) states that it is not necessary for translators to be experts in the specialized field. What is essential is that they should be capable of rapidly acquiring expert knowledge, an ability which includes the processes listed above. The ability to recognize concept systems activated by terms in context does not transform translators into experts within the field, but provides them with the knowledge necessary to facilitate understanding and succeed in the process of information transfer and communication (Rodríguez Camacho 2002: 311).

Consequently, terminological sub competence does not refer to the acquisition of a list of terms, but rather to the ability of the translator to acquire the knowledge represented by these terms. According to Izquierdo Aymerich (2003), terminological acquisition is a cognitive and linguistic ability that permits the translator to model reality in consonance with cognitive schemas or world views that serve as a reference for each translation. For example, translators should be able to identify the most relevant conceptual relations and their lexical formalizations in the discourse. They

should also be able to extract recurrent semantic and syntactic patterns or templates in both languages (Faber and Mairal, forthcoming).

1.4 Why translating humanitarian terminologies has become essential nowadays?

Thousands of refugees and illegal African migrants leave their countries of origin as a result of civil wars and start their risky journey to make their last destination to Yemen and other countries where they are taken to refugee sites , and that is in addition to the IDPs (internally displaced persons). The intervention role of the international humanitarian organizations is to provide a humanitarian assistance to the people of concern in accordance with international humanitarian law. Therefore, those organizations use specific terminologies during the implementation of their humanitarian projects and holding meetings with other local partners. The need of translation has become an essential part of their projects, and their contracts since they work in a country where the native language is Arabic. However, translating terminologies used by INGOs and NGOs has not always been an easy task for many translators due to the wide use of acronyms, and abbreviated terms which are essential part of the language used in humanitarian INGOs and NGOs.

1.5. The difference between INGOs and NGOs.

Many people get confused between the two terms; INGOs and NGOs. According to the United Nations, (NGO) is a not for- profit group, principally independent from government, which is organized on a local national or international level to address issues in support for a public good. (https://study.com). (NGOs) work at a domestic level while INGOs, as the name suggests, operate on a global platform, therefore the members of INGOs come from different countries of the world while NGOs are run by the members of the local residents. https://corpbiz.io.

NGOs are inherently different from other organizations working across borders, such as multinational companies or intergovernmental organizations, as NGOs which work from a humanist ethos (Rubenstein 2015), with different budget priorities, staff and volunteers who have different motivations. However, translation studies have paid little attention to these organizations and their translation work have only focused on translation at intergovernmental organizations such as the EU and the UN (Cao and Zhao 2008; Koskinen 2008; Schäffner 2001; Tosi 2003). Perhaps this gap is related to the fact that translation of NGOs has been widely associated with volunteerism. Pym (2008:77) notes that NGOs "rarely have the funding necessary for symbolic translation practices as their use of translation is closer to what might precariously be termed 'real needs', they are far less likely to employ in-house staff translators or interpreters". Equally, in other disciplines such as development studies, and international relations in the NGOs sector itself, little attention has been paid to INGOs approach multilingualism and language and translation policies. Baker (1992) suggests five strategies of translating idioms and fixed expressions (as cited in Sadeghi and Farjad, 2014,p.249).One of the translation methods is using an idiom of similar meaning and form, and the other is using an idiom of similar meaning, but dissimilar form, translation by paraphrase, translation by omission and the last one is compensation strategy. Moreover, most of the studies conducted on translation studies in INGOs did not talk about humanitarian terminologies used by INGOs. Therefore, this study mainly shades the light on humanitarian terminologies used by INGOs in general as well as the importance and the challenges of translating humanitarian terms and acronyms which are discussed in chapter two in details.

1.6. Translation challenges of INGOs from the perspective of professional and non-professional translation.

A doctoral research which was conducted in international human rights NGOs by Amnesty International which is International Human Rights Organization (Tesseur 2014a), made a start at finding out translation at international NGOs (henceforth 'INGOs'). Tesseur (2014b) has described Amnesty's strategic approach to multilingualism and translation by analyzing policy documents. Their article found how policy is put into practice by concentrating on translation practices on various organization levels. It focuses specifically on the use of professional versus volunteer translators. Establishing its own Language Resource Centre (AILRC) in 2010, Amnesty is the leading example of such change. Its AILRC network aims to support the different translation needs of the organization. While it unites pre-existing Amnesty translation services for an overwhelming number of languages (e.g. Arabic, French, German, Spanish, Japanese), many Amnesty offices became satisfied with their own translation needs. The article thus explored the establishment of the AILRC as a sign of the professionalization of some translation practices within Amnesty, and not in a harmony with the great diversity of non-professional translation practices which take place in other offices. The aim of their article was to make a number of contributions to Translation Studies. Firstly, by focusing on a non-governmental organization as it aims to contribute to the area of institutional translation. Secondly, it provides new insights into non-professional translation by exploring who it carries out translation work at Amnesty, and by contrasting professional and nonprofessional translation practices within one organization. Finally, volunteer translation specifically explored how the use of volunteer translators can be considered as a threat to the professional status of translators.

1.7. INGOs, professionalisation, and translation

INGOs have become powerful political contributors since the 20th century, with their numbers

rising to about 60,000 (Union of International Associations 2014). The breadth of activities they

cover is vast, and many organizations are active in the field of development, advocacy, and

humanitarian or environmental intervention. Although the phenomenon of organizations working

internationally is not new per se (Davies 2014), the way these organizations work has changed

significantly in the globalized information- and knowledge-based economy, with more

information being produced ever faster and made available through a large variety of channels

and to a wide variety of people. INGOs have gained more recognition and prestige as

information and knowledge producers and as global political players over the years, for example

by increasing their involvement at the United Nations (Martens 2006; Otto 1996).

INGOs have started to professionalize their services, with a peak in professionalization during the

1990s. Davies (2014) holds that the foundation of societies such at the Society for International

Development (1957) and the Institute of Development Studies (founded at the University of Sussex

in 1966) was an early sign of increasing professionalization. The tendency to professionalize

became evident from the 1970s onwards, when voluntary membership organizations saw their

membership dwindle, while the number of highly specialized INGOs that tended to be

professionally managed and increased remarkably in the 1990s (Davies 2014, 161).

Some scholars have pointed out that this increase was linked to a growth in donor funding, which

allowed activists to make careers out of being professional movement leaders (Edwards and Hulme

1996; Staggenborg 1988). The professionalization of INGOs' involvement at the UN has been

gradual. Martens (2006, 22) describes how NGO representation to the UN was for a long time

conducted predominantly by retired volunteers, who had little professional affiliation with their

organization. Representation to the UN was more a source of status and prestige than a mechanism for NGOs to exert influence. Only since the late 1980s have NGOs started to recognize the potential of their activities with the UN, and to invest in professional representation. International Relations scholars have commented extensively on the trend towards increasing professionalization of the NGO sector, with organizations expanding gradually over the years and aiming to increase their international influence. Professionalization in NGOs has been explored mainly from the perspective of NGOs' core business (concentrating, e.g., on the hiring of specialized human rights lawyers at organizations such as Amnesty International and Human Rights Watch, as described in Martens 2006). By comparison, however, we know little about this process in the context of translation work, although the working spaces of INGOs cross geographical and linguistic boundaries and are thus inherently multilingual. In Translation Studies, discussions on professionalization have been linked to the establishment of the disciplines, i.e. to the introduction of training programs from the 1970s onwards. Wadensjö (2007, 2) has described the process of professionalization as implying a range of individual and collective efforts, including struggles to achieve a certain social status, suggestions to define standards of best practice, to control access to professional knowledge - theoretical models and practical skills - and to control education and work opportunities. Indeed, many of the discussions on professionalisation have focused on efforts to establish translation as fully-fledged professions, and on potential threats to this acquired professional status (Wadensjö et al. 2007; Dam and Korning Zethsen 2010; Dam and Koskinen 2016). The growth of volunteer translation, particularly linked to the emergence of web-based collaborative practices, is one of the areas that has been explored in particular. Flanagan (2016) has described professional translators' fears that the phenomenon of volunteer translation will increase organizations' and companies' perceptions of

translation as a non-professional activity, i.e. that it will reinforce the assumption that translation does not require formal training but can be done by anyone who has sufficient knowledge of two languages. In addition, there are fears that the phenomenon could reinforce the idea that translations could or should be easily obtained for free, especially for non-profit organizations. Since NGOs have been associated frequently with the phenomena of volunteer and non-professional translation, their article explored the place of these practices at Amnesty and discussed them in light of recent trends towards professionalization. It revealed the wide variety of translation practices Amnesty draws on, and reflects on the implications of the increasing professionalization of translation work at Amnesty through its Language Resource Centre, the AILRC. Fieldwork found that translation practices vary according to the text type. This was the case both at the local office AIVL as well as at the translation offices AILRC-FR and AILRC-ES. However, practices at the translation offices were found to be more streamlined and professionalized. Translation at these offices was done by professional translators: i.e. a handful of internal translators translated, revised and managed translation assignments, with the bulk of translation work done by a pool of professionally trained freelancers. Practices were well regulated and varied little: training was in place for new translators, translation tools were used, revision mechanisms were in place, and no volunteers were relied on for any of the translation work. On the other hand, translation practices at local offices were non-professional as translation was done by staff main task was not translation and who had not received any formal translation training, or it was done by volunteers. In some cases, a small portion of the work was outsourced to translation agencies or freelancers. Practices were more varied and, differing between offices and between text types where the trained translators work was more professional and accurate than those who were not trained or not specialized in translation.

1.8 Research Problem

The most critical problems in translating humanitarian terminologies might be those problems related to lexical encounters .According to the researcher's experience who has been working in the field of humanitarian work for six years in different cities in Yemen, many translators whom the researcher dealt with have found that translating texts that included terminologies related to international humanitarian work as the most obstacles they face in the translation process. The translators usually use the available sources they have such as English English dictionaries, English Arabic dictionaries or vice versa, in addition to using some translation websites to help them in the translation process. However, it does not always work when it comes to translating such terminologies as there are no specific specialized dictionaries in humanitarian terminologies. Moreover, the universities in Hadhramout, either public or private do not offer any type of humanitarian terminology courses which have become very essential nowadays. This study might be beneficial for translators and translation students.

1.9. Objectives of the Study

The research aims to

1). investigate the lexical encounters that EFL undergraduates at Hadhramout and Al-Rayan universities face when translating humanitarian terms used by International Humanitarian Organizations from English into Arabic.

2). provide appropriate strategies for translating humanitarian terms used by International Humanitarian Organizations from English into Arabic

1.10. Questions of the Study:

The present study attempted to answer the following questions.

1.) What are the lexical encounters that face EFL undergraduates at Hadhramout and Al-Rayan universities when translating humanitarian terms from English into Arabic?

2.) What are the strategies that could be used to tackle the translation of humanitarian terms from English into Arabic?

1.11. Significance of the Study:

Most previous studies focus on the challenges that translators face such as structural, stylistic, and cultural problems, yet this study focuses on lexical encounters that translators are likely to face when translating humanitarian terminologies Besides, this study may provide suggestions of strategies that might pave the way and solve the problems that translators might face when translating these terms. In other words, this study is expected to be helpful and more beneficial for English Language students, translators and researchers who are interested in the translation field. For the best of the researcher knowledge, no study has been conducted with regard the lexical encounters of translating humanitarian terminologies.

1.12.   limitation of the Study

This study is limited to investigating lexical encounters that translators face when translating humanitarian terms and acronyms from English into Arabic among 4th level English language students, at Hadhramout and Al-Rayan Universities in the academic year 2022-2023.

1.13. Definitions of terms

(INGOs **)** are international non-governmental organization which is independent of government involvement and extends the concept of a non-governmental organization (NGO) to an international scope (https://en.mwikipedia.org

Acronyms are words are formed from the the first letters of other words, and which are pronounced as full words. https://dictionary.cambridge.org

Amnesty International is an international non-governmental organization focused on human

rights with its headquarters in the United Kingdom. https://en.wikapidia.org

Terminology is special words or expression used in relation to a particular subject or activity

https://dictionary.combridge.org

Chapter Two: Literature Review

Chapter Two Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

This chapter provides the theoretical and practical framework of this study. Moreover, it sheds the light on some previous related studies particularly problems of translating Acronyms from English into Arabic as well as lexical challenges which include neologism encounters. Such acronyms constitute the language terms used by humanitarian INGOs and NGOs. Furthermore, this chapter illustrates how acronyms differ from Abbreviations. It also investigates challenges faced by translators in terms of lexical problems when translating these terms from one language into another .The English term acronym is defined in different ways by many linguists, however, leading to misunderstanding in giving the right definition. A group of writers such as: Quirk et al. (1972:1031) and Yule (1996:68) argue that acronyms are words either formed from the initial letters of a set of other words and these can be alphabetized such as FBI Federal Bureau of Investigation or CD Compact Disk, or acronyms pronounced as single words, as in UNISCO (United Nations Educational, scientific and Cultural Organization). However, other scholars consider an acronym as a name of a word created from the first letter of each word in a series of words, so that it can be pronounced as one word as in NATO which stands for North Atlantic Treaty, and UNICEF (United Nations International Childrens' Emergency Fund). The concept terminology, according to Care (1999) has emerged very early. Based on the emergence of science and technology, these two aspects have motivated to arise and found an important tool for overcoming some of the obstacles associated with the spread of al l aspects of knowledge and communication especially with the beginning of the eighteen century. However, the twenty century witnessed the shift of terminology being a scientific field among sciences. Therefore,

terminology can be regarded as a science concerned with specialized terms of a certain field such as a humanitarian field.

2.2 Acronyms and Translation

Acronyms are perhaps the biggest professional translator's problem. In this regard, Newmark (1988:193) illustrates that in such type of translation, all what you deal with is only words to translate and you have to account for each of them somewhere in your TL text, occasionally not translating them because if translated you inevitably over-translate them. Moreover, these words are conditioned by a certain linguistic, referential, cultural and personal context. Furthermore, this type of translation is considered as a problematic issue because new objects, ideas, variations and processes are continually created in technology. This is because each language acquires 3000 new words annually and these words usually arise from a response to a particular need. In other words, one should not waste time looking for the acronym in reference books when it has been specially coined for the text (e.g., of an academic paper) and can be found there only . Thus, acronyms are frequently created within special topics and designate products and processes depending on their degree of importance; in translation, there is either a standard equivalent or, if it does not yet exist, a descriptive term. Acronyms for international institutions, usually switch for each language, and some like 'ASEAN' 'UNESCO', 'FAO', 'OPEC' are internationalisms, usually written unpunctuated. When a national organization becomes important, it is common to transfer its acronym and translate its

name. Therefore, International acronyms are usually translated as: EEC which stands for (European Economic Community), whereas national acronyms are usually retained. But when the function is more important than the description, they are usually transferred as in: 'CNAA-CNAA degree awarding body for higher education colleges (non-university) in the United

kingdom' . Increasingly, there are many cultural reasons (relying on the standard contextual factors, i.e. readership, translation prospects, etc.) why acronym may or may not be worth transferring. Arabic, on the other hand, resists most acronyms and explicates them. Also, all acronyms are transcribed in Arabic and can be preceded by their full meaning. However, some acronyms are transcribed as words (e.g. FAOفاو, UNESEFاليونيسف), Others as letters such as (FMFاف ام اف) (Ghazala, 1995: 189). Depending on their order of consonants, and vowels in English or in Arabic, since three consonants cannot follow one another in this way in either language, 'UNICEF' can be simply pronounced in both for the arrangement of vowels and consonants makes it flexible and possible in pronunciation. This form of translation could be considered as reformulation of acronyms of one language into another. In most cases, the order of initials can be changed due to differences in the grammatical structure of the language involved e.g. (UNO) in English (ONO) in French). (Bankole, 2006: 6). Sometimes, initials may be completely replaced as in ISPC (International and Service Provider)- into FAT (Fournisseud'acce's a' Linternet .

2.3. Acronyms VS Abbreviations:

A variety of abbreviations and acronyms can be found in academic and professional texts because they are quite often registered in lexicographical sources. Therefore, they can be considered lexical units of scientific and technical language. In the English language, abbreviations, according to their graphical and sound representation, are usually divided into abbreviations and acronyms.

According to the Online Oxford English Dictionary, an abbreviation is a shortened form of a word or phrase, for example, *etc.* for *et cetera*, *e.g.* for *exempli gratia*, *kV* for *kilovolt*, *W* for *Watt*, *J* for *Joule*, etc. In the same dictionary, an acronym is defined as an abbreviation formed from the initial

letters of words and pronounced as a single word [for example, *laser* (Light Amplification by Stimulated Emission of Radiation) or *COIL* (Chemical Oxygen–Iodine Laser)]. Despite the fact that acronyms and abbreviations are generally formed from combinations of capital letters, they can also be composed of lowercase letters, or even consist of capital and lowercase letters together, for example, *mRNA* (messenger ribonucleic acid), *nsOCT* (nano-sensitive optical coherence tomography), *dBx* (decibels above reference coupling) or *ppb* (parts per billion).

In his Dictionary of Linguistics and Phonetics Crystal (2008) writes that in the everyday sense the term 'abbreviation' is studied in modern linguistics as part of word formation. Crystal (2008) distinguishes several ways in which words can be shortened, namely, **initialisms** or **alphabetisms**, which reflect the separate pronunciation of the initial letters of the constituent words [for example, *TV* (television), *LN* (liquid nitrogen), *AA* (antenna array), etc.]; **acronyms**, which are pronounced as single words [for example, radar (radio detection and ranging)]; **clipped forms** or **clippings**, which are reductions of longer forms, usually removing the end of the word [*ad* (advertisement), *lab* (laboratory), *exam* (examination), etc.], but sometimes the beginning [*plane* (airplane), *phone* (telephone), etc.], or both beginning and ending together [*flu* (influenza)]; and **blends**, which combine parts of two words [*transceiver* (transmitter + receiver), *informatics* (information + electronics), *bit* (binary + digit), *breathalyzer* (breath + analyzer), etc.].

In addition, this classification can be also supplemented by abbreviations formed by a combination of the initial letter of a word with an unabbreviated word such as *H-bomb* (hydrogen bomb), *e-mail* (electronic mail), etc. For example, *electron-beam lithography* is often abbreviated as *(e-beam)*, *(lithography)* is the practice of scanning a focused beam of electrons to draw custom shapes on a surface covered with an electron sensitive film). Further, abbreviations are formed by a combination of a clipped form of a word with an unabbreviated word such as *nano-object*

(nanometer object), *bio-tissue* (biological tissue), etc. Consequently, This raises a number of problems associated with introduction of **bio-materials** directly into the body*: disruption of homeostasis, implant rejection and its poor integration*).

It is necessary to consider alphanumeric abbreviations, which are now widely used in scientific and technical texts (*3D* – three-dimensional), and 'extremely' often in the language of today's youth in the Internet Communication (*CUL8R* : see you later, *4U:* for you).

According to Nelyubin (2007), an abbreviation (the *Italian* word '*abbreviatura*' comes from the *Latin* word '*brevis*', which means '*short*'). It is a word composed of the initial letters or initial sounds of words constituting the original phrase. Thus, an abbreviation is the result of optimization of a message, stemming from the removal of various types of "noises" from communication and making the message appropriate and short for delivering information. The abbreviation process consists in the reduction of a number of elements of a lexical unit and in the formation of a new one. As a result of shortening, there appears an abbreviated lexical unit, which is structurally different from the original version. Note that an acronym is a shortened form of a word coinciding in its phonetic structure with a common word and pronounced as a single word.

Therefore, we can conclude that in modern linguistics there exist multiple classifications of abbreviations. Nevertheless, they can be mainly divided into abbreviations and acronyms, blends, graphic shortenings and clippings. It should be noted, however, that between these types of shortened words there are a number of border phenomena in which the shortening, after certain phonetic and morphological changes, undergoes a transition from one type to another. Abbreviations and acronyms might be of greatest interest because blends, clippings and graphical shortenings do not seem difficult to use and translate.

Abbreviations and acronyms, despite the fact that both are formed from the initial letters of a phrase, have one important difference: abbreviations may not be pronounced as a single word. This fact causes the difference in the use of abbreviations and acronyms in language and speech. It is also important that in some cases it is impossible to determine whether the shortened word is an acronym or an abbreviation and whether this or that phrase can be shortened. For example, according to *Wikipedia* recommends using abbreviations WWII or WW2 for the Second World War, while the *Stylebook and Briefing on Media Law* and the *Chicago Manual of Style* do not recommend the use of abbreviations in this case. For example, an abbreviation is sometimes formed from an initial sound rather than from an initial letter of the terminological phrases (such as *X* in *XML*, extensible markup language), or from the application of a number (*W3C*, World Wide Web Consortium). In addition, acronyms and abbreviations are sometimes combined into a single word (*JPEG*, the first letter is spelled out and the subsequent letters form the acronym). Sometimes it is impossible to distinguish between abbreviations and acronyms (*FAQ*, for example, can be pronounced as a word and spelled out).

Based on the above explanation, it could be concluded that abbreviations are any shortened forms of the word, and acronyms are abbreviations pronounced as words [for example, *AIDS* (acquired immune deficiency syndrome)]. Of course, a scientist writing a scientific or technical paper probably does not need to know the difference between these two concepts, but for linguists and translators this misunderstanding and ignorance may lead to misuse of terms and inadequate translation.

2.4. Plurals of abbreviations and acronyms

Using acronyms and abbreviations is convenient, but as White, (2020) argues , it can also be a bit confusing figuring out how to properly convert these shortened versions of words or phrases to plural form. Discover basic rules for forming plural acronyms and plural abbreviations.

An acronym is a group of letters where each letter stands for a specific word in a phrase. True acronyms are pronounced as if they are words (for example: laser). Initialisms are a bit different, but are treated the same as acronyms. They are formed the same and become plural the same way, but are pronounced as individual letters rather than sounding like a word (For example: RBI). Most acronyms are easy to convert to the plural form simply by adding the letter s to the end. This can become more complex when the last letter in the acronym is already an s. For acronyms that end in a letter other than an s, simply add a lowercase s after the last letter. In other words, simply follow the ordinary procedure for most nouns. Of course, there are common mistakes when converting acronyms that end in a letter other than s to plural form. When the last letter of an acronym or an initialism is an s, things get more complicated. Unless you are writing in a specific style (such as Chicago or American Psychological Association) that specifies how to handle these situations, you can add a lowercase (**s**) or an **(es)**, choosing the one that looks least likely to confuse the reader. If both ways look confusing, alter the wording of the sentence so you do not need to use the acronym in a plural form. Consider spelling out each word rather than using the acronym or rephrasing the sentence.

Using a capital s **-** Avoid using a capital *S* at the end of an acronym written in all capital letters. A capital *S* at the end of an acronym means that the first letter of the last word of the phrase the acronym stands for is an *s*. (For example: *LASERS* would mean that there is another word after *radiation* that starts with an *s* in the string of words used to create the acronym.

using apostrophe s - An apostrophe followed by an s indicates possession in most circumstances. If you add an apostrophe and an s to the end of an acronym, that will mean that you are referring to something owned by whatever the acronym stands for. (For example: FDA's policy would mean a policy of the Food and Drug Administration.)

2.5. Translation strategies:

According to Newmark (1988:45) there are eight translation methods. Word- for-word,   literal, faithful, semantic, communicative, idiomatic, free, and adaptation. Words are translated individually by their most common meanings, but the word order of the original language is retained. Newmark provided the following descriptions of his levels .

The first one is word-for-word translation which is often explained as interlinear translation, with the TL promptly below the SL words. The SL word-order is preserved and the words translated singly by their most common meanings, out of context. Cultural words are translated literally.

Secondly, Literal translation which the SL grammatical constructions are converted to their nearest TL equivalents, but the lexical words are again translated singly, out of context.

Faithful translation tries to reproduce the accurate contextual meaning of the original within the constraints of the TL grammatical frameworks. It 'transfers' cultural words and preserves the degree of grammatical and lexical 'abnormality' (deviation from SL norms) in the translation. It attempts to be completely faithful to the intentions and the text-realization of the SL writer.

Semantic translation is different from 'faithful translation' only in as far as it must take more account of the aesthetic value (that is, the beautiful and natural sound) of the SL text,

compromising on 'meaning' where appropriate so that no assonance, word-play or repetition jars in the finished version. Further, it may translate less important cultural words by culturally neutral third or functional terms but not by cultural equivalents - *une nonne repassant un corporal* may become 'a nun ironing a corporal cloth' - and it may make other small concessions to the readership. The distinction between 'faithful' and 'semantic' translation is that the first is uncompromising and dogmatic, while the second is more flexible, admits the creative exception to 100% fidelity and allows for the translator's intuitive empathy with the original.

Communicative translation attempts to render the exact contextual meaning of the original in such a way that both content and language are readily acceptable and comprehensible to the readership.

Idiomatic translation reproduces the 'message' of the original but tends to distort nuances of meaning by preferring colloquialisms and idioms where these do not exist in the original.

Free translation reproduces the matter without the manner, or the content without the form of the original.

Adaptation is the 'freest' form of translation. It is used mainly for plays (comedies) and poetry; the themes, characters, plots are usually preserved, the SL culture converted to the TL culture and the text rewritten.

The British and American linguistic cultures and of individual publishing houses are not the only difficulty when it comes to translation of abbreviations from one language into another. Being an extremely complex process, translation aims at reaching a fragile balance between the equivalence of a source text and the used translation strategies. Yeltsov (2005) notes that translators'

experience is comparable (almost equal) in the difficulties in translating abbreviations from their native language into a foreign one and from a foreign language into their native one. Therefore, there are main causes of difficulties in the interlanguage adaptation of abbreviations as follows:

a). The use of abbreviations in scientific discourse, especially in periodicals, is associated with the presence of a common terminological base (research experience) and personal experience (skills to present scientific results in print) at the author's and the reader's levels. In the case of a significant discrepancy in background knowledge and skills, the translation of an abbreviation, which is a substitute for an explicit expression of a multicomponent term, can lead to mistakes. At the stage of perception of an original abbreviation, a translator can encounter difficulties in the identification of the abbreviation and the problems of its correlation with the full terminological unit.

b). Polysemy of abbreviations creates additional difficulties in recognizing their semantic content. Nelyubin (2007) notes that "some of them can have several dozen registered definitions in dictionaries. For example, the abbreviation *A* in English has more than 60 different definitions; *B*, more than 40; and *CA*, more than 20, etc".

c). Multiple standards discussed above also create prerequisites for cognitive errors. In this case, different (non-identical) traditions of scientific journals are closely intertwined with the linguistic features of their formation and functioning. To a large extent, the difficulties in understanding abbreviations are related to the fact that they can be indicative of various parts of speech and express different syntactic functions. Thus, the ending *(s)* can be assigned to the plural form of an abbreviation (for example, *cod's*), the possessive case (for example, *Co's employees*), the shortened third-person singular verb in the present simple tense (for example, *The Zavala family thxs the Marshal group…*).

d). In adaptation, the perceptual and cognitive problem solving is transformed into a translation one. At the recoding stage, the variability of translation correspondences comes into conflict with the requirement of a single meaning of the term and the unambiguous equivalence of its translation into the target language. The translator must not only translate the original message, taking into account the interlanguage correspondence of the abbreviation, but also follow the publishing practice of a particular journal; otherwise, the irrelevance of the translation solution will be obvious to readers, and they will consider it as a 'marker of the text's non-authenticity.' Then, an explicit translation error can be treated as a failure of proper communication.

e). Abbreviations described above (their syncretism and homonymy stemming from the formation and variability in connection with the linguistic and cultural traditions of the British and American scientific literature) form a linguistic level of translation problems. Syncretism and homonymy of abbreviations play the role of destructive interference at the level of word formation in this case. Previously, this type of interference (word-building) was not described in the literature, but in view of its obviousness, it is considered possible to briefly note that it occupies an intermediate position between lexical and morphological levels and is the result of asymmetry of language resources and the asynchrony of the formation of terminology and the course of derivational processes in the source and target languages .

The translation strategies of abbreviations in various languages have been repeatedly studied and revealed a generally universal nature of abbreviations. The general and axiomatic principle of abbreviation translation is the necessity to reach a balance of equivalence of abbreviations in the source language and the target language. This principle can be implemented using several translation strategies such as the replacement of an abridgement of a source language with an equivalent abridgement of a target language. In searching for an equivalent abridgement the

translator may find some reference source (dictionary, micro-context, etc.) and uses the available abbreviation of the target language (Yalsov, 2005).

2.6. Lexical challenges of translating Neologism:

Dozens of new vocabulary are produced and make the language so rich every year. New words are produced, which enrich the language. Santhi (2010) states that each language acquires about 3000 new words every year, which are known as neologisms. Santhi (2010) also describes neologisms as the way that reminds us that language is not something set in stone, but an evolving body of work, subject to adjustment, deletions, additions, and change. As new things are invented, as slang becomes acceptable, and as new technologies emerge, new words must fill in the gaps in language.

Similarly, Bakhtiyorovna (2013) claims that new science is impossible without neologisms, new words, or new interpretations of old words to describe and explain reality in new ways. To reject neologisms, that means, to reject scientific and technical developments. Furthermore, Khan (2013) describes neologisms as an important morphological process to produce new words in a language. It is used as one of the ways to generate new words in a language. Finally, neologisms, as a linguistic phenomenon, is a must to enrich any language, as well as to go with technical and technological developments.

Neologisms are found in various domains. According to Yasin, Mustfa, & Faysal (2010) the domains of neologisms are divided into nine as the following; scientific, technological, political, pop-culture, imported, trademarks, nonce words, and inverted words. However, these domains are not absolutes and there may be other domains obtainable from the linguistic world.

2.7. Previous Studies related to translating neologism:

Newmark (1988) describes translating neologisms as non-literary translation, but they seem to be one of the biggest problems for translation students because such types of words are not readily found in ordinary and even in some specialized dictionaries. Newmark (1988) proposes twelve types of neologisms; old words, old collocations with new meanings, new coinages, derived words, abbreviations, collocations, eponyms, phrasal words, transferred words, acronyms, pseudo neologisms, and internationalism. Examples for neologisms are words such as a mouse, malware, notebook, MOOC, assp, spam, etc.

Several studies describe translating neologisms as a difficult task for translators. Newmark (1995) describes translating neologisms as the most critical problem for translators. Moreover, Molavi (2012) also describes translating neologisms as a difficult task because they may not readily be found in Ordinary and even in specialized dictionaries. Also, Hammed (2009) considers neologisms as a serious obstacle in translating. Some previous studies, such as Molavi (2012), Hammed (2009), and Al-Kaabi (2005) confirm that translation translators have been suffering from the difficulties they face when translating neologisms. In the same regard, Hammed (2009) considers neologisms as a linguistic phenomenon which is very helpful for any language. Bakhtiyorovna (2013) indicates that the problem of translating neologisms is connected to the modern rapid period of development of science and technology. Whereas Hanaqtah (2016) describes the difficulties faced by translators in translating neologisms as problems related to cultural and technical terminology. He adds that the main problem is students' inability to find the right equivalents in Arabic for these neologisms.

Another problem is the lack of information about the meaning of these neologisms in dictionaries. In addition to that, there are problems related to the idiomatic structure of some

neologisms because these terms have particular meanings different from the meaning of each word on its own. For all the mentioned problems, some translation students in most cases fail to convey the same as the SL, therefore their translation may lead to inaccurate and inadequate translation. Based on the urgent need to keep up with such developments, translating neologisms has become very essential.

However, translating such terms may constitute lexical problems for translation students as well as translators in general. An important factor to be taken into account is that translators generally do not have the same level of expert knowledge as text originators and receivers. Consequently, they must learn how to gradually situate terms within their respective conceptual systems. At the same time, this process should allow translators to increase their knowledge in translation field domain so that it reaches the threshold that enables them to satisfactorily translate the original text (Faber 2004).

The specific characteristics of the translation process are what determine the type of terminological competence required. In this respect, the analysis and subsequent structuring of terminology is motivated by the text in which it appears, and is carried out as part of the translation process. In other words, translators frequently find themselves working as *ad hoc* terminologists and thermographers (Wright and Wright 1997), who must reconstruct bits and pieces of conceptual systems instead of structuring entire specialized knowledge domains. As a result, translation students should acquire knowledge and strategies that will help them carry out this type of terminology work. However, undergraduate Terminology programs in Translation have received very little attention up to the present. Despite the conferences and seminars that have focused on this issue (Gallardo and Sánchez 1992, Gallardo 2003), there is a scarcity of bibliography on the best way to teach Terminology.

Furthermore, there is no consensus of opinion on the contents of such program because its objectives and methods have never been clearly defined. (Cabré 2000: 42). It is also necessary to examine how to teach Terminology for different professional profiles such as humanitarian terminologies. In the absence of clear ideas regarding Terminology as an academic subject, what generally happens is that professors use teaching models that they have observed, used, and/or experienced during their academic career. Cabré and Estopá (1997) criticize the cloning of traditional teaching methods and strategies in the Terminology classroom.

Awadh and Shafiull (2020) have investigated the challenges of that Yemeni translation students encounter have encountered when translating neologisms from English into Arabic. Moreover, they compare students' translation with outcomes of machine translation of neologisms. The researchers adopted the descriptive and comparative methods to conduct the study. The use a test consisted of 24 items as instrument of the study to find out those challenges in question. The sample consisted of 55 translation students. The findings of their study revealed that translating neologisms accurately is challenging for the majority of Yemeni translation students and also for machine translation as well. Therefore, it is not an easy task for them to understand English neologisms or to find the Arabic equivalents for them. Moreover, it is revealed that only a few translation students can achieve accurate translation while translation applications cannot and they produced poor translation for most types of neologisms. Furthermore, the researchers find out that the challenges of translating neologisms are lexical and they are related to the twelve types of neologisms based on Newmark classification (1988). An important concept to be taken into account is that translators do not generally share the same level of experience, which means that some translators are more professional and more creative than their partners. Consequently, those whose translation level is low have to learn the skills of situating terminologies within their certain

systems. In other words lower level translators must increase their knowledge in the specialized field through this process in order to get to the starting point translation journey that allows them to sufficiently translate the original text (Faber 2004). In this respect, analyzing and structuring terminologies are based on the texts in which they occur, and regarded as an essential part of the translation process. This means that translators usually find themselves as terminology solution finders (Wright and Wright 1997), who should reform everything needed in the conceptual systems instead of forming all domains of specialized knowledge. Therefore, Translation students should acquire some knowledge and strategies that can assist them in carrying out this type of terminology work. However, a little attention has been paid to undergraduate Terminology courses in Translation up to the present time. (Gallardo and Sánchez 1992, Gallardo 2003) stated that there is a lack of bibliography in terms of the most leading method to teach Terminology programs. Besides, there is no an agreement of opinion on the contents of such a program because its aims and methods have never been obviously determined. (Cabré 2000: 42). It is also essential to examine how to teach Terminology from the prospective of various professional profiles. In the absence of clear concepts, regarding Terminology as an academic subject, what generally happens is that teachers use teaching samples that they have noticed, used, and/or experienced during their academic career. Cabré and Estopá (1997) are against the using traditional teaching methods and strategies in the Terminology classroom.

According to Cabré (2000: 73, 74), Translation and Interpretation Studies and Terminology are new academic disciplines in to some extend in spite of the reality that these studies have existed for many years . Furthermore, both translation and interpretation studies are multidisciplinary, and also happen to be concourse points for sciences of communication linguistic, and cognitive. However, they are dissimilar because terminology, as abstract of terms within a specialized field,

is not a type of speech act, but rather a tool used in specialized communication. Translation basically focuses on the communication process, unlike terminology which receives a secondary focus. Terminology is an amazing tool for the translator as it is a part of the message transferred by a specialized text. For this reason, the link between Terminology and Translation is asymmetric as long as terminology has no essential need to recur to translation. In the contrary, translation must use terminology as a means to accomplish the interlinguistic transfer of specialized knowledge units (Velasquez 2002: 447). The quality of a translation and the competence of the terminology in a text as well as its appropriateness for the level of specialization are specified to a great extent. This indicates that the translator should be aware of dealing with terminological obstacles when analyzing the source text and the production of the target text. Challenges of transmitting specialized knowledge stem from the translator's unfamiliarity with the terminological units, their meaning in discourse, and their possible consistency in the target language (Rodríguez Camacho 2002: 319, 320; Cabré et al. 2002: 168, 9). The absence of reliable terminological resources commits translators to acquire more information management skills in order to be able to manage terminology *and* resolve translation obstacles. Therefore, translators need to develop techniques and strategies so that they achieve the following processes:

A) understanding the interlinguistic correspondences based on concepts in the

specialized knowledge field;

B) information and knowledge acquired management and its re-use in future translations.

C) the evaluation, consultation, and elaboration of information resources;

D) Identifying and acquiring specialized concepts activated in discourse;

This set of skills is part of the terminological sub competence (Faber 2004), a unit of general translation competence. Neubert (2000: 9) shows that it is not necessary for translators to be well experienced in the specialized field. What is needed is that they should be able to get good knowledge, an ability that includes the above listed process. The ability of recognizing concept systems that activated by terms in context does not make translators to be experts within the field, however provides them with the necessary knowledge that paves the way of understanding in order to succeed in the process of information transfer and communication (Rodríguez Camacho 2002: 311). As a result, terminological sub competence does not refer to the acquisition of a list of terms, yet it refers to the translator's ability of acquiring the knowledge represented by these terms.

According to Izquierdo Aymerich (2003), terminological acquisition is a cognitive and linguistic ability that permits the translator to model reality in consonance with cognitive schemas or world views that serve as a reference for each translation. For instance, translators should be able to identify the most relevant conceptual relations and their lexical formalizations in the discourse. They should also be able to extract recurrent semantic and syntactic patterns or templates in both languages.

In comparison with the studies carried out on translation problems that focused on different types of translation problems, the present study shed the light in detail some essential lexical encounters that undergraduate students face in translating from English into Arabic especially lexical problems of specific terms. On the other hand, it cannot be denied that the review of previous studies helped the researcher a lot in identifying translation problems in general, and in determining which are important to be studied and which are not.

The findings obtained from the previous studies had a role in deciding on the frame in which the texts included in the study should be selected. The present study dealt with some lexical problems that were not discussed extensively in the previous studies such as lexical gaps in terms of translating terms related humanitarian specialized field from English into Arabic. Unlike previous studies, the study used 30 humanitarian terms within short sentences that were selected by the researcher to suit the level of the fourth level undergraduate students, to show the difficulties of each lexical feature that face university students during translation process.

As far as translating from English into Arabic is concerned, there is a need for systematic study of the lexical differences between the two languages so that the lexical translation problems from English into Arabic could be identified. Nida (1964) classified theories of translation into three main categories: Philological (pre-linguistic), Sociolinguistic, and linguistic theories of translating while Chau (1984) focused on associating translating with grammatical transfer. He believes that language is viewed as grammar, and translating is no longer than substituting the grammar and vocabulary of one language for the grammar and vocabulary of another. This may not be exactly true as translation includes not only linguistic transfer, but also cultural one. The researcher realizes this truth but the main concern of the present study will be lexical problems in general in one aspect, and lexical encounters in translating humanitarian terms in another aspect. The entire matter of translation starts from understanding the source text by reading it carefully and being well aware about the target language and the target culture. As emphasized by Robinson (2003: 16): "professional translators need to slow down to examine a problematic word, or phrase, or a syntactic structure, or a cultural assumption carefully with a full analytical awareness and its possible solutions". Thus, this leads us to believe that translating a text is not an easy task but as Delisile (1981) states that "translation is an arduous job that puts you in a state of despair at times,

but also an enriching and indispensable work that demands honesty and modesty" (cited in Gerding Salas, 2004: 01). These problems, and others, direct the researcher's attention to the work and the character of students, how they tackle a text in order to translate, and the steps they follow to reach at the final product of a well-translated text or in the target language. Such strategies will be discussed in detail showing the suitable solutions for some lexical problems confronted by undergraduate students. Indeed, Lexical challenges usually occur due to the diversity of languages. Each language is different from other languages, has specific features and differently equipped to express different real world relations. It does not absolutely express all aspects of life with the same equal ease;" finding an understandable category which is regularly expressed in all languages is difficult" (Ivir, 1981: 56). Therefore, a student may find himself in a fix, because some items in the source text are not lexicalized in the target language. It is highly essential to bear in mind that a lexical item consists of a relation between meaning and form. The meaning of a lexical item is sometimes different from its reference.

Therefore, some translation problems arise at the word level; especially when it comes to translating from English into Arabic. Thus, for students to understand the message of the English text clearly, its necessary to understand to the meaning of words especially key words so that they can translate them successfully to produce a coherent target text in Arabic. In other words, students sometimes find difficulty in getting the meaning of some English words. Therefore, they fail most of the time in conveying a clear message because of the difficulty of English words. Most English words are foreign so they create a kind of confusion and for students which results misunderstanding of the sentence. Logically speaking, each word should have only one meaning, but as it is commonly known this is not the case. When a word has more than one meaning; it said to be lexically problematic and ambiguous. Thus, the central question of the lexical work is the

meanings of words; the students need to be exposed to all the contexts in which a word may occur. Hence, from these contexts, it is possible to identify the different meanings associated with a word. For example, the term SP which stands for (separated children) may create a lot of confusion for Arab students whose specialization is translation. In the sentence, the mix migration included elderly,minors and separated children. Here separated children might be understood as a group of children separated from each other while this term is used for children who were separated from their parents. An other good example the terms BIA which stands for (Best interest Assessment) and BID, which stands for (Best Interest Determination) which 99% of the students failed in giving the right lexical meaning for both. Their translation for both these terms in Arabic was

"تقييم المصلحة الأفضل ـ تحديد المصلحة الأفضل"

 The main lexical problem faced by the students here was inability of finding the right translation for the word (best). In other words, they misused the word and translated it as a superlative form because they were taught at schools that best is the superlative form of good and better. Therefore, the correct translation for both terms should have been given the correct and accurate meaning of translation as shown below.

تحديد المصلحة الفضلى and تقييم المصلحة الفضلى

As for lexical problems, Ghazala (1995: 91) claimed the main problem for students is that in most cases they understand all synonymous words as absolute synonyms only. Although students are aware that in almost all languages there is no total sameness between words, they face problems when translating these words. Baker (1992:20) argued that translation problems at word level arise for translators because there is no equivalence at word level between different languages. But what

is essential in Baker as discussion is lexical meaning. Baker said, Non-equivalence at word level means that the target language has no direct equivalent for a word which occurs in the source text.

Malmkjaer (2005:90) claims that when words are combined, they contribute to the meaning of the text. Therefore, she claimed that translators should deal with the relationships between words in texts; these relationships are exploited in the creation of text whether first written or translated.

Neurbert (1999: 120) also claimed that words are unique vehicles of meaning, yet; they are sometimes put together to convey thoughts which can shed the meaning neatly into new containers which the translator has located in the target language. He also claimed that words, and their lexical meaning, gain other meanings while used in larger units. The central lexical problem faced and displayed by the students is their direct, literal translation of almost all words. They commit themselves to it sincerely and in an unusual way in all texts and contexts, in regard to all words, phrases and expressions. There are words of thought, feeling, imagination and moralities whose core meaning may be derived from a sum of examples in a linguistic as well as a situational context where the connotations may even have replaced the denotations but which nevertheless have autonomous, extra contextual translatable meanings, (Newmark,1991:87).

The proposed lexical problems in translation expected to be encountered by students would firstly be lexical problems of using polysemy. Within the field of lexical semantics, polysemy is of main concern. It is defined by Taylor (1995: 99; 2003: 638) as the association of two or more related senses with a single linguistic form. This means that polysemy refers to a lexical relation where a single linguistic form has different senses that are related to each other by means of regular shifts or extensions from the basic meaning (Cited in Zawada article, 2007). Therefore, polysemy is mainly the case of a single lexical item having multiple meanings. For instance, the word fix has

many meanings such as arrange, attach, get ready and repair. Polysemy is a debated and difficult problem in lexical semantics. The problem of polysemy or the multiplicity of word meanings has preoccupied linguists since the past decades. The issue of polysemy continues to challenge linguists. Similarly, polysemy was the main aspect of the work of Ravin (1990) about the relationship between semantic and syntactic structure. In that work, Thus, polysemy is a fundamental aspect in defining the systematic relationship between meaning and structure. Polysemy can impose problems in English- Arabic translation. What criteria are used to tackle the issue of polysemy in translation? How does the context determine the appropriate sense of a polysemous word? Polysemy is also called radiation or multiplication. This happens when a word acquires a wider range of meanings (Quiroge Clare: 2003). Consequently, a polysemic word is a word with different meanings and, therefore, problems rise and ambiguity becomes the first issue whenever these words are used. Moreover, polysemes are words that have one central meaning and peripheral meanings one of which may take over and become the core meaning. Quiroge-clare (2003) refers to polysemy as being one of the most common types of words causing ambiguity. This ambiguity results when it is not easy to decide which meaning among many is used. The problem with polysemy is that the ambiguity it creates makes it hard to get the meaning of a sentence automatically. Polysemy carries different meanings across English and Arabic language. Lexical ambiguity is one of the types that is concerned with the multiple meanings or interpretations of a single word. For instance, the word (field) in, (the field in which was Michel working was so difficult. Field in this sentence can have two different meaning one of which is work in the farm and the other meaning is an area where Michel works not necessary to be a farm. It really causes a lot of misunderstanding or confusion for English learners when they come across with such words that have more than one meaning. Chapelle (1994) suggests to use three concepts

to describe vocabulary ability: the use of context in vocabulary use, which can influence lexical meaning; vocabulary knowledge, which include vocabulary size, knowing of word characteristics and lexicon organization, and fundamental processes; and meta cognitive strategies for vocabulary use, which are also called 'strategic competence.' Richards (1976), whose article is a very important contribution to learner-centered techniques concerning vocabulary acquisition (Suberviola and Mendez, 2002). According to Richard's Vocabulary Knowledge Framework, knowing a word means knowing about the word's: frequency and collocability; register; position; form; associations; meaning-concept (knowledge about the semantic value of the word); and meaning-associations (knowledge about the word's different meanings). Based on the above discussion and the given studies, it can be understood that learners as EFL students must have a great deal of lexical background and semantic overlapping. They should pay a lot of attention to lexical definitions than any other language component.

Another good example of the word field can repeatedly be heard in humanitarian work. Case workers go to the field early and may leave the field early or late. Field here can mean the locations of refugees or Internal displaced persons (IDPs) and this may create a lot of problems when translating from English into Arabic. polysemy is regarded as a one-to-many relationship between syntactic or lexical forms and their corresponding meanings.

The second lexical problem may occur in collocations, Baker (1992: 47) looked at collocations as the tendency of words to co-occur together regularly in a given language. For instance: rancid and addled 'even though they refer to the same thing, addled butter and rancid eggs are unacceptable Collocation meaning should be understood as one word. Although word meaning denotes what a word is, when a word collocates with another, its meaning depends largely on its pattern of

collocation. It is no more in isolation. That is what Baker (1992:53) meant when she stated that taking account of collocation meaning rather than substituting individual words with their dictionary equivalents was crucial. An example of collocation that many learners of English may be familiar with the different adjectives that are used to describe a long life, high mountains, tall buildings. All these adjectives can have the same meaning, but different usage. For example, the adjective tall cannot be used with the noun life, also long cannot go with mountains and high not go with houses. Although all three adjectives describe the height of something, they are not exchangeable. In another familiar example of collocation, we talk of high mountains and tall trees, but not usually of tall mountains and high trees. Similarly a man can be tall but never high (except in the sense of being intoxicated!), whereas a ceiling can only be high, not tall. A window can be both tall and high, but a tall window is not the same as a high window. We get old and tired, but we go bald or grey. For example, my hair went grey. We get sick but we fall ill. A big house, a large house and a great house have the same meaning, but a great man is not the same as a big man or a large man because here great man describes his personality or his characteristics. You can make a big mistake or a great mistake, but you cannot make a large mistake. You can be a little sad but not a little happy. We say very pleased and very tiny, but we do not say very delighted or very huge. And so on - there are endless examples of this kind of difficulty! 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 a lifetime experience of hearing and reading the words in set combinations. The non-native speaker has to be aware of these collocations to be able to find the right equivalence in   English and Arabic compounds are asymmetrical. This may be due to the difference in the morphological origin of the two languages; Arabic is Semitic and English is Endo-European language. Compounds are groups of two or more

elements treated as a unit. They consist of two or more bases joined together without the use of derivational affixes. Compounds are either primary or secondary. In a primary compound or base compound, two bases (derivationally bound forms) are joined together. In a secondary compound or stem compound, both or all of the constituents of the compound are stems (free forms). English primary and secondary compounds can be formed in a variety of ways: two nouns, a verb followed by a noun, a noun followed by a verb, a verb and a preposition, an adjective and a noun. In English, compound nouns are the most common, verb compounds are not quite so common. Compounds may be written in three different ways, which do not correspond to different pronunciations; the solid or closed form in which two usually moderately short words appear together as one; the hyphenated form in which two or more words are connected by a hyphen. In general, omit the hyphen when words appear in regular order and the omission causes no ambiguity in sense or sound; the open or spaced form consisting of newer combinations of usually longer words. Many English compound nouns are rendered either by original nouns that Arabic already has in its stock as: sun-in law, father -in low, or by one word nouns (or adjectives /participles functioning as nouns).

Traditional grammarians believe that such Arabic compounds are derived from the trilateral verb form or from one of its derived forms, e.g. goldsmith (from the verb, onlooker from the verb (b) some are rendered in Arabic by the structure Noun +Adjective (the normal order in Arabic), e.g. The Red Sea(c) Some are rendered by a syntactic structure that differs from the above mentioned types, for example: part of speech (one part from the part of speech).

Compounds play a role in the lexicon because they have the ability for creating a class of noun phrase, and according to Downing (1977:823) they are characterized by packing a maximum amount of information into a minimal amount of linguistic structure.

Maalej (1994) divided English compounds into three kinds namely, compound of nouns, compound of adjectives, and compound of verbs. According to Kharm and Hajjaj (1989:47), Arabic compounds are made up of two constituents, but Arabic compounds take different syntactic shapes when translated. In Arabic language there is just one form of noun compound which is noun+ noun while in English language there are three forms that can take one form when they are translated into Arabic, two of which deal with the possessive case such as noun + noun, noun + of + noun and the last one is compound of noun + noun. Arabic compounds are simple and less productive than English compounds because English compounds are so wide and consist of a lot of forms depending on each type. Therefore, English compounds may be problematic in translation since, Arabic uses very little linguistic resources to cope with English compounds, namely: nominal annexation. Translating compounds into Arabic is essentially investigating the equivalence of compounds constituents. One of the problems related to the translation of compounds occurs from the fact they are not always composed so transparently that syntactic-semantic relations between their components can be interpreted or predicted from rules (Jalcobsen 1992: 129) One of the most important aspects of English is idioms. They are frequently used in a wide variety of situations, from friendly conversations and business meetings to more formal and written contexts. An idiom is a group of words which has, as a whole, a different meaning from the meaning of its constituents. Most idioms are unchangeable in the sense that they have fixed forms and meanings. The idiomatic expression is not always grammatical, but it is established, accepted and used by native speakers of the language with a fixed structure and meaning. Idioms

are special expressions which are almost known and agreed by all the members of a particular community. Idiomatic expressions in English, usually, do not respect the English word order. The main feature that characterizes idiomatic expressions is that the words are used metaphorically. Therefore, the surface structure has a little role to play in understanding the meaning of the whole expression. For example, in to bury the hatchet, meaning, to become friendly again after a disagreement the meanings of the words, to bury and the hatchet are different from the meaning of the whole expression. Idioms always cause a lot of problems to learners of a foreign language. Students usually find difficulties in recognizing an expression as idiomatic or not, and then understanding its exact meaning. This is mainly due to the fact that idiomatic expressions carry a metaphorical sense that makes the comprehension of an idiom difficult if not impossible. In other words, the meaning of an idiom cannot be deduced from the meaning of its constituent parts. In addition, the source and the target cultures have a great influence on the comprehensibility as well as the translatability of idioms. Hence, better understanding and using idioms needs both knowing their historical background and familiarity with both the source and the target cultures, and having a clear idea about their different situational context. On the one hand, the process of translating fixed expressions from one language into another is a fine work which obliges a student of translation to have a good knowledge of both languages and cultures being shared or transferred as well as being able to identify and cope with the contingent problems in the process of finding an efficient equivalent. People of different languages use completely different expressions to convey a similar meaning, in a way that while an expression might be completely tangible and easy-to-understand, the same set of words and expressions may seem fully vague and dim and even in some cases nonsense to the speakers of the other. This originates in the fact that each

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language has got some culture-specific items that are completely different from the corresponding items in another language.

Moreover, there are some differences in such factors as religion, geographical locations, different ideologies, and social classes of languages and societies that harden the process of understanding and translating fixed expressions from one language into another. Hence, there are two main problems in this case: 1) How to understand the meaning of fixed expressions of a specific language; and 2) How to recreate the same sets of fixed expressions of one language in another language in a way that they might convey exactly the same ideas of the original language. When translating fixed expressions, the students should not explain it by giving its direct meaning, rather they should concentrate on translating and giving its unspoken meaning. The explanation is only needed and acceptable when the translation is not possible for some reasons. So the students should be careful while translating such expressions because they are too problematic. As for synonymy, it has been defined and discussed in different ways by different writers. Palmer (1976:88), for instance, defines synonymy as "sameness of meaning". For Lyons (1968:446), synonymous lexical items are "those having the same sense", but, he adds that for these items to be synonymous, they should be substitutable in the utterance without affecting their conceptual meaning. For example, "discover" could be substituted for "find" in a sentence like "we found the boys hiding in the shed", without affecting the conceptual meaning of the sentence, but, "find" could not substitute for "discover" in "Sir Alexander Fleming discovered Penicillin in 1928" (Jackson, 1988:65). It should be emphasized that the phenomenon of synonymy has been a controversial issue among European and Arab linguists. In English, for example, there are two points of view regarding synonymy: the strict point of view and the flexible one. The former denies the existence of synonymy altogether. The flexible view, on the other hand, maintains that any two words which share at least one sense

are synonymous (Cruse 1986). In the case of Arabic, it is important to note that Arabic is characterized by the overuse of synonymous lexical items. Like English, there are two teams of scholars concerning synonymy in Arabic: those who reject the notion outright, and those who believe in it (Al- Saleh, 1960:292-301). Linguistically, Edmonds and Hirst (2002) argue that synonymy is a complex phenomenon and it inherently affects the structure of lexical knowledge. An exact translation is probably impossible for every translation possibility will omit some sense or express some other possibly unwanted sense. Faithful translation, therefore, requires a sophisticated lexical-choice process that can determine which of the synonyms provided by one language for a word in another language is the closest or most appropriate in any particular situation. This is why students of translation need to carefully investigate contextual cognitive synonyms in order to reach to their precise intended meanings in a certain context. Both Arabic and English are full of synonyms, with more to Arabic than English, to the extent that Arabic is described as the language of synonymy. Discussing the translation problems of synonymy would further the students' inventory of synonyms in both languages. For example, how many synonyms can the students guess for 'anger, fear, death, bee and lion' in Arabic? (Many for each of the first three, and more for the fourth (i.e. lion) such as, but only one for the last (bee). A number of these synonyms can be sufficient for the students to follow up the new ones and, hence, resolve the problems of synonymy in both languages. The lexical expected problem to be discussed in this respect is the one associated with denotation and connotation. As is well known, there are two main types of meaning: denotation and connotation. Denotation refers to the literal, the referential, objective, cognitive or scientific meaning of a word. Denotation is the direct specific meaning of a word, and is normally the dictionary definition or first definition of a word in a dictionary. In Bella (1991: 98) it is the shared property of the speech community which uses the language of

which the word or sentence forms a part. Connotation, on the other hand, refers to the metaphorical, emotive, poetic or associative meaning of a word. Newmark (1981: 119) defines it as the meaning of a particular word or word- group which is based on the feelings and moral ideas it rouses in the transmitter or receptor, in brief, the meaning conveyed or suggested apart from the thing it explicitly names or describe. In fact, connotative meanings come from our experience, education, religion, culture, and traditions. Whereas some words have only denotative meanings (i.e. neutral meanings) in a given language or for (certain) people in a given society, others have both denotative and connotative meanings again depending on the same variables. The problem for translation is that connotations in a specific language and culture may not be understood or may be strange to people of other cultures. Connotative meaning poses greater difficulty to the translator than denotative meaning because it is variable according to historical period and culture. The more gaps between the Source Language and the Target Language cultures, the more problematic the issue of translatability becomes. Some words with neutral connotations in the Source Language may have strong emotional overtones in the Target Language if translated literally (Larson, 1984:131). To further understand connotations and the problems they cause to the students in translation, they need to distinguish between six types of connotative meaning, which are the following: allusive meaning, attitudinal meaning, associative meaning, collocation meaning, reflected meaning, and affective meaning. Arabicization by definition is the adaptation of non-Arabic terms to Arabic by applying the rules of the phonological and sometimes morphological systems of the language to the terms. It is also one of the most important factors which contributed to the rapid modernization of the Arabic language. Arabicization is looked upon as an adopted method for introducing new terms into Arabic, i.e. it is the process of translating foreign terms using Arabic forms. For instance: Philosophy. Translation of foreign words into

Arabic is not a new phenomenon in the Arab world; it goes back in antiquity to the period extending from the beginning of the eighth century up to the end of ninth century. Arabization is one of the methods of lexical expansion by Modern Standard Arabic. For some Arab Scholars Arabization is considered to be the most appropriate technique in creating and introducing foreign neologisms in Arabic. Arabization is the process of converting a new foreign word into an equivalent that is formed from Arabic roots. Hence the problem is whether or not to Arabize before merely finding a problem or coining an equivalent. Anyway, Arabization as a translation problem is a Target Language production and not a Source Language problem. In translating words such as, students would not contemplate even bothering to transfer them into their Arabic equivalents. Any term could be considered an Arabic word as long as it uses the roots of its derivation, and as long as it is derived according to the patterns of the Arabs. The process of Arabicization has to undergo certain changes in order to suit the Arabic phonotactics and graphological rules. This is also called naturalization which is the process of subjection of the foreign term to the Arabic phonological and grammatical systems.

"Phrasal Verbs are made up of a verb and a particle. A particle can be an adverb (such as "*out*" or "*away*") for example: "*go out*", "*put away*", or it can be a preposition (such as "*with*" or "*from*") for example: "*deal with*", "*shrink from*". Some phrasal verbs have two particles; both an adverb and a preposition for example: "*get on with*", "*stand up for*" ". They are one type of the English verbs that operates like a phrase, more than a word. This means that phrasal verbs are unlike single and simple verbs in the sense that they are a set of words (verb+ adverb/preposition). It has been noted that this type of verbs has been called differently such as: discontinuous verbs, compound verbs, verb and adverb combination, verb particle construction, two-part word verb and three-part word verb (McArthur, 1992). Other grammarians like Parrott (2000) and Crystal (1995) call them

multiword verbs. Parrott (2000) defines multiword verbs as being "made of a verb (e.g. *come, get, give, look, take*) and one or more particles. Particles are words that we use as adverbs and /or prepositions in other contexts (e.g. *away, back, off, on, out*)" Meaning of phrasal verbs cannot be obtained by knowing the meaning of the simple verbs separated from the meaning of the particles. As far as meaning is concerned, phrasal verbs can be classified into three types; the transparent, the semi-transparent (or semi- opaque and the opaque phrasal verbs. Students of translation at English departments find problems when translating them. They are unable to either to translate them or to give correct or appropriate equivalents for them in the target language that is Arabic. Since they face problems in understanding and using phrasal verbs, there will be a mistranslation or incapacity of translating them. According to Ghazala (1995), phrasal verbs are difficult for learners to be translated from English into Arabic because they are "misleading and are usually confused with prepositional verbs (i.e. a verb+ preposition) which are not idiomatic and retain their direct meaning. Still another cause which makes the translation of phrasal verbs difficult is learners' unfamiliarity and limited exposure to them. Learners' unfamiliarity with phrasal verbs may be linked to their limited exposure to them in classrooms or may be because of teachers non-enough focus and use of phrasal verbs or insufficient practice. According to Ghazala (1995),"it is by no means possible for students to know the meanings of all English phrasal verbs not even all the combinations like "*come*", "*do*"," *drink*", "*go*", "*see*", "*take*", etc Nevertheless, they are able to know and to memorize the common widely used phrasal verbs. Lexical gaps or lexical holes, a lexical gap as a term is in more currency than a lexical hole. There is a unanimous agreement between linguists and translation specialists of what a lexical gap means. According to Trask (1993:157), the term refers to" the absence of a hypothetical word which would seem to fit naturally into the pattern exhibited by existing words". Lehrer (1974:95), as a semanticist, states

that the term 'lexical gap' is ambiguous in the sense that it has been applied to all sorts of instances where a word, in one way or another, is missing. It is beyond dispute that the lexical framework of any language is often built in terms of semantic fields (e.g. kinship relations, color terms, military ranks etc), sense relations (e.g. hyponymy, synonymy, antonymy etc), collocation, idioms and relational opposites. The basic principle behind the availability of certain lexis in a given language is its users' need. Therefore, it is possible to find a lexical item referring to a particular object or concept in one language, but it is absent in another. Bentivogli and Pianta (2009) underline that a lexical gap occurs whenever a language expresses a concept with a lexical unit whereas another language expresses the same concept with a free combination of words.

Al-Saeed (1989) says that choosing the right word in translating a text is one of the most challenging tasks the translator has to cope with in the translation process. It is so tricky that the translator has to resort to the dictionary to find the right word to get the meaning across to the reader, but most often, the dictionary may not help. Kashgary (2011) argues that lack of equivalence due to incompatibilities and culture-specific differences between the two languages is also a significant problem that faces Arabic-English translators. The researcher gave the example of these cultural and religious words such as ''Halæl''/ permissible, ''Haj''/ pilgrimage, "Zakat"/charity, "Baraka"/ God's blessing, "Jihad"/ Holy war; "Al charaf"/ honour, "Al sabe'e"/ baby's seventh-day celebration. These words are difficult to translate into English due to their exact equivalents. Accordingly, these words can not be fully translated by providing their equivalents in the dictionary. For instance, the word [zakath can be translated by using its one-word English equivalent ''charity'' or ''alms'', as many translators did in translating the Quran. However, these equivalents do not provide the whole meaning of the Arabic word as Muslims use it. [zakat] can be more adequately translated by explaining and describing its conditions to approximate its whole

meaning through adding a qualifier ''obligatory'' or ''ordained'' to the English equivalent. So, Volume 2, Issue 3, 2021 International Journal of Linguistics and Translation Studies 37 the more accurate translation would be ''obligatory or ordained charity''. This solution is referred to as ''explanatory equivalent'' by Ghazala (2002). The translator, in this case, is dealing with two different contexts; what is appropriate in one is not necessarily appropriate in the other (Duff, 1984, p.14) Along the same vein, Birjandi (1999) conducted a study to examine the effect of foreign language learners' lexical knowledge on their translation ability. The results of the study showed that there is a significant relationship between lexical knowledge and translation ability. The study also showed that lexical knowledge might contribute to the development of translation skills and conceptual comprehension of the text's text to give a good rendering. Likewise, Khotoba and Tarawneh (2015) found According to research in the field of Applied Linguistics, inadequate lexical knowledge as well as a lack of understanding of meaning have a significant impact on the translation of texts from Arabic to English or vice versa. As a result of their findings, they recommend that further research be conducted to determine the impact of lexical knowledge on the translation of texts from Spanish to Turkish. Moreover, Iranian EFL university students' knowledge of lexical and grammatical collocations was strongly associated with their translation accuracy (Anari & Ghffaroh, 2013). Investigating grammatical equivalence, Baker (1992) notes that grammatical rules may vary across languages, which may pose some problems in finding a direct correspondence in the target language. She claims that different grammatical structures in the source and target language may cause remarkable changes in how the information or message is carried across. These changes may induce the translator to either add or omit information in the target text because of the lack of particular grammatical devices in the target language itself. Among these grammatical devices that might cause translation problems, Baker focuses on

number, tense and aspect, voice, person, and gender. In a Jordanian setting, Dweik and Abu Shakra (2009) administered a translation test to Jordanian university students to translate a set of lexical and semantic collocations from three religious references: the Holy Quran, the Hadith, and the Bible. The study disclosed that literal translation is a dominant strategy applied in rendering the Arabic collocations into English which sometimes distorts the meaning of the source material. In the same context, Dweik and Suleiman (2013) examined Jordanian graduate students' problems in translating culture-bound expressions such as proverbs, idioms, collocations, and metaphors from Arabic into English. The results of the study revealed that graduate students faced several kinds of issues when translating cultural expressions. These challenges are generally related to 1) unfamiliarity with cultural expressions, 2) difficulty to obtain the equivalency in the second language, 3) ambiguity of some cultural expressions, 4) lack of knowledge of translation methodologies and translation tactics. These findings lead the researchers to recommend that more courses be added to academic programs that prepare translators that deal specifically with cultural differences, cultural knowledge, and cultural awareness to narrow the cultural gap. While the previous research has emphasized the difficulties that students face in both translation versions, research has not sufficiently examined comparisons between the obstacles faced by students in English-Arabic- English translation. Investigating these interrelationships. One area of translation that presents a high level of difficulty is the translation of technical terms in any field of science. They believe that the best equivalent representation for a target language version of terminology can only be achieved with the cooperation of both a professional translator and a professional in that particular field of science. As for technical terms, they are distinguished from other types of lexical units in as they have long remained semantically stable within their field of application. Hence, they may be said to be the least troublesome terms for translators. However, they can be

crucial in the context in which they occur, since the rest of the text dealt with will fail to cohere until such terms have been catered for. Also semantic gaps result when there are notions for which we have no word to express. To illustrate, consider some words that describe the family members showing specific genders. The words "father," "uncle, "son," "nephew" and "grandfather" indicate male members of the family. The corresponding words for the female family members are "mother," "aunt," "daughter," "niece" and' 'grandmother." However, the term "cousin" is gender-neutral. It is a term that can be used for a female or male relative. This is an instance in which a semantic gap arises when a specific word has a meaning distinction that can be seen but is missing in the vocabulary. Most instances of semantic lexical gaps are not particularly interesting. A specific type of matrix gap is one that is expected to exist in a hierarchy, either a taxonomic or a metronymic hierarchy, but does not exist (see for instance Cruse 2004). Another type of lexical gap of special interest concerns those notions that are lexicalized in one language, but not in another. Here we are concerned with interlanguage semantic gaps. As mentioned above, the lexical gaps are the resultants of the unlexicalized concepts in a given culture. Language and culture are so intimately related in the sense that the latter is part of the former, which is why some regard language as the mirror of culture. Much of classical Arabic lexis have no one-to-one equivalents in English. So Translating science and technical text in English to Arabic is a great challenge to the translators, but Lexical gaps are attributed to a variety of reasons such as the absence of the lexicalization of some concepts in a given language. The lexicalization of the same concepts in another language constitutes translation problems and difficulties. Cultural differences are mirrored by linguistic ones. As there is very close relationship between language and culture, the cultural gaps are realized in the vocabulary structure of a language. This makes translators job difficult. Treating the cultural aspects implicit in a source text (ST) and finding the most

appropriate techniques for successfully conveying these aspects in the target text (TT) are the problems the translators permanently face. Depending on whether the two (or more) languages concerned are linguistically and culturally related or not these problems may vary in scope. This could lead to two types of untranslatability: linguistic and cultural. The former is ascribed to the non-existence of a syntactic or lexical substitute in the TT for an ST item whereas the latter, on the other hand, is due to the absence in the TT culture of a relevant situational feature for the SL text (McGuire, 1980:32). This situation is reflected in Lyonss (1981:310)statement that "differences of lexical structure (including most obviously, lexical gaps...) make exact translation between languages difficult and at times impossible". The physical environment of a speech community is also involved in creating lexical gaps in the sense that words are coined by speakers to refer to objects or animals found in their surroundings, but not necessarily found elsewhere. The influence of environment on language leads the coinage many words for snow as well as in lion in Arabic Language. When speakers of a language become familiar with the new concept the lexical mechanism compensates the lack of a particular word in a language for a particular concept or object by adding a new word. Speakers of a language resort to at least the following four mechanisms to fill such lexical gaps: semantic extension, blending, combination of old existing words or borrowing. As to translation, Weise (1988:190) maintains that any gap either in the form of one-to-zero or one-to-many equivalents must be compensated by the translator's skill. The existing studies on lexical gaps adopting a cross-cultural perspective concentrate too much on the exploration into the lack of equivalents in the process of translating from the SL to the TL. It is a very common fact that a term expressing a particular idea or concept in the SL may not have a corresponding equivalent in the TL. Every translation practitioner is well aware of this fact. in this circumstance the translator has to resort to free word combination or translation to give full

expression to the idea or concept which is expressed by one word in the SL. For example, the word *Zakah* in Arabic does not have an equivalent in English. Therefore, when translating the word from Arabic into English, we have to use a phrase to do justice to its meaning. In English, it can be expressed by the phrase "a kind of two headed drum" .Sevensen (2009, pp. 271-273) divides the cross-linguistic lexical gaps, into two kinds in terms of fields they are mainly concerned with. They are lexical gaps in political systems and lexical gaps inhabits and customs. The former refers to the lexical gaps resulting from the absence of the terms in the target language for the particular political, economic and legal institutions. They are readily lexicalized in the source language (e.g. the Electoral College, the Federal Reserve System in the USA). The latter refers to the lexical gaps resulting from the absence of the terms in the target language for the historical events, customs and festivals (e.g. Thanksgiving, Boston Tea Party). They cannot be translated word for word as both of them are products of the lack of culture-loaded words in the source language. They have to be translated freely and if necessary be added with annotations so that the target language readers can understand source language text accurately. Language speakers take efforts to fill a lexical gap when the language lacks a particular word for a newly emerging concept. Generally speaking, there are methods for filling lexical gaps. One such method is filling the lexical gaps by means of hypernyms. The vocabulary of a language is hierarchical system, in which words are ranked differently. Some of the words are ranked as superordinate terms or hypernyms while others are ranked as subordinate terms or hyponyms. When a language lacks an appropriate hyponym to express a concrete concept, we can use its hypernym to express this concept by modifying the hypernym with words borrowed from other cognitive domains.

Shammas (2010) addressed the major problems encountered by M.A students of translation at Petra University, Jordan and Damascus University, Syria. In his study, he divided the problems

into two parts one of which is the linguistic problems that involve syntactic and morphological aspects and semantic features of word choice and collocation. The other part is cultural dissimilar cases and reflected sets of social values in the source language (Arabic) and the target language (English). Both the linguistics errors and culture dissimilar cases cause pragmatic failure in understanding English as a target language, however to a different degree. Some of the sample of this study also failed to choose the right or the appropriate meaning for many colocations given in their test. Their mistranslation was due to lacking semantic features of word choice and colocations. That is in addition to unfamiliarity with the TL updates.. Furthermore, Al Mubark and AlZubaid (2014) conducted study on 100 undergraduate students who were registered for B.A program at the Department of English in Imam Al Mahdi University to identify the problems in translating specific cultural concepts. The findings reported that there are difficulties associated with translating specific concepts, unsuccessful attempt to find out the sameness in English language and absence of knowledge of translation techniques and strategies. They recommended figuring out program that deals with specific cultural concepts. Also, Braçaj (2015) pointed out that one of the most challenges that encounters a translator is translating culture specific concepts. Culture and intercultural awareness are more complicated phenomena than they may appear to the translator. As a result, the researcher of the current research felt that there is a need to conduct this types of research. Zughoul and Hussein (2003) studied the extent to which university English language majors could use English collocations properly. A two-form translation test of 16 Arabic collocations was administered to both graduate and undergraduate students of English. The first form included the English translation in a multiple-choice format whereas the other was given as a free translation task. The findings confirmed that Arab learners of English at all levels face difficulty in translating English collocations. Bahumaid (2006) ,in his theses ,he made an

experiment collocation translation test from English into Arabic involving thirty sentences that contextualized different collocations types. The test was provided to four Arab university instructors. The performance of the participants was considerably low. Nassaji (2004) illustrated that ESL students who had more vocabulary knowledge made more effective use of specific types of lexical inference strategies than their weaker counterparts. The wide range of vocabulary background made a noticeable contribution to inferential success over and above the contribution made by the learner's degree of strategy use.   Deeb (2005), in her study, investigated translation problems in terms of translating from English into Arabic. It provided a ranked taxonomy of problems in translating from English to Arabic that was developed through two empirical studies. The taxonomy consisted of four levels: supra, main, sub and sub- sub categories. She studied translation problems in the field of vocabulary, grammar, and text. Khoury (2008) investigated whether morphological awareness of the main word formation process of root and patterns in L2 Arabic facilitated learners' ability to infer meanings of unknown words, coin new words, and retain words. Results showed that students who received explicit instruction and training on roots and patterns significantly out-performed those who did not in inferring and coining unfamiliar items. Morphological awareness greatly enhanced students' lexical inferencing and coining abilities. He recommended that L2 Arabic learners receive instruction in the Arabic root and derivational pattern system as an integral part of lexical development activities starting as early as the first semester. To end with, no one can translate fluently, effectively, and correctly without encountering any difficulty during the translation process. There are, of course, a plenty of difficulties and they differ from type to type, text to text, context to context. The fact is that, all problems should be worked out; each one in its own way according to its type, text and context; the student has to find a solution of some kind in order to be able to carry on his translating task. Without a solution a

student cannot translate, can not accomplish his translation. Meaning that, the student, by confronting the first difficulty, he would put pen down and stop translating, since he can not go further. That is why identifying the problem and finding a solution is indispensable; yet the solution ought to be practical and helpful to him/her.

Chapter Three: Methodology of the Study

<p style="text-align: center">**Chapter Three**</p>

<p style="text-align: center">**Methodology of the Study**</p>

3.1. Introduction:

This chapter introduces the design, instrument, and sample of the study. Moreover, it presents data collection and data analysis.

3.2. Design of the Study:

According to Creswell (2014:41), "Research designs are types of inquiry within qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches that provide specific direction for procedures in a research design". Creswell (2009) defined a quantitative research as "an inquiry into a (social or human problem, based on testing a theory composed of variables, measured with numbers, and analyzed with statistical procedures, in order to determine whether the predictive generalizations of the theory hold true" . The present study adopted a quantitative design of study in order to achieve its aim namely investigating the lexical encounters in translating humanitarian terms by EFL undergraduates in Hadhramout and Al-Rayan Universities. Another aim is to identify suitable strategies for translating these terminologies.

3.3. Sample of the Study

The sample of this study includes 20 undergraduate English Department 4th level female students from Women's College at Hadhramout University. In addition, five boys and girls 4th level students from Al-Rayan University were included in the sample. The sample was selected purposefully as they have studied three courses before and might be able to respond to the instrument of the study (the translation test).

3.4. Instrument

The study instrument is a writing translation test which consists of thirty acronyms and humanitarian terminologies used by International Humanitarian organization. These terminologies and acronyms were put in context to help students find the most appropriate translation . The sample of the study was required to translate the acronyms and the abbreviated terms from English into Arabic. This test was constructed to find out to what extent was the comprehension level of the participants in understanding and translating humanitarian terminologies. Therefore the findings of the test might help in figuring out the lexical encounters in translating international humanitarian terminologies and acronyms by EFL undergraduates at Hadhramout and Al-Rayan universities.

3.5. Validity and Reliability of the Study instruments:

The study instrument was validated by giving it to specialized four university English professors. The reliability of the study instruments was conducted by testing the instrument among a pilot sample to make sure the items of the instruments were clearly understood as to measure almost exactly what they were constructed to measure.

3.6. Data Collection

The researcher collected the data by administrating a written test among the study sample. The test helped in answering the questions of the study, definitely, finding out the major lexical encounters that the sample of the study has faced and the strategies used by them in translating the terms and acronyms in the translation test. The students were given full permission to use any type of dictionary to help them in their written translation test. The test was done in Hadhramout and Al-Rayan universities .

3.7. Data Analysis

After attempting the test and collecting the answers, the researcher found the frequencies and percentages of the participants' answers in the translation test. Their answers were graded according to a certain scale as follows:

1- From 30 - 25 Excellent   2- From 24 - 20 Very Good   3- From 19 -16 Good

4- 15 is Satisfied   5- From 14 – 0 is Failed

Moreover, the researcher counted the frequencies and percentages of the students' mistranslations of acronyms and abbreviated terminologies to see to what extent they constitute a translation problem for them. Further, the researchers analyzed the students' translations of these acronyms and abbreviated terminologies to see the strategies employed by the students to deal with the translation of such acronyms and abbreviated terminologies. Such analysis helped in answering the questions of the study concerning the lexical encounters of translating acronyms and abbreviated terminologies and the strategy of translating them. The researcher tabulated the analyzed data as to illustrate the questions of the study.

As to figure out the strategies adopted by the study sample, the researcher analyzed the content of the students' answers of the translation test. The analysis includes all the levels of the students with focusing on the inappropriate translations as to find out the most problematic areas of translating international acronyms and humanitarian terminologies.

Chapter Four: Findings & Discussions

Chapter Four

Findings and Discussions

4.1. Introduction:

This chapter presents the findings of the study with relevance to the questions of the study. The

study aims to answer the following questions:

1.) What are the lexical encounters that face EFL undergraduates at Hadhramout and Al-Rayan

universities when translating humanitarian terms from English into Arabic?

2.) What are the strategies that could be used to solve these lexical encounters?

4.2. Findings of the Translation Test Regarding their Levels and Percentages of the Appropriate & Inappropriate Answers

To answer the first question of the study, the findings presented in the tables and charts below.

These findings indicate the extent to which students at both university encounter lexical encounters

when translating acronyms and terminologies used by International Humanitarian Organizations.

4.2.1 The Findings of the EFL Students' levels at the Translation Test

Below are the findings of the translation test for EFL students at both universities under study. The

tables (4.2.1 & 4.2.2) present the levels of the students with their frequencies and percentages.

Table (4.2.1): the findings of the translation test of the EFL undergraduates'

levels at Hadhramout University

Excellent		V. Good		Good		Satisfied		Failed	
Frequency	Percentage	Fre	Per	Fre	Per	Fre	Per	Fre	Per
1	5%	2	10%	6	30%	3	15%	8	40%
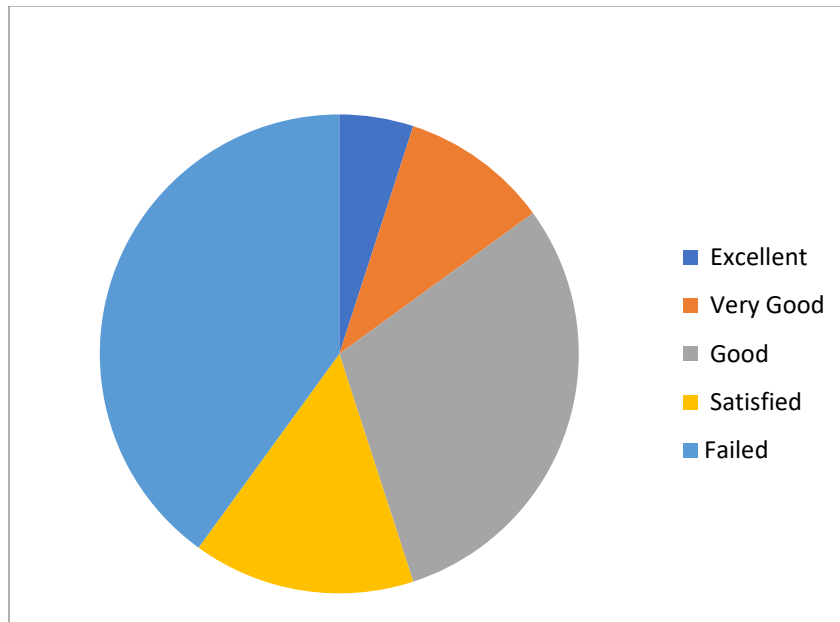
Cart (4.2.1): The percentages of the EFL undergraduates' levels at Hadhramout University

Table (4.2.2): the findings of the translation test of the EFL undergraduates' levels at Al-Rayan

University

Excellent		V. Good		Good		Satisfied		Failed	
Frequency	Percentage	Fre	Per	Fre	Per	Fre	Per	Fre	Per
0	0%	2	40%	1	20%	0	0%	2	40%
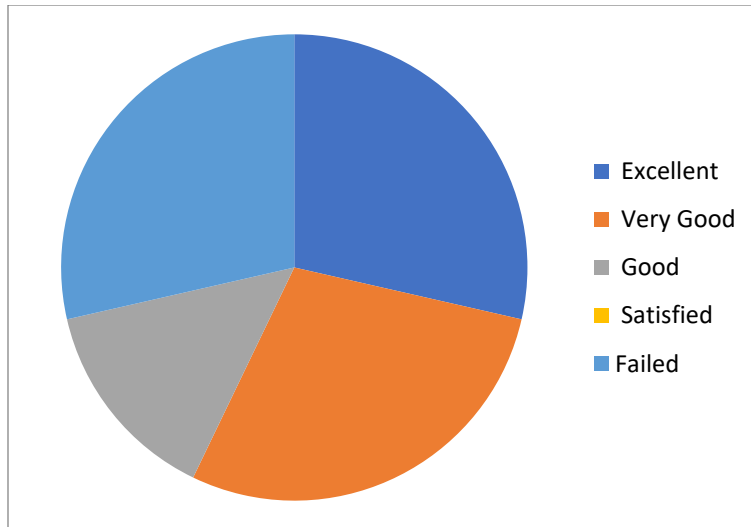
Chart (4.2.2): The percentages of the EFL undergraduates' levels at Al-Rayan University

The translation test findings of the students at the two universities under study indicate that the majority of the students have faced difficulty in translating the acronyms and humanitarian terms from English into Arabic. Only one student out of twenty from Hadhramout University and none from Al-Rayan university have got excellent grade in the test. Two students out of twenty from Hadhramout University have got very good mark and two students out of five from Al-Rayan university have got very good mark. Six students out of twenty from Hadhramout University have got a good mark and only one student out of five from Al-Rayan university have got a good mark. Three students out of twenty from Hadhramout University have got a satisfied mark and no student out of five from Al-Rayan university have got a good mark. Eight students out of twenty from Hadhramout University have failed the test and also two students out of five from Al-Rayan university have failed the test. Moreover, The researcher illustrated the findings according to appropriate and inappropriate translations of acronyms and terminologies used by Humanitarian Organizations by undergraduates at both universities under study.

4.2.2. Findings of HU Undergraduates' Encounters of Translating Acronyms & Terminologies Used by Humanitarian Organizations

The tables below present HU undergraduates' encounters of translating acronyms & terminologies used by Humanitarian Organizations. Appropriate and Inappropriate translations are presented in percentages to indicate these encounters.

Table: (4.2.2.1). HU Frequencies & Percentages of Appropriate & In Translations of Acronyms & Terminologies Used by Humanitarian Organizations

Number of Item	Type of Item	Name of the Item	Appropriate translation		Inappropriate translation	
			Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
1	Acronym	CAAFAG	4	20%	16	80%
2	Acronym	UNCEF	10	50%	10	50%
3	Acronym	OCHA	5	25%	15	75%
	3	3	19	32%	41	68%
4	Terminology	GBV	10	50%	10	50%
5	Terminology	IDPs	11	55%	9	45%
6	Terminology	PSS	10	50%	10	50%
7	Terminology	BIA	17	85%	3	15%
8	Terminology	BID	18	90%	2	10%
9	Terminology	AAP	14	70%	6	30%
10	Terminology	CPCP	15	75%	5	25%
11	Terminology	WSCL	11	55%	9	5%

12	Terminology	WHO	0	0%	20	100%
13	Terminology	CCW	14	70%	6	30%
14	Terminology	CHH	15	75%	5	25%
15	Terminology	CMTF	8	40%	12	60%
16	Terminology	CFS	15	75%	5	25%
17	Terminology	FTR	9	45%	11	55%
18	Terminology	MHPSS	13	65%	7	35%
19	Terminology	PDNA	6	30%	14	70%
20	Terminology	CW	20	100%	0	0%
21	Terminology	CM	3	25%	17	75%
22	Terminology	IDO	1	5%	19	95%
23	Terminology	GBVIMS	6	30%	14	70%
24	Terminology	CPIMS	4	20%	16	80%
25	Terminology	MRM	4	20%	16	80%
26	Terminology	PCM	9	45%	11	55%
27	Terminology	CVA	8	40%	12	60%
28	Terminology	ICRC	7	35%	13	65%
29	Terminology	NGOs	2	10%	18	90%
30	Terminology	IOM	9	45%	11	55%
		27	165	37%	276	63%
Total	30	30	287	48%	313	52%

The findings illustrated in Table (3) indicated that most of the EFL undergraduates at HU faced problems in translating acronyms and humanitarian terms from English into Arabic. It is clear that acronyms constituted a problematic area for them as the percentage of inappropriate translations constitutes (68%) in comparison with the appropriate translations (32%). It is clear that acronyms are more problematic for the undergraduates as their percentage of inappropriate translations constitute (68%) in comparison with abbreviated terminologies whose percentage of inappropriate translations constitute (63%). The most problematic acronyms were number (2,3). For instance, (OCHA) was translated correctly by only five students out of 20. This indicates the lack of awareness of such acronyms among students and ignorance of the suitable strategy to deal with translating them.

As for the abbreviated humanitarian terminologies, it is clear that there is a difference between the percentage of the appropriate translations (37%) and that of inappropriate translations (63%). The percentages indicate that almost the majority of the students find these humanitarian terminologies problematic while less than half of the students could deal with translating them. This finding maybe interpreted in the light of the fact that some EFL students have knowledge and awareness of such terms as many humanitarian organization emerge in the Yemeni Society in the last seven or six years. Consequently, some students become aware of such organization and maybe some of them work in these organizations.

The most problematic humanitarian terminologies include: (IDO) which was translated by only one student out of 20, (CM) which was translated by only 3 students out of 20, (CPIMS, MRM), which were translated by only 4 students out of 20 and (PDNA, GBVIMS) which were translated by only 6 students out of 20. EFL students at HU may find these terminologies

problematic because they are long first and second because they represent a kind of specific jargon of humanitarian organizations.

However the students were able to translate some terminologies without any difficulty such as the term (CW) which was translated by all the twenty EFL students without any problem. Other non-problematic terminologies may include (BID) which was translated by eighteen out of twenty EFL students, (CPCP, CHH, CFS) which were translated by fifteen out of twenty EFL students, and (CCW, AAP) which were translated by fourteen out of twenty EFL students.

4.2.3. Findings of RyU Undergraduates' Encounters of Translating Acronyms & Terminologies Used by Humanitarian Organizations

The tables below presents the RyU undergraduates' encounters of translating acronyms & terminologies used by Humanitarian Organizations. Appropriate and Inappropriate translations are presented in percentages to indicate these encounters.

Table (4.2.3.1). RyU Frequencies & Percentages of Appropriate & Inappropriate Translations of Acronyms & Terminologies Used by Humanitarian Organizations

Number of Item	Type of Item	Name of Item	Appropriate translation		Inappropriate translation	
			Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
1	Acronyms	OCHA	1	20%	4	80%
2	Acronyms	UNCEF	3	60%	2	40%
3	Acronym	CAAFAG	1	20%	4	80%
	3	3	5	33%	10	66%

4	**Terminology**	**GBV**	**2**	**40%**	**3**	**60%**
5	**Terminology**	**IDPs**	**3**	**60%**	**2**	**40%**
6	**Terminology**	**PSS**	**2**	**40%**	**3**	**60%**
7	**Terminology**	**BIA**	**4**	**80%**	**1**	**20%**
8	**Terminology**	**BID**	**4**	**80%**	**1**	**20%**
9	**Terminology**	**AAP**	**3**	**60%**	**2**	**40%**
10	**Terminology**	**CPCP**	**4**	**80%**	**1**	**20%**
11	**Terminology**	**WSCL**	**3**	**60%**	**2**	**40%**
12	**Terminology**	**CCW**	**2**	**20%**	**3**	**60%**
13	**Terminology**	**CHH**	**3**	**60%**	**2**	**40%**
14	**Terminology**	**CMTF**	**1**	**20%**	**4**	**80%**
15	**Terminology**	**CFS**	**1**	**20%**	**4**	**80%**
16	**Terminology**	**FTR**	**2**	**40%**	**3**	**60%**
17	**Terminology**	**MHPSS**	**4**	**80%**	**1**	**20%**
18	**Terminology**	**PDNA**	**2**	**40%**	**3**	**60%**
19	**Terminology**	**CW**	**5**	**100%**	**0**	**0%**
20	**Terminology**	**CM**	**2**	**40%**	**3**	**60%**
21	**Terminology**	**IDO**	**0**	**0%**	**5**	**100%**
22	**Terminology**	**GBVIMS**	**2**	**40%**	**3**	**60%**
23	**Terminology**	**CPIMS**	**0**	**0%**	**5**	**100%**
24	**Terminology**	**MRM**	**4**	**80%**	**1**	**20%**
25	**Terminology**	**PCM**	**2**	**40%**	**3**	**60%**
26	**Terminology**	**CVA**	**3**	**60%**	**2**	**40%**

27	Terminology	ICRC	2	40%	3	60%
28	Terminology	IOM	0	0%	5	100%
29	Terminology	NGOs	1	20%	4	80%
30	Terminology	WHO	0	0%	5	100%
	24	24	61	46%	71	54%
Total	30	30	68	45%	82	55%

The findings illustrated in Table (4) indicated that most of the EFL undergraduates at RyU faced problems in translating acronyms and humanitarian terms from English into Arabic. It is clear that acronyms constituted a problematic area for them as the percentage of Inappropriate translations constitutes (66%) in comparison with the Appropriate translations (33%). It is clear that acronyms are more problematic for the undergraduates as their percentage of Inappropriate translations constitute (66%) in comparison with abbreviated terminologies whose percentage of inappropriate translations constitute (55%). The most problematic acronyms were number (1,3). Moreover, the acronyms (**OCHA,CAAFAG**) were correctly translated by only one student. Similarly, as the case with HU undergraduates, this indicates the lack of awareness of such acronyms among students and ignorance of the suitable strategy to deal with translating them.

As for the abbreviated humanitarian terminologies, it is clear that there is no that big difference between the percentage of appropriate translations (46%) and that of inappropriate translations (54%). The percentages indicate that almost half of the students find these humanitarian terminologies problematic while the other half could deal with translating them. This

finding is different from the finding of HU undergraduates, therefore it may be interpreted in the light of the fact that many EFL undergraduate at RyU have knowledge and awareness of such terms as many humanitarian organization emerge in the Yemeni Society in the last seven or six years. Consequently, students become aware of such organization and maybe some of them work in these organizations.

The most problematic humanitarian terminologies include: (IDO, **CPIMS**) which were not translated by anyone of the 5 students included in the study. Other problematic terminologies my include: (**CMTF**, **CFS**), which were translated by only one student out of 5 and (**GBV, PSS,** PDNA, **CCW**, **FTR, CM, PCM,**GBVIMS) which were translated by only 2 students out of 5. EFL students at RyU may find these terminologies problematic because they are long first and second because they represent a kind of specific jargon of humanitarian organizations.

However the students were able to translate some terminologies without any difficulty such as the term (**CW**) which was translated by all the five students and (**MRM, MHPSS, BIA, BID, CPCP**) which were translated by four students out of five without any problem. Other non-problematic terminologies may include (**CVH, CHH, WSCL, AAP, IDPs**) which were translated by three out of five students. This can be interpreted in the light that the students at RyU have taken more translation courses (as their program is a mixed one between English & translation) than those taken by HU students who study only three translation courses in the whole B.A program.

4.3. Findings of the translation test regarding the strategies implemented by EFL students to answer the translation test

To answer the second question of the study, the findings presented in the tables below. These findings indicate the strategies adopted by the students at both university and how students mistranslate acronyms and terminologies used by International Humanitarian Organizations.

4.3.1 HU Appropriate & Inappropriate Translations & Translations Strategies of Acronyms & Terminologies Used by Humanitarian Organizations

Table (4.3.1) presented the most challenging acronyms and terminologies to be translated by EFL students at HU. Moreover, the table presented the appropriate translations of these acronyms and terminologies and students' inappropriate translations. Further, the suggested strategies to translate these acronyms and terminologies were presented along with the strategies used by the students.

Table (4.3.1). HU Appropriate & Inappropriate Translations & Translations Strategies of Acronyms & Terminologies Used by Humanitarian Organizations

No	Type of Item	Name of the Item	Appropriate translation		Type of Lexical Encounter	Inappropriate translation	
			Model Translation	**Strategy**		Inappropriate translation	**Strategy**
1	Terminology	**International Committee of the Red Cross ICRC**	لجنة الصليب الأحمر الدولي	**Literal**	**Neologism**	منظمة الصليب الدولي	**Inappropriate collocation**
2	Terminology	Non-Governmental	منظمات غير حكومية	**Literal**	**Neologism**	الأنظمة الغير حكومية	**Non-naturalization**

		Organization NGOs				المنظمات اللاحكومية	
3	Acronym	Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs OCHA	مكتب الأمم المتحدة لتنسيق الشؤن الانسانية	Literal	Acronym	مكتب الأمم المتحدة لتنسيق شؤن اللاجئين	Mistranslation of some words
4	Terminology	International Organization for Migration IOM	المنظمة الدولية للهجرة	Literal	neologism	تنظيم الدولي للمهاجرين	Mistranslation of some words
5	Acronym	United Nation International Children's Fund UNICEF	صندوق الأمم المتحدة الدولي لإغاثة الاطفال	Ideational	Acronym	الامم المتحدة الدولية لصندوق الطفل / المنظمة الدولية لصندوق الطفل	Word-for-word / Literal
6	Acronym	Children Associated with armed forces or armed groups CAAFAG	الاطفال المرتبطون بالقوات المسلحة أو المجموعات المسلحة	Ideational	Neologism	المنظمة المسلحة للجماعات الارهابية لتجنيد الطفل	Mistranslation of some words

7	Terminology	Case Management Task Force CMTF	فرقة العمل المعنية بإدارة الحالة	Functional	Neologism	ادارة حالات العنف حالة ادارة مهمة اجبارية	Mistranslation of some words
8	Terminology	Family Tracing and Reunification FTR	تتبع الأسرة ولم شملها	Functional	Collocation	اعادة توحيد و تتبع العائلة	Non-naturalization
9	Terminology	Post-Disaster Needs Assessment PDNA	تقييم الاحتياجات ما بعد الكوارث	Ideational	Neologism	دعم احتياجات ما بعد الكوارث ما قبل الحماية من الأمراض	Mistranslation of some words
10	Terminology	Case Management CM	ادارة الحالة	Literal	Neologism	عامل الإدارة حالة الإدارة	Mistranslation of some words Word-for-word translation
11	Terminology	Infections Disease Outbreaks IDO	تفشي الأمراض المعدية	Functional	Collocation	حماية ضد الأمراض	Mistranslating the idea
12	Terminology	Gender-Based Violence Information Management	نظام إدارة معلومات العنف القائم على	Ideational	collocation Complex term	نظام إدارة المعلومات للعنف بين الجنسين	Mistranslating the idea

		System GBVIMS	النوع الاجتماعي				
13	Terminology	Child Protection Information Management System CPIMS	نظام إدارة معلومات حماية الطفل	Literal	Neologism	نظام حماية معلومات الطفل	Mistranslating the idea
14	Terminology	Monitoring and Reporting Mechanism MRM	آلية الرصد و الابلاغ	Functional	Collocation	آلية الإبلاغ والمراقبة	Non-naturalization
15	Terminology	Program Cycle Management PCM	إدارة دورة البرنامج	Literal	Neologism	إدارة دائرة المشاكل إدارة ملفات	Mistranslating the idea
16	Terminology	Cash Voucher Assistance CVA	المساعدات المالية /النقدية عبر القسائم	Functional	Collocation	مساعدات القسائم النقدية	Literal
17	Terminology	Gender Based Violence GBV	العنف القائم على النوع الاجتماعي	Functional	Collocation	العنف بين الجنسين العنف البشري	Mistranslating the idea

					العنف القائم على الجنس	

According to the table above, it is clear that HU students face problematic areas in translating most of the humanitarian organizations terminologies due to being unaware of the most appropriate translation strategy to translate such terminologies. Most of the lexical encounters were in regard to the type of the terminologies which included neologism, collocations and acronyms. Most of the students faced these encounters because they mistranslate the idea of these terminologies as in example (15 and 17) or because they gave unnatural translation that sounds odd as in terminology (8). Moreover, some terminologies are complex in their structure such as terminology (12). Further, students sometimes gave literal translation of the terminology which lead to mistranslation as in terminology (5) or they tended to use the inappropriate collocation such as in acronym (1)

Regarding the most appropriate strategies, they included functional, ideational and literal equivalences. These strategies were used with a varying degree according to the type of the terminology to be translated. Table (4.3.1.2) illustrates the most appropriate strategies of translating terminologies along with their frequency. Moreover, the inappropriate strategies adopted by EFL students at HU to translate the terminologies and acronyms in the translation test are illustrated in the table below.

Table (4.3.2): Frequencies and percentages of appropriate and inappropriate strategies used by HU EFL students to translate the acronyms and terminologies in the translation test

No	Appropriate translation strategy	Inappropriate translation

	Strategy	F	P	No	Strategy	F	P
1	Literal	7	41%	1	Inappropriate collocation	1	6%
2	Ideational	6	35%	2	Non-naturalization	3	18%
3	Functional	4	24%	3	Mistranslation of some words	5	29%
				4	Mistranslation of The idea	5	29%
				5	Literal	1	6%
				6	Word-for-word	2	12%

Chart:(4.3.2): Percentages of appropriate strategies that should be used by the HU EFL students to translate the acronyms and terminologies in the translation test

It is clear from the above chart that the most strategy supposed to be used by HU EFL students to translate the acronyms and terminologies in the translation test is literal translation. Ideational equivalence comes in the second rank after the literal one. Functional equivalence comes in the third rank as some acronyms and terminologies do not accept either literal or ideational equivalence.

Inappropriate Strategies

- Inappropriate collocation
- non-naturalization
- Mistranslation of some words
- Mistranslation of the idea
- Literal
- Word-for-word

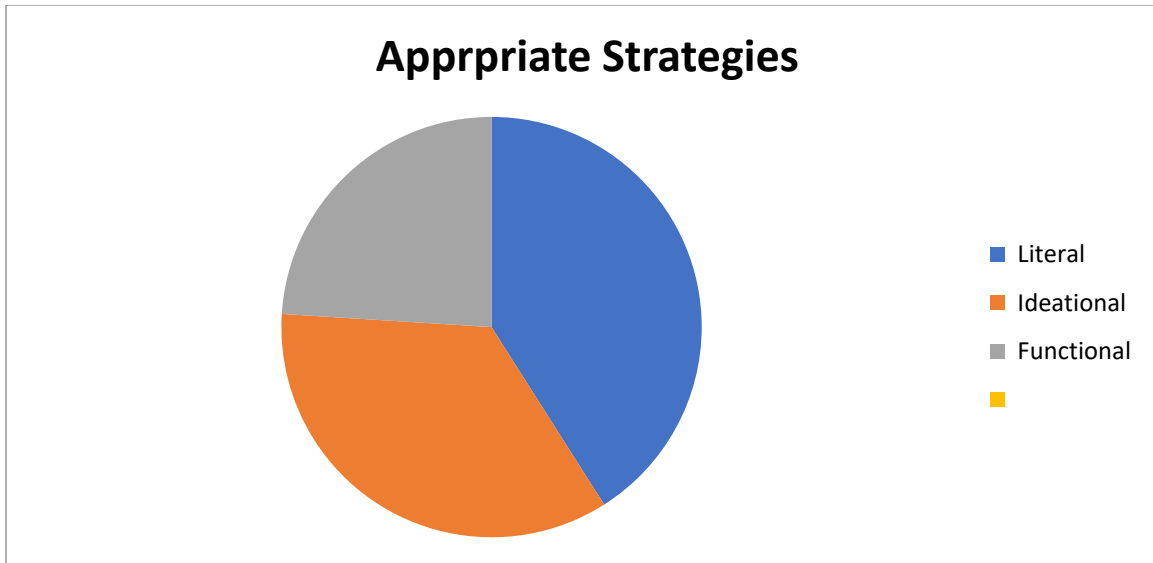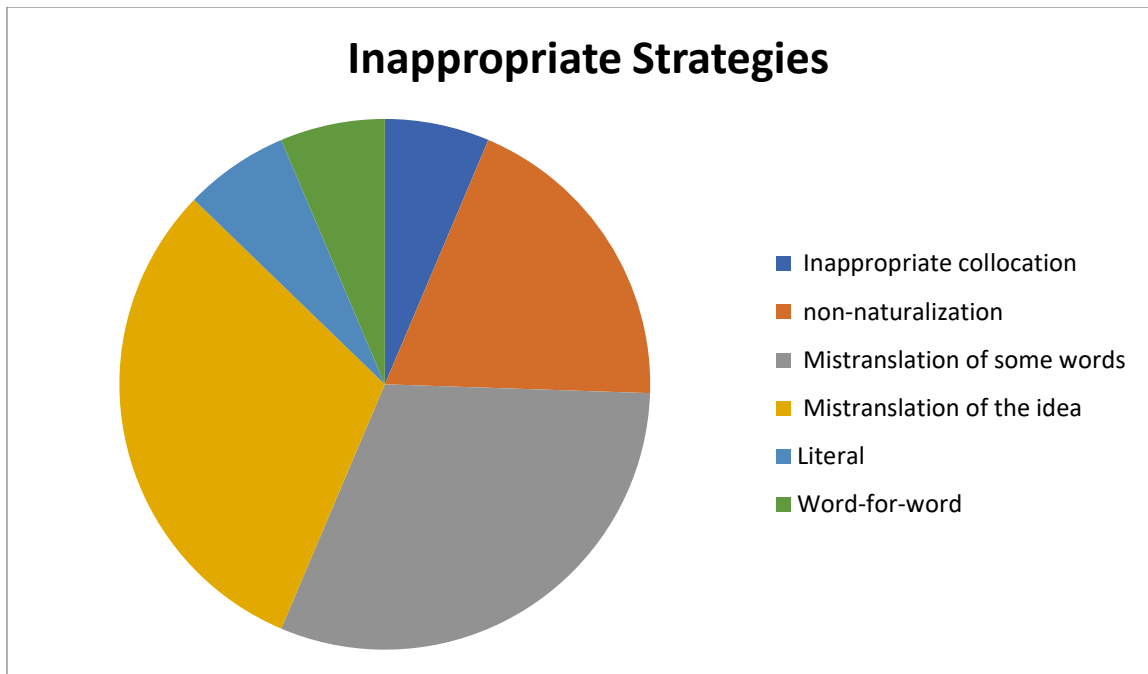**Chart:(4.3.3): Percentages of inappropriate strategies used by the HU EFL students to translate the acronyms and terminologies in the translation test**

It is clear from the above chart that the most two strategies that lead to inappropriate translation is "mistranslating some words" of the acronyms or the terminology and "mistranslating the idea of some words" of the acronyms or the terminology. Students sometimes mistranslate the idea as when translating the terminology **Infections Disease Outbreaks** into "حماية ضد الأمراض" instead of translating it into "تفشي الأمراض المعدية". An example for mistranslating some words of the terminology is translating the terminology **Post-Disaster Needs Assessment** into " **تقييم الاحتياجات ما بعد الكوارث** "instead of translating it into "**دعم احتياجات ما بعد الكوارث** ". After these two strategies comes the strategy of non-naturalization where students translate the acronym or the terminology to unnatural one in the target language. The meaning is there in their translation but it is still inappropriate, for instance some students translate the terminology **Non-Governmental Organization** into "**الأنظمة الغير حكومية ,المنظمات اللاحكومية** " instead of "**منظمات غير حكومية** ".

Literal and word-for-word translation come as less used inappropriate strategies for translating terminologies and acronyms. An example for literal translation is when translating the acronym **"United Nation International Children's Fund "** into **"الامم المتحدة الدولية لصندوق الطفل"** instead of translating it into **" صندوق الأمم المتحدة الدولي لإغاثة الاطفال "**. As for the strategy word-for-word translation, some students translate the terminology **Case Management** into "حالة الإدارة" instead of translating it into " إدارة الحالة ".

4.3.2 RyU Appropriate & Inappropriate Translations & Translations Strategies of Acronyms & Terminologies Used by Humanitarian Organizations

Table (4.3.2) presents the most challenging acronyms and terminologies to be translated by EFL students at RyU. Moreover, the table presents the correct translations of these acronyms and terminologies and students' incorrect translations. Further the suggested strategies to translate these acronyms and terminologies were presented along with the strategies used by the students.

Table (4.3.2.1). RyU Appropriate & Inappropriate Translations & Translations Strategies of Acronyms & Terminologies Used by Humanitarian Organizations

No	Type of Item	Name of Item	Appropriate translation		Type of Lexical Encounter	Inappropriate translation	
			Model Translation	Strategy		Inappropriate Translation	Strategy
1	Terminology	International Committee of the Red Cross ICRC	لجنة الصليب الأحمر الدولي	Literal	Neoligism	الهيئة الدولية للصليب الأحمر	Non-naturalization
2	Terminology	International Organization for Migration IOM	المنظمة الدولية للهجرة	Literal	Acronym	منظمة الصحة الدولية	Mistranslating the idea

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3	Terminology	Mental Health and Psycho Social Support MHPSS	الصحة النفسية والدعم النفسي الاجتماعي	Functional	Collocation	الصحة العقلية والدعم النفسي الاجتماعي	Non-naturalization
4	Terminology	Best Interest Determination	تحديد المصلحة الفضلى	Functional	Collocation	تحديد المصلحة الأفضل أفضل مصلحة لاتخاذ القرار	Non-naturalization
5	Terminology	Community Based Child Protection CBCP	حماية الطفل المبنية على المجتمع المحلي	Literal	Neologism	حماية الأطفال المستندة الى المجتمع	Non-naturalization
6	Terminology	Gender-Based Violence GBV	العنف القائم على النوع الاجتماعي	Functional	Collocation	العنف بحسب النوع الاجتماعي	Non-naturalization
7	Terminology	Psycho Social Support PSS	الدعم النفسي الاجتماعي	Literal	Neologism	الدعم الاجتماعي النفسي	Non-naturalization
8	Terminology	Certain Conventional Weapons CCW	اسلحة تقليدية معينة	Literal	Collocation	الاسلحة تقليدية المحددة	Non-naturalization
9	Terminology	Case Management Task Force CMTF	فرقة العمل المعنية بإدارة الحالة	Functional	Neologism	لجنة ادارة الحالة	Non-naturalization
10	Terminology	Child Friendly Space CFS	مساحات صديقة للطفل	Functional	Neologism & Collocation	المساحة الآمنة للطفل	Non-naturalization

11	Terminology	Family Tracing and Reunification FTR	تتبع الأسرة ولم شملها	Functional	Collocation	البحث عن العائلة ولم الشمل	Non-naturalization
12	Terminology	Post-Disaster Needs Assessment PDNA	تقييم الاحتياجات ما بعد الكوارث	Ideational	Neologism	احتياجات التقييم ما قبل الكارثة	Mistranslating the idea
13	Terminology	Gender-Based Violence Information Management System GBVIMS	نظام إدارة معلومات العنف القائم على النوع الاجتماعي	Ideational	Complex term	نظام إدارة معلومات تعنيف النوع الاجتماعي	Mistranslating the idea
14	Terminology	Program Cycle Management PCM	إدارة دورة البرنامج	Literal	Neologism	دورة إدارة البرنامج	Mistranslating the idea

According to the table above, it is clear that RyU students face problematic areas in translating most of the humanitarian organizations terminologies due to being unaware of the most appropriate translation strategy to translate such terminologies. However, they performed better than HU students as they have less lexical encounters (14) in comparison with HU who have lexical encounters in translating (17) terminologies and acronyms. Most of the lexical encounters were in regard to the type of the terminologies which included neologism, collocations and acronyms. Most of the students faced these encounters because they mistranslate the idea of these terminologies as in the examples (14 and 15) or because they gave unnatural translation that sound odd as in terminologies (11, 10).

Regarding the most appropriate strategies, they included functional, ideational and literal equivalences. These strategies were used with a varying degree according to the type of the

terminology to be translated. Table (4.3.2.2) illustrates the most appropriate strategies of translating terminologies along with their frequency. Moreover, the inappropriate strategies adopted by EFL students at HU to translate the terminologies and acronyms in the translation test are illustrated in the table below.

Table (4.3.2.2): Frequencies and percentages of appropriate and inappropriate strategies used by RyU EFL students to translate the acronyms and terminologies in the translation test

No	Appropriate translation strategies			Inappropriate translation strategies			
	Strategy	F	P	No	Strategy	F	P
1	Literal	6	43%	1			
2	Ideational	2	14%		Non-naturalization	10	71%
3	Functional	6	43%	2	Mistranslation of some words	4	29%

Appropriate Translation Strategies

- Literal
- Ideational
- Functional

Chart:(4.3.2.2): Percentages of appropriate strategies that should be used by the RyU EFL students to translate the acronyms and terminologies in the translation test

It is clear from the above chart that the most strategies supposed to be used by RyU EFL students to translate the acronyms and terminologies in the translation test are literal and functional translation. Ideational equivalence comes in the third rank after these two strategies. Literal translation appears to be the most appropriate strategy of translating the majority of terminologies and acronyms, especially when they are neologisms. However, sometimes functional equivalence is required when the terminologies and acronyms come in the form of collocations.
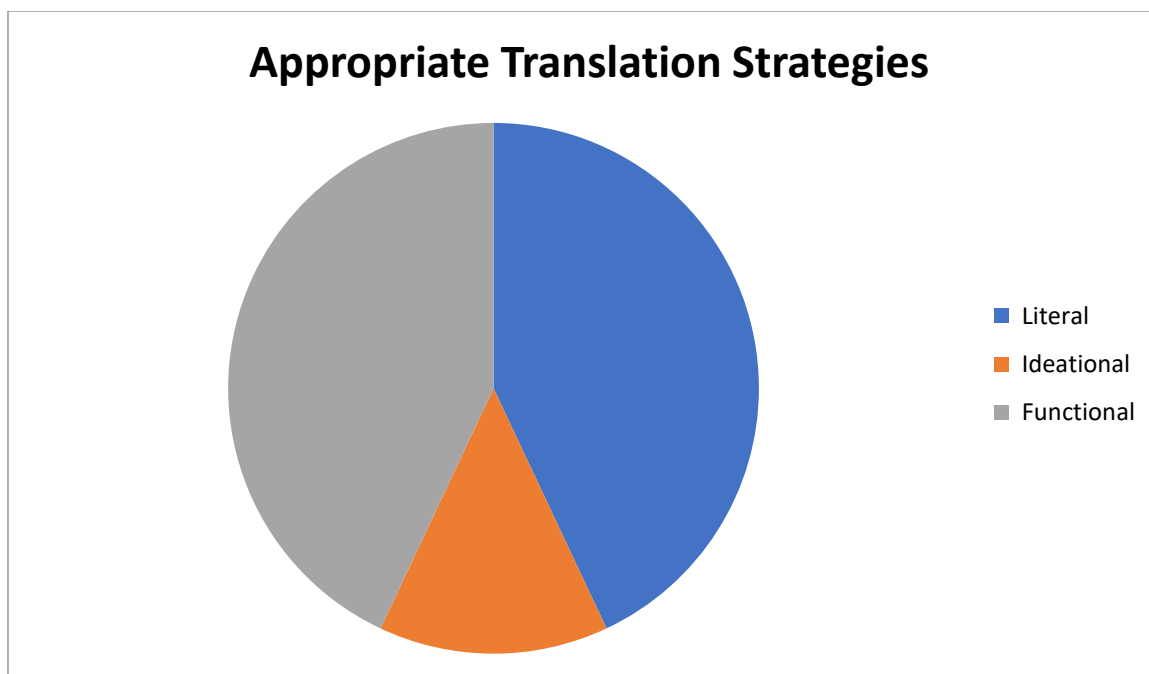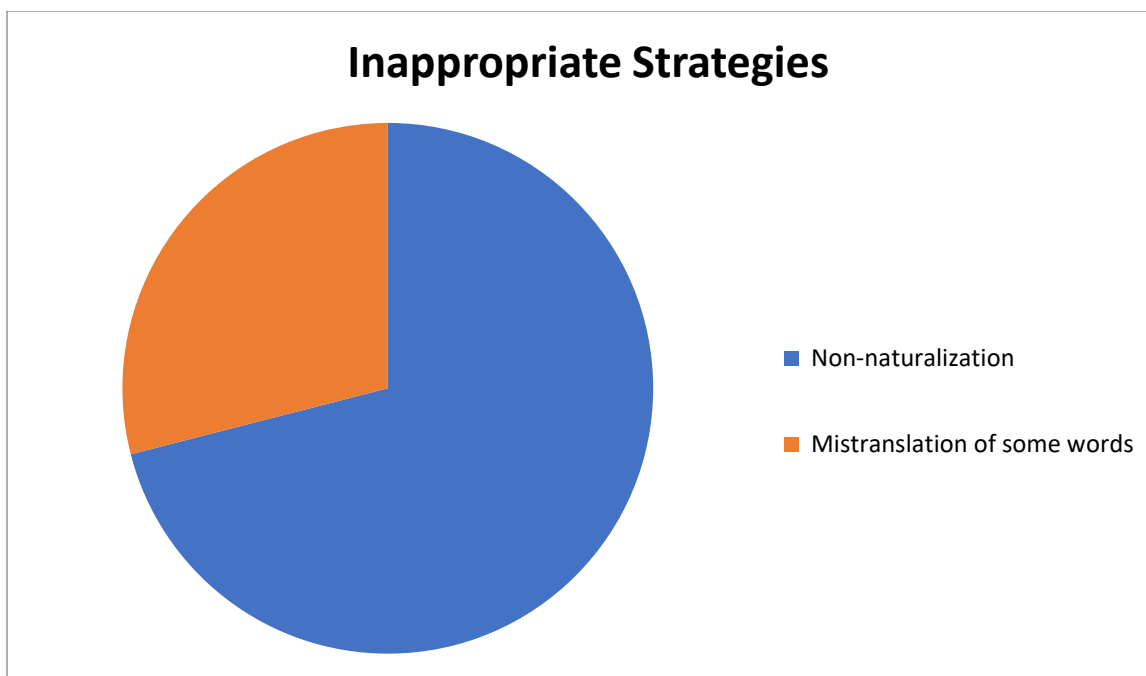
Chart:(4.3.2.3): Percentages of inappropriate strategies that should be used by the RyU EFL students to translate the acronyms and terminologies in the translation test

It is clear from the above chart that there only two strategies that lead to inappropriate translation by the RyU EFL students. These are "mistranslating the idea" of the acronyms or the terminologies and "non-naturalization". An example of "mistranslating the idea" of the acronyms or the terminology is the acronym **International Organization of Migrantion** which was translated into "منظمة الصحة الدولية" instead of " المنظمة الدولية للهجرة". Another example is translating the terminology Program Cycle Management PCM into "دورة إدارة البرنامج" instead of "ادارة دورة البرنامج". As for the strategy of non-naturalization, we find that some students translate the acronym or the terminology to unnatural one in the target language where meaning is there in their translation but it is still inappropriate. Examples for this strategy are Psycho Social Support and Certain Conventional Weapons, which were translated into "الدعم الاجتماعي النفسي " and " الاسلحة تقليدية المحددة

"اسلحة " and "الدعم النفسي الاجتماعي", respectively. However, they should be naturally translated into

"تقليدية معينة".

4.4.Conclusion :

This chapter presents the study findings and their discussions with relevance to the questions of

the study. The discussions presented in this chapter answered the following two questions:

4.4.1. What are the lexical encounters that face EFL undergraduates at Hadhramout and Al-Rayan universities when translating humanitarian terms from English into Arabic?

Based on the discussion of the findings it was revealed that EFL undergraduates at Hadhramout and

Al-Rayan do face lexical encounters when translating humanitarian terms from English into Arabic.

These encounters were in the area of humanitarian organizations terminologies more than acronyms.

This is might be interpreted in light of the fact that firstly, most of terminologies are neologisms and

special jargons related to the work of these organizations. At second, most of the EFL undergraduates

at Hadhramout and Al-Rayan face such lexical encounters due to their unawareness of the most

appropriate translation strategies that might help them to tackle these acronyms and terminologies.

However, it was found that EFL undergraduates at Al-Rayan University performed better than their

colleagues at Hadhramout University due to the fact that the B.A program at Al-Rayan University

focuses on teaching translation courses more than other language and skill courses unlike the B.A

Program at Hadhramout University.

4.4.2. What are the strategies that could be used to solve these lexical encounters?

There are different strategies that could be used by EFL undergraduates at Hadhramout and Al-

Rayan to overcome the lexical encounters they face when tackling the translation of humanitarian

acronyms and terminologies as to produce most appropriate translation. These strategies vary

according to the type and the structure of these acronyms and terminologies. However, literal

translation might be the most appropriate strategy in this respect. Other strategies might include functional and ideational equivalences.

Chapter Five: Conclusion and Recommendation

Chapter Five

Conclusion and Recommendations

5.1 Introduction

Beyond any doubt, translation has always played a great role and paved the way of written communication in many ways, however it has not always been an easy task for many translators as they face different obstacles especially when it comes to translating new terminologies as many of them are not found in English Arabic dictionaries and as there are vocabulary updates every other year. In other words, humanitarian terms are not easy to be translated by many translators except those who worked deeply with international humanitarian organizations.

Based on the discussions and the illustrations that have been conducted in chapter four, the following conclusions and recommendation are presented. Many Humanitarian Terminologies are difficult to translate from English into Arabic as humanitarian terms are not common and not frequently used among English language learners. Therefore, many humanitarian terms cannot be translated as they have no common meaning or universally used. The right and the accurate Arabic translation for the term unaccompanied children is:

اطفال غير مرافقين

However, even professional translators cannot understand the explicit meaning of this term unless they studies the definitions of Humanitarian terminologies or worked in humanitarian field. According to the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNCHR), unaccompanied children are, children who have been separated from both parents and other relatives, therefore if a translator has not yet navigated in humanitarian work or lacks the experience of dealing with

such terminologies, he /she will definitely face translation challenges. A good translation for a foster family is "اسرة حاضنة".

But, the explicit meaning here can only be understood by those who work in the humanitarian field. A foster family is a family who takes care of unaccompanied or separated children according to UNCHR.

5.2. Conclusions:
The following are some of the conclusions of the present study:

1. The majority of EFL students at both university under study face lexical encounters when translating humanitarian acronyms and terminologies.

2. The majority of EFL students at both university under study lack the most appropriate strategies to deal with the translation of these acronyms and terminologies.

3. Most of the EFL students at both university under study produce inappropriate translations of these acronyms and terminologies because of the fact that the mistranslate some words or ideas of the acronyms and terminologies. Moreover, some students produces unnatural translation due to their ignorance of the commonly-used terminologies and acronyms used by these humanitarian organizations. Further, some students use literal or word-for-word translation where they are inapplicable to tackle the translation of these terminologies and acronyms.

4. The literal translation might be the most appropriate translation strategy to be used to tackle the translation of acronyms and terminologies used by humanitarian organizations. However, students should be careful of the use of the most appropriate meaning for the words that constitute the form of these acronyms and terminologies, as they represent a special jargon used by those humanitarian organizations in their work. In addition, these

acronyms and terminologies should be transcribed after translating their full names, especially the mostly-used and known ones. Other less popular acronyms which are not understood by the target language audience need not to be transcribed. It is enough only to translate their full meaning as (Ghazala, 2008) argues in his book (Translation as problems and solutions)

5. The functional and ideational equivalence could be used sometimes when translating humanitarian organizations acronyms and terminologies, especially when they come in the form of collocation and neologism.

6. Sometimes the complexity of the acronyms and terminologies structure might impose extra difficulty when tackling the translation of humanitarian organizations acronyms and terminologies.

5.3. Recommendations for Translation Students:

Based on the study results and discussions, the researcher presents some recommendations for Translation Students as well as further research.

1) Translation Students should take in to account that translating humanitarian terminologies can create a lot of lexical problems if they are not aware of the implicit and explicit meaning. For instance, the abbreviated terms BIA which stands for Best Interest Assessment and BID which stands for Best Interest Determination have been mistranslated by the majority of students. Students could not give the accurate and the correct meaning for both these terms. They translated best as a superlative meaning which is افضل While the accurate and the correct meaning here is فضلى

So, the accurate translation for "Best Interest Assessment and "Best Interest determination" are: تحديد المصلحة الفضلى , تقييم المصلحة الفضلى respectively.

Another lexical problem that students faced was the different function of TL counterparts. For instance the abbreviated term PSS which stands for Psycho Social Support have been mistranslated by many students. Their translation for the term PSS was الدعم الاجتماعي النفسي While the correct translation should have been الدعم النفسي الاجتماعي. Therefore, it is very important for Translation Students to read more about terminologies related to humanitarian fields so that they do not commit any mistakes when translating such terminologies.

Synonyms were also a part of the lexical problems that encountered the students. Many students could not choose the appropriate synonym for the abbreviated term CCW which stands for Certain Conventional Weapons. Many students translated this term as اسلحة تقليدية محددة The word certain has various synonyms in Arabic like محدد, خاص معين However, the best synonym and best translation for certain here is معينة , اسلحة تقليدية معينة.

The abbreviated term AAP which also stands for Accountability to Affected Population is translated by several students as المسائلة للسكان المتضرر . So students translated to as a preposition, but it should have been translated as an adverb. المسائلة أمام السكان المتضرر

ICRC which stands for International Committee of Red Cross was translated by many students as جمعية هلال الأحمر الدولية.

Students again mistranslated Committee as جمعية which is unacceptable translation. The correct translation should have been اللجنة الدولية للصليب الأحمر

The abbreviated term GBV is Universally used among International NGOs and stands for Gender Based Violence. A group of students misunderstood and mistranslated the meaning of this term. They translated Gender as the same meaning of sex which is incorrect. Their translation was العنف

القائم على الجنس. Gender here was translated by the students as جنس, which is totally inappropriate selection of meaning.

The world Health Organization and other International Humanitarian Organizations Summarizes the difference between the two terms as the following:

Sex refers to the different biological and physical characteristics of males and females, such as reproductive organs, chromosomes hormones etc., while gender refers to the socially constructed of men and women such as norms roles, and relationship of and between groups of women and men. It varies from society to society and can be changed. The concept of gender includes five important elements: relational, hierarchical, historical, contextual, and institutional .While most people are born either male or female ,they are taught appropriate norms and behaviors, including how they should interact with others of the same or opposite sex within households, communities and work places.

Also the European Institute for Gender Equality has provided very extensive definitions of sex and gender. Sex refers to the biological and physical characteristics that define human as female or males. These sets of biological characteristics tend to differentiate human as males or females, however, gender refers to the social attributes and opportunities and relationship are socially constructed and are learned through socialization process. They are context-and time specific and changeable, so gender determines what is expected, permitted and valued in a man or a woman in a given context. Therefore, in most societies, there are differences and inequalities between women and men in terms of responsivities assigned, activities undertaken as well as decision make opportunities. Based on the above classification the differences between the term sex and gender, students should bear in mind that not every synonym can be the appropriate one when translating

from English into Arabic. So the correct translation for Gender Based Violence is العنف القائم على النوع الاجتماعي

A) It is a good idea to consult some translators who have navigated a lot in humanitarian work or translation as they have a wide range of experience in dealing with such terms.

B) According to the best knowledge of the researcher, there is no a contemporary dictionary for humanitarian terminologies, however, there is a humanitarian glossary that contains a lot of humanitarian terms which can assist translation students. Moreover, its so advisable to provide some specific translation training courses in humanitarian terminologies for Translation Students at AlRiyan and Hadhramout universities.

5.4 Recommendations for Future Research:

1) It is possible that future research will deal with issues related to translating specific humanitarian terminologies than translating terminologies in general as many researches did.

2) Since the present study deals with translating humanitarian terminologies in general, future researches might deal with specific category of terms used by INGOs, such as lexical terminology problems in child protection , IDPs, Refugees, etc.

3) Future studies might also be conducted in translating humanitarian work.

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Appendixes

Test

14/02/2023

Translate the following acronyms and terms in to Arabic:

The protection monitoring will be done by combination of the methods where information of **GBV (Gender Based Violence**) ……………………………………………will be collected from **IDPs (Internally displaced persons)**…………………………………………………..

The role of **ICRC (International Committee of the Red Cross)**…………………………………………. will be confined in humanitarian access.

The Survivors of the horrible incident need **PSS (Psycho Social Support)**,………………………………… ,but the social worker should fill in **BIA (Best Interest Assessment)**………………………………………form and **BID (Best Interest Determination)**………………………………………….. in the last of the

Interview. All parts involved in the current war will have to rethink of **AAP (Accountability to affected population)**…………………………………………..

The priority of **UNICEF (United Nations International Children's Fund)**……………………………………………………………..is **CBCP(Community Based Child Protection)**……………………………………………………..where recruiting children in wars is considered as **WSCL(Worst form of children labor)**………………………………………………………and this includes **CAAFAG (Children associated with armed forces or armed groups)**………………………………………………………………

Last agreement between the conflict parties was to stop using all kinds of weapons including **CCW (Certain Conventional Weapons)**……………………………………………………………. Besides, one of the most important points mentioned in the discussion was to find a durable solution for **CHH (Child Headed house Hold)**…………………………………………………………….

In all IDP sites, there is **CMTF (Case Management Task Force)**……………………………………………and there is **CFS (Child friendly Space)**………………………………………………however, **FTR (Family Tracing and Reunification)** ………………………………………………is an essential part of our job.The government should encourage to **launch MHPSS (Mental Health and Psycho Social Support)**…………………………………………………… Program.

There is also a program called **PDNA (Post-Disaster Needs Assessment)**………………………………………………………..

There are many **NGOs (Non-Governmental Organizations)** …………………………………………that work in Yemen nowadays, but **OCHA (UN Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs)**…………………………………………………… is the Head of all International Organizations that belong to UN Agencies.

One of the most challenging tasks for **CW (Case Worker)**……………………………is **CM (Case Management)**…………………………………………………………….

IOM(International Organization Of Migrants)………………………………………………… has many projects in different countries of the world, however, its main responsibility is repatriation of migrants to their countries of origin. **WHO (World Health Organization)**………………………………………… is warning about **IDO (Infectious Disease Outbreaks**………………………………………………………………….

The term **GBVIMS Gender-Based Violence Information Management System**…………………………………………………….. is widely used in Western countries.

CPIMS (Child Protection Information Management System)…………………………………………………………. is a program that relates to children.

Many people do not know what **MRM(Monitoring and Reporting Mechanism is**…………………………………………………………,on the other hand they know what **PCM (Program Cycle Management** ……………………………………………………………is.Many Organizations use **CVA Cash Voucher Assistance**………………………………………………… to make their jobs more facilitated.

Appendix (B) (Translations of the terms and acronyms used in the test)

	Terms	Stands for	Appropriate meaning in Arabic
1	GBV	Gender Based Violence	العنف القائم على النوع الاجتماعي
2	IDPs	Internally displaced persons	الأشخاص النازحون داخليا
3	ICRC	International Committee of the Red Cross	اللجنة الدولية للصليب الأحمر
4	PSS	Psycho Social Support	الدعم النفسي الاجتماعي
5	BIA	Best Interest Assessment	تقييم المصلحة الفضلى
6	BID	Best Interest Determination	تحديد المصلحة الفضلى
7	AAP	Accountability to affected population	المساءلة أمام السكان المتضرر
8	UNICEF	United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund	صندوق الأمم المتحدة الدولي لاغاثة الأطفال
9	CBCP	Community Based Child Protection	حماية الطفل المبنية على المجتمع المحلي
10	WSCL	Worst form of children labor	اسوأ شكل لعمالة الطفال

11	CAAFAG	Children associated with armed forces or armed groups	الاطفال المرتبطون بالقوات المسلحة أو المجموعات المسلحة
12	CCW	Certain Conventional Weapons	اسلحة تقليدية معينة
13	CHH	Child Headed house Hold	طفل يرئس منزل
14	CMTF	Case Management Task Force	فرقة العمل المعنية بإدارة الحالة
15	CFS	Child friendly Space	مساحات صديقة للطفل
16	FTR	Family Tracing and Reunification	تتبع الأسرة ولم شملها
17	MHPSS	Mental Health and Psycho Social Support	الصحة النفسية والدعم النفسي الاجتماعي
18	PDNA	Post-Disaster Needs Assessment	تقييم الاحتياجات ما بعد الكوارث
19	NGOs	Non-Governmental Organizations	منظمات غير حكومية
20	OCHA	UN Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs	مكتب الأمم المتحدة لتنسيق الشؤن الانسانية
21	CW	Case Worker	الموظف في الشؤن الاجتماعية
22	CM	Case Management	ادارة الحالة

23	IOM	International Organization for Migration	المنظمة الدولية للهجرة
24	WHO	World Health Organization	منظمة الصحة العالمية
25	IDO	Infectious Disease Outbreaks	تفشي الأمراض المعدية
26	GBVIMS	Gender-Based Violence Information Management System	نظام إدارة معلومات العنف القائم على النوع الاجتماعي
27	CPIMS	Child Protection Information Management System	نظام ادارة معلومات حماية الطفل
28	MRM	Monitoring and Reporting Mechanism	آلية الرصد و الابلاغ
29	PCM	Program Cycle Management	ادارة دورة البرنامج
30	CVA	Cash Voucher Assistance	المساعدات المالية /النقدية عبر القسائم

الملخص

إن تدريس مواضيع المصطلحات التي تتضمن مصطلحات خاصة مثل المصطلحات الإنسانية لطلاب اللغة الإنجليزية والترجمة في جامعتي حضرموت والريان أمر مهم للغاية ويجب أن يتعاملوا مع دور المصطلحات في عملية الترجمة من الناحيتين النظرية والعملية. أن الهدف من تدريس مثل هذه المواضيع لا يمثل فقط تدريب لطلاب الترجمة كمتخصصين في المصطلحات أو متخصصين في التوثيق، بل كوسطاء لغويين تتمثل مهمتهم في تسهيل التواصل بين اللغات. و لقد هدفت الدراسة الحالية إلى التعرف على الصعوبات المعجمية التي يواجهها طلاب المستوى الرابع في اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية في الجامعتين المذكورتين عند ترجمة المصطلحات الخاصة بالمنظمات الإنسانية الدولية. علاوة على ذلك، فقد تناولت الاستراتيجيات التي اعتمدها هؤلاء الطلاب لترجمة مثل هذه المصطلحات. اعتمدت الدراسة على التصميم النوعي والكمي المدمج لتحقيق أهداف الدراسة. وتكونت عينة الدراسة من خمسة وعشرين طالبا (خمسة طلاب من جامعة الريان وعشرون طالبة من جامعة حضرموت). وتم استخدام اختبار الترجمة للإجابة على أسئلة الدراسة. و لقد وجد أن معظم الطلاب يجدون صعوبة كبيرة في ترجمة المصطلحات الخاصة بالمنظمات الإنسانية الدولية. ولذلك، ينبغي لهؤلاء الطلاب أن يتعلموا كيفية ترجمة هذه المصطلحات الوصفية الموجهه نحو إنتاج نصوص سليمة في اللغة الهدفة بحيث تكون مناسبة فيما يخص العمل في تللك المنظمات الإنسانية. وهذا يعني تطوير استراتيجيات محددة بالإضافة إلى تعلم كيفية استخدام الموارد المتاحة بهدف إنتاج ترجمات جيدة. وبناءً على هذا المفهوم، يجب توفير برامج ترجمة و مواضيع خاصة حول المصطلحات لطلاب الترجمة كما ذكرنا سابقًا لتناسب مهارات الترجمة المهنية الجديدة.

الكلمات المفتاحية: المصطلحات ـ المنظمات الانسانية الدولية ـ الصعوبات المعجمية

الصعوبات المعجمية في ترجمة المصطلحات الإنسانية الدولية لطلاب اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية في جامعتي حضرموت والريان

رسالة مقدمة إلى عمادة الدراسات العليا والبحث العلمي بجامعة الريان لإستكمال متطلبات نيل درجة الماجستير في تخصص اللغة الإنجليزية والترجمة

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