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Dictionaries

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Microstructure of the Dictionary

According to Van Sterkenburg, the microstructure is all the categories of information given about each word in the macrostructure. Such information is organised systematically into easily distinguishable smaller and larger paragraphs per word. Each entry constitutes a partial text of the body of the dictionary. The headword appears in bold type and may hang one or two spaces to the left of the other lines. Entries are presented in two, or possibly three, columns on each page. The headwords are total vocabulary items which have been selected for inclusion by compilers and their number is determined by size and purpose of the dictionary. Usually items included are up-to-date socially and culturally speaking. The length of the entry is determined largely by the number of derivatives, compounds, idioms and so on which are included under a root word.

Generally, an entry begins with a lemma (headword), other components, lexicographical description, as well as some kind of information an encyclopaedia gives about the thing that the word names. It is necessary before we examine the content of the entry to talk about a quite useful issue which is the type of dictionary entry.

Types of entry

According to van Sterkenburg, the entry is the main subdivision in the macrostructure of a dictionary. There are different types of entries and the differences can primarily be identified depending on the structure and the ordering of the information to make the headword more easily understood.

Accordingly, Atkins and, Rundell outline four principal entry types:
1. standard lexical entry,
2. abbreviation entry,
3. grammatical entry and
4. encyclopaedic entry.

Generally, lexicographers distinguish between,
(a), entries with a main lemma (headword), as guiding element and entries with a sublemma as guiding element
(b) entries displaying a single structure and entries with a synopsis structure. Each type can be divided into two main components. First, items reflecting on the orthography, pronunciation and morphology of the lemma. Second, items giving a paraphrase of the

meaning of the lemma or i . . . . ng the typical context or context an comment on the usage of the entry.

Entry content

The categories of information contained in an entry are: pronunciation, word classes, usage in grammar, the definition (meaning), examples of usage notes, etymology, synonyms and antonyms, idioms, word formation, frequency, cross references, pragmatic information, etc. The principal eight categories are as follows.

1. Spelling

The objective of monolingual dictionary is to assist user in respect of spelling problems bearing in mind that spelling diverges widely from pronunciation.

Dictionaries for native speakers do not provide pronunciation for the headword list. Only those words which are likely to cause problems such as foreign words and names, specialist terms and rare words are given pronunciation. This proved to be a matter of personal assessment and remains prone to bias.

2. Etymology

Etymology answers the question "where did a lexeme come from?"; it concerns the origins and historical development of the form and meaning of lexical units and this can be traced by comparing and contrasting 'synchronic cross-sections' belonging to several related languages. In most dictionaries, no etymological information is given at all. Only large general-purpose native speaker dictionaries concern themselves with etymology, which is considered by some the search for the "true meaning". A minority of dictionaries provide a basic set of information about etymology (the space reserved for etymology is limited) which probably is of interest to the ordinary dictionary user.

Generally, etymological information varies according to the type of dictionary and its intended user group.

3. Grammatical information

The grammatical aspects covered in dictionaries are too many to enumerate here. But for an illustration the following categories can be

mentioned: adjectives, adverbs, auxiliary verbs, conjunctions, determiners, exclamations, linking verbs and so on about which a great deal of information is accumulated. Information covers the way such categories are used the positions they occupy in sentences and their relationships to other words in a given context.

It has to be mentioned here that dictionaries contain the two basic types of words of a language-the 'function' words, i.e. grammar word such as articles, pronouns, prepositions, conjunctions, etc. which perform:, the grammatical functions in a language and the 'content' words, i.e. words which carry meaning and symbolise entities outside the language system. This enables users to understand the uses and appropriate contexts of such words.

4. Definition

The definition is a characterisation of the meaning of the headword. An established strategy for providing easy-to-understand definitions is the use of controlled defining vocabulary. Knowing the set of words for the defining vocabulary is the only pre-requisite for understanding the definitions of all words in the dictionary.

The most common form of definition is the analytical, i.e. 'genus + differentiae' style where the genus (superordinate) is placed next to the defmiendum .(headword) along with some of the distinctive features typical of the word under question. Put differently, "it involves assigning a lexeme to a class of items and then giving details of the individual characteristics of this particular member of the class".

Another style to defining word meaning is descriptive definition.

Synonymy is a widespread relation in English. Originally, there existed an English word, and another word similar in meaning which entered, from French, Latin or any other language.

A fourth style of defining is the **antonym** definition. This refers to the relationship between two items belonging to the same part of speech which are opposite in meaning. It is a less frequently occurring sense relation than synonymy. It is most prevalent among gradable adjectives, where the antonyms represent the opposite ends of a scale.

One more type of definition explains the **function** or 'use' to which a word is put, usually in the grammar of the language. This type is typically employed for defining 'grammatical' or 'function' words (auxiliary verbs,

conjunctions, determiners, prepositions and pronouns), especially where these have no reference outside of language.

Another method which lexicographers employ for defining and distinguishing the senses of a lexeme is the use of collocations. Dictionaries note collocations where there exists some restriction on the range of a word. Collocational information is sometimes placed within brackets (mostly for the adjective word class) before, within or after the definition and introduced by 'of or 'especially of.

It has to be made clear that there seems to be no single method that is best for defining any particular lexeme.

5. Pragmatic specifications and usage labels

Pragmatic specifications form a very significant part of the dictionary entry, particularly in learners dictionaries and these concern the speaker's intended meaning and attitude towards reality, the message and the listener where (situational, sociocultural and linguistic) contexts play a major role in the way meaning is interpreted. Pragmatic information which is presented in the form of usage labels in dictionaries also covers "the occurrence of the words and their combinations in different dimensions of language" and it emphasises the mode of communication (writing vs. speech) and style (formal vs. informal).

Register and usage labels are a major disambiguating feature of near-synonyms in dictionaries but dictionaries are not always good at providing information about the level of formality of all words.

Other labels include **euphemistic**, i.e. using an oblique word to refer to an unpleasant or offensive topic (e.g. senior citizen for old person); literary and poetic, i.e. words that tend to be confined to literary texts or poetry (e.g. adamantine, asunder, pestilential) and figurative for some additional senses of words which are used with more imaginative meaning.

Connotation is an idea or meaning suggested by the word in addition to the formal meaning. For example, "thin" has a bad connotation, while "slim" has a good connotation.

6. Cross-references

Cross-references are notes which direct you from one headword to another to show interrelationship among the different lexical items and bring into focus the words which have some connection, i.e. similarity,

contrast and complementariness with the word under look-up. Although the way these may differ from one dictionary to another, cross-referencing tools are: 'compare' (for Words similar to, but not quite the same as, the one dealt with), 'see also' (for more information about the word dealt with) and see' (for usage notes).

In the electronic versions of dictionaries, cross references have been kept to minimum and when used, there will be hyperlinks. Cross-referencing can be broadly grouped into two types:

(1) Explicit or directional cross-referencing which begins with words such as 'see', 'compare', etc. This overtly directs dictionary users to look somewhere else for more some information, be that additional and supplementary or contrastive information not given at the entry of cross reference.

(2) Implicit cross-referencing which occurs when a word already defined is used in the definition of another word and the defined lexical unit is cross-referenced.

Cross-references are used in the following cases:

(a) -For a regular form when a lemma has some. The irregular forms ave a cross-reference to the main entry at their alphabetical place.

(b) For polysemous words when some meaning is common to two words.

(c) For defining semantically related words.

(d) For synonyms and antonyms in a definition.

(e) For archaic and obsolete words to relate them to the class for meanings and other details.

f) For the variants of the lemma. Here the lexicographer has to make reference to the more common and frequent variants of a word rather than to the uncommon and rare ones.

Conclusion

In conclusion, the dictionary contains massive amounts of information, an inexhaustible store, about words which may be useful to you. It has to be remembered that the development of machine aids, such as the computer, has ushered in a new era in lexicography. The computer now is doing well in many tasks of great drudgery which are involved in building the body of a dictionary including the components of the dictionary.

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TRANSLATING

When people are faced with a foreign-language barrier, the usual way round it is to find someone to interpret or translate for them. The term "translation" is the neutral term used for all tasks where the meaning of expressions in one language (the 'source' language) is turned into the meaning of another (the target language); whether the medium is spoken, written, or signed. In specific professional contexts, however, a distinction is drawn between people who work with **the spoken or signed language (interpreters)**, and those who work with the **written language (translators)**. There are certain tasks that blur this distinction, as when source speech is turned into target writing (for example, in monitoring foreign language broadcasts, or in writing sub-titles for foreign films). But usually, the two roles are seen as quite distinct, and it is unusual to find one person who is equally happy with both occupations. Some writers on translation, indeed, consider the interpreting task to be more suitable for extrovert personalities, and the translating task for introverts!

Translating:

It is sometimes said that there is no task-more complex than translation- a Claim that can be readily believed when all the variables involved are taken into account. Translators not only need to know their source language well; they must also have a thorough understanding of the field of knowledge covered by the source text, and of any social, cultural, or emotional connotations that need to be specified in the target language if the intended effect is to be conveyed. The same special awareness needs to be present for the target language, so that points of special phrasing, contemporary fashions or taboos in expression, local (e.g. regional) expectations, and so on, can all be taken into account. On the whole, translators work into their mother tongue (or language of habitual use), to ensure a result that sounds as natural as possible - though some translators have argued that, for certain types of text (e.g. scientific material) where translation accuracy is more crucial than naturalness, it makes more sense for translators to be more fluent in the source language.

THE PROBLEM OF TRANSLATION

The aim of translation is to provide semantic equivalence between source and target languages. This is what makes translation different from other kinds of linguistic activity, such as adapting, précis writing, and abstracting. However, there are many problems hidden within this

apparently simple statement, all to do with what standards of (equivalence should be expected and accepted.

Exact equivalence is of course impossible: no translator could provide a translation that was a perfect parallel to the source text, in such respects as rhythm, sound symbolism, puns, and cultural allusions. Such a parallel is not even possible when paraphrasing within a single language: there is always some loss of information.

On the other hand, there are many kinds of in-exact equivalence, any of which can be successful at a certain level of practical functioning: It therefore follows that there is no such thing as a 'best' translation.

There is no best translation. Literary translation is the most difficult kind of translation.

The success of a translation depends on the purpose for which it was made, which in turn reflects the needs of the people-.for whom it was made. An inelegant, rough-and-ready translation of a letter can suffice to inform a firm of the nature of an enquiry. A translation of a scientific article requires careful attention to meaning, but little attention to aesthetic form, the provision a dubbed film script will warrant scrupulous over the synchronization of lip movements, often at the expense Of content. Literary work requires a sensitive consideration of form as well t as content, and may prompt several translations, each of which emphasizes- a different aspect of the original. It is easy to see that what might be best for one set of circumstances may be entirely unsuitable for another.

Several different kinds of translation have been proposed, to allow for this range of possibilities.

In a pragmatic translation, the emphasis is entirely on accuracy and knowledge of the subject, as required for instructional manuals and much scientific research.

In an aesthetic translation, important for literary material, the focus is on preserving the emotional as well as the cognitive content of the work, and on maintaining some level of stylistic equivalence. Ethnographic (races and cultures) or sociolinguistic translations aim to pay full attention to the cultural backgrounds of the authors and the recipients, and to take into account differences between source and target language, as when Christian religious traditions based in the Middle East are 'translated' into the cultural norms of Central Africa or modern day America. And there are various kinds of linguistic translation, where the aim is to convey the structural flavour of the original text, often in a quite literal manner, emphasizing such features as archaisms, dialecticisms, and levels of

formality. Most translations, of course, a.c in. .vcs of these theoretical types, reflecting the complex reality of language in use, where 'pure' varieties are conspicuously absent.

Levels of translation

1. **A Word for word translation**: (or occasionally morpheme) in the source language is translated by a word (or morpheme) in the target language. The result often makes no sense, especially when idiomatic constructions are used:

It's raining cats and dogs.

إنها تمطر قططًا وكلابًا. ✗

2. **Literary translation:** The linguistic structure of the source text is followed but is normalized according to the rules of the target language.

تمطر قططًا وكلابًا. ✗

3. **Free translation.**

The linguistic structure of the source language is ignored, and an equivalent is found based on the meaning it conveys:

·· تمطر بغزارة. ✓

THREE WAYS OF TESTING THE QUALITY OF A TRANSLATION

1. Back-translation.
2. Knowledge testing
3. Performing testing.

In back-translation, one translates a text from language A into language B; a different translator then turns the B text back into A, and the resulting A text is compared with the original A text. If the texts are virtually identical, it is strong evidence that the original translation was of high quality (though not incontrovertible evidence, because the second translator might have improved upon the work of the first in the reverse process).

In knowledge testing, speakers of language B are tested about the content of the translation (e.g. using a questionnaire), and the same questions are put to speakers of A. If the results correspond, the translation must be efficient.

In performance testing, Speakers of language B are asked to carry out actions based on the text (e.g. in a repaid manual) as are speakers of A. The results can then be compared to determine translation efficiency. This

is a very time-consuming process. However, and requires expert supervision if clear results are to be obtained.

Transliteration

When the source language is written in a different script from the target language; it is using the alphabet of one language to express something in another language. It is often necessary to provide a transliteration of an original word, rather than a translation — something commonly done with the names of people, places, institutions, and inventions. Here, each character of the source language is converted into a character of the target language; for example, Russian companion, satellite' becomes sputnik. Transliteration needs to be distinguished from transcription, in which the sounds of the source words are conveyed by letters in the target language. For example, an English transcription of Soviet-premier Gorbachev's name would have to be Gorbachoff to reflect the way it is pronounced in Russian. This approach is often unavoidable with- languages that use partial alphabetic scripts -(e.g. Arabic), Where transliteration would be very difficult, or logographic scripts (e.g. Japan-ese kanji); where it would be impossible.

What do we mean by translation shift?

Most of you are studying French as a second language. The example of the definite articles is what is meant by translation shift. "Le, la, les" should not always be translated into "the" in English.

Best Translation

Sometimes, they feel that if you have a commercial in a language other than the native language is something goof and distinguished. If you want to manufacture a Kind of perfume, try to use a French word, for example.

Interpreting

Interpreting is today widely known from its uses in international political life. When senior ministers from different language backgrounds meet, the television record invariably shows a pair of interpreters hovering in the background. At major conferences, such as the United Nations General Assembly, the presence of headphones is a clear indication that a major linguistic exercise is taking place. In everyday circumstances, too, interpreters are frequently needed, especially in cosmopolitan societies

formed by new generations of immigrants and Gastarbeiter. Often, the business of law courts, hospitals, local health clinics, classrooms, or industrial tribunals cannot be carried on without the presence of an interpreter. Given the importance and frequency, of this task, therefore, it is remarkable that. So little study has been made of what actually happens when interpreting takes, place, and of how successful an exercise it is.

Doubtless the recency of developments in the field partly explains this neglect. One procedure, known as **consecutive interpreting**, is very old — and presumably dates from the Tower of Babel! Here, 'the interpreter, translates after the speaker has finished speaking (either in short bursts, or at: the very end' of a discourse). This approach is widely practised in informal situations, as well as in committees and small conferences. In larger and more formal settings, however, it has been generally replaced by simultaneous interpreting a recent development that arose from the availability of modern audio-lingual equipment.

Of the two procedures, it is the second that has attracted most interest, because of the complexity of the task ad the remarkable skills required. In no other context of human communication is anyone routinely required to listen and speak at the same time, preserving an exact semantic correspondence between the two modes. Moreover, there is invariably a delay of a few words between the stimulus and the response, because of the time it takes to assimilate what is being said in the source language and to translate it into an acceptable form in the target language. This 'ear-voice span' (is usually about 2 or 3 seconds, but it may be as much as 10 seconds. or so, if the text is complex. The brain has to remember what has just been said, attend to what is currently being said, and anticipate the construction of what is about to be said.

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DICTIONARIES LOOKUP STRATEGIES FOR ARABIC-ENGLISH TRANSLATION

Translator training is gaining weight and momentum nowadays, and has become an integral part of translation studies. Much significance has been attached to translator training by placing it within the ambit of applied translation studies. A blossoming area in such training is dictionary use, which is very much needed by either novice or fully-fledged translators in

any translation activity. In translation classes, dictionaries constitute irresistible temptation to student translators— for example, when sitting for a translation test, they are obsessively addicted to dictionaries. In addition, a dictionary tends to make the students less resourceful, because they take the entry as the final word, and do not explore other possibilities. Therefore, lexicographers have left no stone unturned in the search for emerging lexis to compile in specialised or general dictionaries with a view to maximising interlingual/intralingual communication among language users. A dictionary is "a book consisting of translations, mostly of individual words and phrases. A dictionary is therefore unconcerned with the effect a translation may have on a more extended stretch of language." More precisely, a dictionary is defined by *Collins Cobuild Advanced Learner's English Dictionary* (CCALED) (2003) as "a book in which the words and phrases of a language are listed alphabetically, together with their meanings or heir translations in another language." Two key terms are worthy of mentioning here. First, 'meaning' is usually based on denotation and connotation. The former involves "the relationship between lexical items and non-linguistic entities to which they refer, thus [...] equivalent to referential, conceptual, propositional, or dictionary meaning." The latter, however, refers to "an aura of ideas and feelings suggested by lexical words," our strong, weak, affirmative, negative, or emotional reaction to words. Or, in the words, connotation refers to "additional meanings which a lexical item acquires beyond its primary, referential meaning." A translation can then never be called a translation without a minimal layer of conceptual meaning of original text— "in a non-literary text the denotations of a word normally come before its connotations." However, translation goes far beyond the denotative meanings to include connotative meanings. A good dictionary is the one that caters for both layers of meaning. It ensues, therefore, that dictionaries are the fulcrum of any translation activity. It is more often than not that the translators are stumbled on new and/or unfamiliar words in the course of translation, thus it becomes necessary for them to consult a dictionary in order to complete a translation task effectively. Second, translation is the transferring of meaning from one language into another. Transferring implies SL, the language from which translation occurs and the TL, the language into which translation takes place. In such a case, divergence between the SL and TL emerges because languages often cut linguistic reality quite differently. The translation of (un)related languages implies intimate intricacies as it might be seen is an "evaporation of the

beauties of the original."

In spite of their significance, dictionaries are a double-edged sword indeed; they would either be user-friendly or user-unfriendly. Combining elegance with accuracy is usually epitomised by the right use of a dictionary. What is important at this particular juncture, however, is that a user-friendly dictionary may be turned out to be a user-unfriendly one when a student translator misuses it. Unless the student translator is well-prepared in the use of dictionaries, a run-of-the-mill translation is likely to emerge. A case of failure in cross-cultural communication may be explicitly shown in the translation of the polysemous Arabic زوج ('a husband' or 'a pair of) in زوج أحذية ('a pair of shoes') into English as 'a husband of shoes', a translation that definitely raises our eyebrows'. Roberts (1992: 50) highlights that "students both in professional translation courses and in academic translation courses have constant recourse to dictionaries, which they use incompetently, so, the need for teaching dictionary use seems obvious."

Dictionaries Lookup Strategies

Since languages the world over have propensity for divergence, difficulties aggravate. This may be especially true with genetically unrelated languages, e.g. Arabic and English. The problem translation students are faced with in using dictionary incompetently, namely "knowing what to look up in a dictionary; knowing where to look for lexical information; knowing how to internet lexical information provided; and knowing when and how to consult dictionaries during the translation process." Based on these problems, there are four strategies suggested for improving dictionary use, namely familiarisation "with different types of lexical items; [...] dictionaries; [...] dictionary entry formats; and illustration of ways to combine text analysis, translation and dictionary consultation." in order to effectively look up a word in a dictionary, the translator should bear in mind that the potential meaning reached at should be worked against the text.

Addiction to Dictionaries

Dictionary consultations are important for student translators and may be deemed as a virtuous circle in the course of translation, but excessive use of dictionaries unknowing what to look up is viewed as stumbling-block rather than a merit- a vicious circle, as it were. Such use gives rise to

addiction to dictionaries. Moreover, the higher number of dictionary consultations by novices is directly related to the lower content of their [frequent lexis stores]. It is incumbent upon student translators to minimise lookup strategies, not more than a 'hit-and-run strategy'. Lookup strategies may start at bilingual dictionaries moving towards monolingual dictionaries with varying degrees of success, relying on students' mastery of a foreign language. Categorically, 'bilingual dictionaries first, monolingual dictionaries follow' is perhaps a good lookup strategy, very much encouraged in translator training settings. In other words, look up every word "first in a monolingual, then in a bilingual encyclopaedic dictionary." To complete the translation activity the student translator is up to, he/she should resort to a bilingual dictionary. This should, or even must, not be the end of the story. Usually student translators are not competent enough in the TL; therefore, consulting monolingual dictionaries firms out to be important because many monolingual dictionaries are corpus-based. Needless to say, looking up discrete words in a dictionary is doomed to failure. Dictionary consultation should also be concomitant with 'text analysis.' To illustrate the point, take Example 1 below:

Example 1

(SL) كما أن العلاقات الاقتصادية الجوهرية فيما بين الدول العربية كمشروع السوق العربية المشتركة وحرية انتقال الأموال... لم يتطرق إليها المجلس الاقتصادي التابع للجامعة العربية.

(TL) Furthermore, the economic ties among the Arab countries (e.g., the Arab Union Market, freedom of moving monies) were all not addressed in Arab league-run Economic Council.

Closer scrutiny of the highlighted SL phrase وحرية انتقال الأموال shows awkward translation, i.e. 'freedom of moving monies'. The student translator seems to have opted for a wrong lexical choice, i.e. 'monies' as الأموال can translate into 'monies', 'capital', etc. The need for a monolingual dictionary is urgent. 'Monies' "is used to refer to several separate sums of money that form part of a larger amount that is received or spent," whereas 'capital' "is a large sum of money which you use to start a business, or which you invest in order to make more money." A myriad of signs (e.g. 'the economic ties" and 'the Arab Union Market') in the SL text in Example 1 is inextricably woven together to stress 'capital' rather than 'monies'. A suggested translation may be something like

"Moreover, the economic ties among the Arab countries (e.g., the Arab Union Market, freedom of capitals..." The student translator should carry out bilingual and monolingual dictionaries consultations conscientiously.

Lack of Comprehension of the SL Text

We may perhaps assume that initial translator training should start at honing translation students' skills to better comprehension of the SL text before actual translation takes place. "In principle, a translational analysis of the SL text based on its comprehension is the first stage of translation.". When the meaning for a SL word is sought in a dictionary, the translation student should be able to negotiate different meanings taking the SL text into full consideration, and eventually recourse to the most appropriate one although, arguably, the more information is packed into dictionaries, the greater the dilemma of these students, for they are unable to find what they need in the mass of information provided. In addition, SL text comprehension is important as "unless a [SL text] has been well understood, a good translation cannot be produced." The following elements are likely to enhance basic comprehension: "knowledge of the language", "extralinguistic knowledge" and "analysis." Let us now look at a further example to explore how English polysemy is rendered by our student translators.

Example 2

(SL) For weeks police were puzzled by repeated thefts from suitcases firmly locked inside the luggage compartment of a coach travelling between Girona Airport and Barcelona.

(TL) وكانت الشرطة في حيرة من أمرها جراء السرقات المتكررة من حقائب محكمة الإغلاق مدرب /مدرس / حافلة / عربة تجرها الخيول... يسافر من مطار خيرونا إلى مدينة برشلونة.

The context in Example 2 above plays a crucial role in determining the intended meaning. It is posited that the SL text reads smoothly, and it should be so in the translation. The dictionary helps the translation student to look for a suitable meaning, typically one among several. In view of the multiple meanings, he/she should select the most salient one for a maximum communication purpose.

The highlighted study item in Example 2 above seems to be challenging as it translates into Can. 1: مدرب ('trainer'), Can. 2: مدرس ('tutor'), Can. 3: حافلة ('bus') and Can. 4: عربة تجرها الخيول ('horse-drawn cart')

respectively. Happily, only one out of these renderings does the trick namely, i.e. حافلة ('bus'), i.e. Can 3, whereas the others may all be recalcitrant to the communication in the translation.

Mastery of English may pave the way for better understanding of the SL text in approaching a translation like the one we have in Example 2, what assumptions does TL audience make? To reflect this, analysis should then be aptly made, with 'extralinguistic knowledge' of the SL text as an important determinant of appropriate lexical choice in consideration. Odd as it may sound, 'horse-drawn carts", as Can. 4 may show, are used to transport goods or people from Girona Airport to el *centro de la ciudad* or *la plaza* de *Cataluna*, etc. in the busiest city in Spain. Can. 1 and Can. 2 are also really bizarre as they kill the massage intended in the SL stone-dead, and farther create a TL text with plenty of opportunities for the TL readers to forge their own interpretations, i.e. thefts are from a trainer's suitcase(s) in the former and from a tutor's in the latter. Neither is true. The choice for Can. 1 and Can. 2 seems to be formally-motivated on the one hand, or is due to negligence on the part of the student translators on the other. On the other hand, Arab translation students normally opt for formal equivalence. In addition, opting for "functionally (dynamic) equivalence solves the problem."

First Meaning Selection

The translation students should be meticulous enough not to take the first meaning they come up with. Instead, they should take time to read through the meanings offered slowly and carefully. In Example 2 above, fire choice for Can. 1 is a case of first meaning selection in which the student seems to take the first meaning for granted, a selection that never comes to his/her rescue. A "formidable problem can be attributed to [...] the student [who] often takes the first meaning provided by the dictionary for granted or copy the sentence without paying attention to its anomalous structure." Example 2 above illustrates how a translation student has erroneously opted for the first meaning provided for the item 'coach', thus giving rise to an unnatural translation (see Table 1 below). Table 1 shows a number of meanings offered by the dictionary for 'coach' in order. It is crystal-clear that the student seems to have opted for an unsatisfactory solution. What the student has done is no more than pay lip service to his/her view. The selection for a sport-bound word in Arabic, i.e. مدرب ('trainer'), to render a text about robbery defies description. Perhaps

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skimming for the right meaning for the jargon of the SL text may be helpful insofar as the student translator is concerned. Highlighted are the items that are indicators of the text type (and the jargon) through which the student can skim ('team'; 'sport'; 'sports'; 'baseball'; 'teaching'; 'examination'; 'bus'; 'train'; 'horses').

Meanings	Acceptable
(1) A coach is someone who trains a person or team of people in a particular sport.	No
(2) When someone coaches a person or a team, they help them to become better at a particular sport.	No
(3) A coach is a person who is in charge of a sports team.	No
(4) In baseball, a coach is a member of a team who stands near the first or third base, and gives signals to other members of the team who are on bases and are trying to score.	No
(5) A coach is someone who gives people special teaching in a particular subject, especially in order to prepare them for an examination.	No
(6) If you coach someone, you give them special teaching in a particular subject, especially in order to prepare them for an examination.	No
(7) A coach is a large, comfortable bus that carries passengers on long journeys.	Yes
(8) A coach is one of the separate sections of a train that carries passengers.	Yes
(9) A coach is an enclosed vehicle with four wheels which is pulled by horses, and in which people used to travel. Coaches are still used for ceremonial events in some countries, such as Britain.	No

As can be seen in Table 1 above, almost all the meanings are not possible compromise with the exception of Meaning 7 and 8. The latter is

also excluded when the text unfolds.

To elaborate more on the point, consider Example 3 below in which the highlighted Arabic item المؤتمرات has at least two English equivalents, namely 'conferences' and 'summits'.

Example 3

> (SL) ولكن لم تسفر المؤتمرات الاقتصادية العربية التي عقدت في عواصم مختلفة عام 1961 عن نتائج إيجابية في ميدان التعاون الاقتصادي الشامل المنشود.
>
> (TL) However, the Arab economic conferences held in different capitals in 1965 didn't bring about positive results in the aspired comprehensive economic cooperation.

It is obvious from the context in Example 3 above that a meeting of chiefs or leaders of Arab governments is intended, thus the latter rather than the former should be used.

Scant Attention to the Examples Provided by Dictionaries

Corpus-based dictionaries like *Collins Cobuild* Advanced *Learner's English Dictionary* /CCALED (2003)/ highlight examples for any word because the more examples, the more the task for translation becomes easy. The examples provided by a dictionary are intended to illustrate the definitions of a word in terms of the syntactic structure, meaning, pragmatic etc. Having decided on 'summit' in Example 3 above for instance, the student translator may do more to look into the word language-wise. Having indulged a little bit in these examples in terms of semantics, syntax, culture and pragmatics, the student translator can take cue from the sentences above bringing about the following suggested translations, other things being equal:

However, the Arab economic summits held in different capitals in 1965 *concluded with* no positive results in the aspired comprehensive economic cooperation (based on example 1 above).

In the Arab economic summits held in different capitals in 1965, however, there is little *push forward* in the aspired comprehensive economic cooperation (based on example 5 above).

However, the Arab economic summits held in different capitals in 1965 are *scarred* by no positive results in the aspired comprehensive economic cooperation (based on example 3 above).

In their Arab economic summits held in different capitals in 1965, however, the Arab leaders *came up with no plan* for the aspired comprehensive economic cooperation (based on example 4).

As can be seen, CCALED may provide the student translator with a wealth of vocabulary that can not only help him/her narrow the lexical gap between the language pairs, but it also makes the translation sound more natural.

Prioritising Scanning over Skimming

Scanning is looking through written material "quickly in order to find important or interesting information" (CCALED, 2003). In contrast, skimming a piece of writing is to "read through it quickly" (CCALED, 2003). Scanning rather than skimming is likely to be the suitable reading strategy when it comes to dictionary use. Although the translator is always limited with deadlines, skimming may be a good reading strategy because it tends to save time. Instead, it is time consuming unless there is a good reason for using it. Some student translators are fond of extending their repertoire of new words. Therefore, scanning may be considered a means by which they can build a wealth of vocabulary for future career. Looking up a word in a dictionary, students may glance through (or skim) the previous and subsequent words in a dictionary, but should, or even scan for the intended word. By the passage of time, the students may find themselves fine- fining the linguistic skills by building day-to-day vocabulary. Sooner or later, the vocabulary that is unneeded for a given translation task for today would become highly needed in another future translation task. Consider Example 4 below:

Example 4

> **(SL) Before the bus pulled into the stop in Barcelona he had <u>zipped</u> himself back into his hiding place.**
>
> (TL) وقبل وصول الحافلة إلى الموقف في برشلونة، يكون اللص قد رجع إلى مخبأه في الحقيبة.

A mere glance at the translation of the highlighted word 'zipped' would immediately reveal the degree of challenge the student translator is faced with. Having consulted CCALED (2003), 'zip' refers to "a device used to open and close parts of clothes and bags. It consists of two rows of metal or plastic teeth which separate or fasten together as you pull a small tag along them." Deletion strategy for زمام (lit. 'zip') is opted for by the student translator as it may be too difficult for the TL audience to imbibe. It is important for the student translator to read between the lines in search for optimal translation, rather than mere skimming. Perfect translation, as it were, requires patience. While looking up a word, the student should not

rush. We may then safely assume that nothing untoward happens. A meaning that is rushed out may be disastrous as can be shown in Example 4 above.

Disregard for Collocations, Idioms and Proverbs

Granted, an item may have more than one meaning, and determining the meaning relies on the context. In the SL text, it is posited that SL text reads smoothly and it should be so in translation. Dictionaries help the translator to look for a suitable meaning, particularly "to indicate the semantic ranges of words as well as, through collocations, the main senses." One of the problematic areas in translation, particularly in languages of little linguistic and cultural affinity as is the case in Arabic and English, is translating collocations, idioms and proverbs. Arguably, collocations refer to "a phenomenon in language whereby a lexical item tends to keep company with other words. It is a lexical relation of occurrence that binds words together with varying degrees of strength." The source of difficulty in translating collocations is attributable to the fact that "each language appears to have its own collocation patterns." It is true that "the use of appropriate word combinations shows awareness of the idiomatic nature of language." Take Example 5 below:

Example 5

(SL) وكنا نأمل أن تتوصل الدول العربية خلال عام 1961 إلى عقد اتفاق تجاري على نطاق واسع فمما بينها

(TL) We hope that the Arab countries arrive to a large scale commercial agreement with each other during 1965.

Other things being equal, the Arabic collocation تتواصل ... إلى عقد اتفاق (lit. 'to reach an agreement') seems to be difficult for the student translator to translate as he/she fails to appropriately use the dictionary.

The words that collocate with اتفاق 'agreement' are numerous as CCALED (2003) shows:

1. It looks as though a **compromise agreement** has now been reached.
2. The two countries **signed an agreement** to jointly launch satellites.
3. The two men had not **reached agreement** on any issues...
4. The judge kept **nodding in agreement**...
5. The clinic doctor will then write to your GP to **get his agreement.**
6. The president was **in full agreement** with the proposal.
7. Many other surveys have produced results essentially **in agreement**

with these figures.

The highlighted segments are all possible collocations for 'agreement'. Arguably, no. 3 may furnish the student translator with the possible collocation. Based on that, the following is a possible translation: "We were hoping that the Arab countries reach a large-scale commercial agreement in 1965." For more illustration, consider Example 6 below:

Example 6

> **(SL) Police are reported to have described the crime as an 'open and shut case'.**
>
> (TL) ونقلت التقارير عن الشرطة وصفها هذه الجريمة بأنها (1) "حالة فتح واغلاق"/ (٢)
>
> "جريمة فتح الحقيبة وإغلاقها".

A clear distortion of SL text is discernible in Example 6 above in which the translation choices for highlighted idiomatic expression are so diffused, obscure and overwrought. Can.1, i.e. حالة فتح وإغلاق (lit. 'open and shut incident') falls short of the SL. Similarly, Can. 2 جريمة فتح الحقيبة وإغلاقها (lit. 'the crime of opening and shutting the case') is detrimental to the SL. The students seem to fail to grasp the meaning of the idiom. Jettisoning the translations at the first glance is likely to be justifiable. CCALED (2003; emphasis in original) aptly defines the idiom as "[i]f you describe a dispute or a legal case as open-and-shut, you mean that is easily decided or solved because the facts are very clear." A suggested translation can be

> ونقلت التقارير عن الشرطة وصفها هذه الجريمة بأنها واضحة وسهلة.
>
> **Police are reported to have described the crime as easily solved.**

It is clear that failure to recognise the segment as proverbial, collocational or idiomatic may give rise for awkward translations as seen in Example 5 and Example 6. The onus is on translator trainers to draw the attention of the student translators to these areas of difficulty.

Contextualised Meaning

Occasionally, it happens that a dictionary does not include the item intended for search. Or, a SL item lacks an equivalent in the TL, thus leading to lexical incongruence as is the case with English and Arabic. In such cases, reliance on the context may be a way out for the student translator. Contextual factors are of paramount importance in deciding on the underlying meanings, in which case translation may go smoothly. Take Example 7 below:

Example 7

> **(SL)** With the help of an accomplice, who was also arrested, the six-foot contortionist had crammed himself inside.
>
> **(TL)** كان اللص البالغ طوله ستة أقدام قد حشر نفسه في الحقيبة بمساعدة شريك له تم اعتقاله أيضًا.

It happens that a dictionary does not include the item intended for search. Or, a SL item lacks an equivalent in the TL, thus leading to lexical incongruence as is the case with unrelated languages. English and Arabic stand as a perfect example. In such cases, reliance on the context may be a way out for the student translator. The heavenly dream of equivalence that the translator has in mind is circling the square as shown by contortionist. First, the highlighted 'contortionist' is the production of SL culture, more or less difficult for the SL to coin an equivalent except through loan-translation, i.e. concept level; hence, it can be translated into something like بهلوان. The item in question is gender-free in English, not quite known whether it is male or female. By means of intertextuality, nevertheless, we, as text receivers, can make out of it through a sign at the outset of the text: "Police in Spain have arrested a man who stole valuables from people's luggage while they were on a bus heading for Barcelona." In Example 7 above, the student translator has made decision 'contortionist' into اللص (lit 'thief'.

Conclusion

Bilingual/monolingual or specialised/general dictionaries are described by translation theorists and practitioners as the fount of good translation projects. And the fact that both translation student and translator trainer are at pains to have perfect translation makes it necessary to place a high premium on dictionary lookup strategies irrespective of dictionary types to be used by student translators (i.e. monolingual or bilingual). It is true that the student translators are thrown in at the deep end, so it is crucial that concerted efforts should be made to equip translation students with a high calibre training to employ appropriate strategies to do a translation task at hand the best way possible.

The study discusses some of the problems in the use of dictionaries in Arabic- English translation. When a student translator is stumbled on an unknown word, he/she look it up in the dictionary. Dictionary consultations should be as effective as possible. Without lack of comprehension of the SL text, these consultations have proven to be with

little avail. The students seem to take the first meaning at hand disregarding other meanings offered by dictionaries. The students also ignore the illustrative examples given by dictionaries. The translation students give precedence to skimming over scanning, a point that may lead to erroneous translations. Scant attention was paid to collocations and meanings in context.

The following specific conclusions can be drawn:

(1) student translators are ill- prepared for the problems they face in the use of dictionaries, thus contagion traces of erroneous translations usually surface;

(2) attention should be given to two layers of meaning, namely denotative and connotative. This helps better comprehension of SL text;

(3) it is an off-repeated truism in translation that dictionaries pose a formidable challenge to novice translators;

(4) it is important to familiarise translation students with different types of dictionaries and dictionary entry formats. Perhaps it would be useful for student translator to start with bilingual dictionaries and, most importantly, to consult monolingual dictionaries for accuracy of their translations;

(5) familiarisation with different types of lexical items, types of dictionaries and entry formats is needed;

(6) student translators should not be brusque, i.e. take up the first meaning they come across;

(7) comprehensive and dedicated reading is highly recommended;

(8) the examples provided to explain a word, phrase or expression by a dictionary are significant and should be taken into consideration in translating from one language into another;

(9) "it seems logical to include dictionary use exercises into the first translation course offered" (Roberts, 1992: 68); and

(10) "[y]ou should check any word you look up in a bilingual dictionary in at least one SL and one TL monolingual dictionary."

We assume that a monolingual dictionary in need is a friend indeed, to check whether the words have currency or not insofar as the target audience is concerned.

***

إلى هنا ينتهي مقرر مادة المعاجم

....

نموذج محلول لدورة ٢٠٢٠، يتضمن أغلب الفقرات المطلوبة لهذا الامتحان مع التذكير أن
المحاضرات الحالية تتضمن بحثاً إضافياً وهو:

(Dictionaries Lookup Strategies for Arabic-English Translation)

مادة المعاجم - س٢ ف٢

جامعة دمشق
مركز التعليم المفتوح

المدة: ٦٠ دقيقة

Choose the correct answer:

1. The information given about each word in the macrostructure is:
   - a. Thesaurus
   - b. Headwords
   - c. Entries
   - d. Microstructure

2. The number of .... is determined by size and purpose of the dictionary.
   - a. Entries
   - b. Headwords
   - c. Labels
   - d. Abbreviations

3. "Lemma" is a term used for:
   - a. Headwords
   - b. Entries
   - c. Microstructure
   - d. Labels

4. The entry is the main subdivision in the .... of a dictionary.
   - a. Size
   - b. Microstructure
   - c. Macrostructure
   - d. Purpose

5. Which one is not an entry type in a dictionary?
   - a. Standard lexical entry
   - b. Abbreviation entry
   - c. Grammatical entry
   - d. Inflectional entry

6. Native speakers dictionaries do not provide pronunciation for the headword list.
   - a. True
   - b. False
   - c. Irrelevant
   - d. Not stated

7. Etymological information varies according to the type of dictionary and its intended user group.
   - a. True
   - b. False
   - c. Irrelevant
   - d. Not stated

8. Articles, pronouns, prepositions … etc. are examples of:
   - a. Headwords
   - b. Content words
   - c. Function words
   - d. None

9. Meaning in dictionaries is carried by:
   - a. Headwords
   - b. Content words
   - c. Function words
   - d. None

10. Meaning of the headword in a dictionary is characterized by the:
    - a. Labels
    - b. Abbreviations
    - c. Symbols
    - d. Definition

11. Which one is not a form of definition?

a. Synonymy
b. Antonymy
c. Analytical
d. Inflectional

12. The idea or meaning suggested by a word in addition to its formal meaning is:

a. Connotation
b. Abbreviation
c. Derivation
d. Synonymy

13. .... is meant to show interrelationship among the different lexical items.

a. Synonymy
b. Antonymy
c. Cross-reference
d. None

14. In which case cross-reference is not used?

a. For defining semantically related words
b. For synonyms and antonyms in a definition
c. For grammatical rules/use
d. For the variants of the lemma

15. Antonymy refers to relationships between two items of:

a. the same part of speech and the same meaning
b. the same part of speech but opposite in meaning
c. different part of speech and opposite meaning
d. different part of speech but the same meaning

16. The system of spelling in a language is:

a. Orthography
b. Syllabication
c. Morphology
d. Syntax

17. The division of words into units is:

a. Orthography
b. Syllabication
c. Morphology
d. Syntax

18. The study of speech sounds and pronunciation is:

a. Orthography
b. Syllabication
c. Morphology
d. None

19. The study of forms of words is:

a. Orthography
b. Syllabication
c. Morphology
d. Syntax

20. The rules for forming sentences are called:

a. Orthography
b. Syllabication
c. Morphology
d. Syntax

21. A common problem for the English vowels is:

a. difficulty of uttering
b. lack of matching
c. variable writings
d. all the above

22. Inflection:

a. changes the part of speech
b. changes the way word is pronounced
c. changes the grammatical category of a word
d. changes nothing in a word

23. Derivation:

a. changes the part of speech
b. changes the way word is pronounced
c. changes the grammatical category of a word
d. changes nothing in a word

24. Words in English are:
a. bond morphemes
b. free morphemes
c. morphemes
d. not considered as morphemes

25. Prefixes, infixes and suffixes are:
a. bond morphemes
b. free morphemes
c. morphemes
d. not considered as morphemes

26. A dictionary that explains words in more than two languages is:
a. Monolingual dictionary
b. Bilingual dictionary
c. Thesaurus
d. Polyglot

27. .... describe words as entries or language units along with their meanings.
a. Encyclopedic dictionaries
b. Linguistic dictionaries
c. Diachronic dictionaries
d. Polyglots

28. .... deal with concepts and facts rather than linguistic information.
a. Encyclopedic dictionaries
b. Linguistic dictionaries
c. Diachronic dictionaries
d. Polyglots

29. .... cover certain parts of the vocabulary and reveal some relations among them.
a. Encyclopedic dictionaries
b. Linguistic dictionaries
c. Diachronic dictionaries
d. Special dictionaries

30. .... record vocabulary of some author or work.
a. Thesaurus
b. Polyglots
c. Glossaries
d. Concordances

31. .... explain difficult words.
a. Thesaurus
b. Polyglots
c. Glossaries
d. Concordances

32. .... study the history of form and meaning of every word registered.
a. Thesaurus
b. Synchronic dictionaries
c. Diachronic dictionaries
d. Concordances

33. .... provide details on influential figures.
a. Biographical dictionaries
b. Synchronic dictionaries
c. Diachronic dictionaries
d. Etymological dictionaries

34. .... are concerned with present-day meaning and usage of words.
a. Biographical dictionaries
b. Synchronic dictionaries
c. Diachronic dictionaries
d. Etymological dictionaries

35. Pocket dictionaries contain up to:
a. 80000 entries
b. 70000 entries
c. 30000 entries
d. 35000 entries

36. Which feature is not included in a learner's dictionary:

a. Cultural connotation
b. Vocabulary building
c. Study notes
d. Etymology

37. Which feature/features is/are true for learner's dictionaries:
a. they have no phonetic transcription
b. they use special defining vocab
c. they are corpus-based
d. b & c

38. .... expressions are usually not appropriate in normal everyday conversation.
a. Formal
b. Figurative
c. Dialect
d. Slang

39. .... expressions are intended to be funny.
a. Humorous
b. Informal
c. Offensive
d. Literary

40. Which of the following expressions should not be used:
a. Slang
b. Dialect
c. Offensive
d. Specialist

41. .... expressions are used in a particular subject areas.
a. Slang
b. Literary
c. Figurative
d. Specialist

42. .... describes word that are no longer in current use.
a. Old-fashioned
b. Old use
c. Taboo
d. Saying

43. .... describes a well-known fixed or traditional phrase.
a. Taboo
b. Dialect
c. Saying
d. Formal

44. .... expressions are considered shocking and obscene.
a. Offensive
b. Taboo
c. Slang
d. Informal

45. .... is used in particular regions.
a. Taboo
b. Slang
c. Dialect
d. None

46. .... is used by a particular group of people.
a. Taboo
b. Slang
c. Dialect
d. None

47. .... expressions are used in fictional writing.
a. Figurative
b. Formal
c. Literary
d. Other

48. .... expressions mean the opposite maybe.
a. Figurative
b. Ironic
c. Humorous
d. Other

49. Which expressions are considered informal?
a. Dialect
b. Slang
c. Saying
d. a & b

50. An example of Learner's Dictionary is:
a. The Oxford English Dictionary
b. Oxford Wordpower Dictionary
c. The Concise Oxford Dictionary of Current English
d. none

****

الحل:

1. c	2. b	3. a	4. c	5. d	6. a
7. a	8. c	9. b	10. d	11. d	12. a
13. c	14. c	15. b	16. a	17. b	18. d
19. c	20. d	21. b	22. c	23. a	24. b
25. a	26. d	27. b	28. a	29. d	30. d
31. c	32. c	33. a	34. b	35. c	36. d
37. d	38. a	39. a	40. c	41. d	42. b
43. c	44. b	45. c	46. b	47. c	48. b
49. d	50. b				

Thank You

End of Part 2

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Wish you all the best

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