



Sudan University of Science and Technology

College of Graduate Studies

College of Languages



The Problems of Translation in Conflicts Environment from

A Media Perspective

مشكلات الترجمة في بيئة النزاعات

من منظور اعلامى

A Thesis Submitted in Fulfillment of the Requirement for

PhD In

General Translation

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استهلال

اية قرانية

Quranic Verse

قال تعالى:

وَ أَخِي هَارُونُ هُوَ أَفْصَحُ مِنِّي لِسَانًا فَأَرْسَلْهُ
مَعِيَ رِدْءًا يُصَدِّقُنِي ۚ إِنِّي أَخَافُ أَنْ يُكَدِّبُونَ

سورة القصص

الاية (34)

Allah the Almighty said:

((For my brother Haroon is more rhetoric than me, so send him with me to confirm my credibility, Iam afraid they will not believe me)

Surah AlghasasVerseNo:(34.)

DEDICATION

To my parent's souls, to my dear wife, and beloved two daughters and son, my teachers in all stages and colleagues.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

All praise is due to Allah the Almighty Who enabled me to achieve this academic task .Great thanks reserved to my supervisor. **Mahmoud Ali Ahmed** for his terse guidance throughout the period of achieving this thesis., I would like to express my thanks for the **Teachers and experts** and **MA students** of **Sudan University of Science and Technology and College of Languages**, for responding to the questionnaire, and the interview, respectively, and my thanks are also extended to **the group of referees and teachers\translators in Parliament and Suna News Agency** for their patience and response to the diagnostic test. My thanks go to **Sudan University for Science and Technology** for offering me this opportunity, also my daughter Tssabeh who helped me in setting the tables of the study.

Abstract

This research aimed at exploring the problems of translation of journalistic jargon in the realm of conflicts with the aim of providing MA students of translation with appropriate vocabulary and insights relating to this specific jargon. A set of well-defined objectives has been adopted to help facilitate the intended aims. One such objective is that certain journalistic jargon is used in conflict areas with special meaning which sometimes can be problematic at rendering and that MA students of translation experience special difficulty as they set about translating terms relating to conflict. In order to achieve these objectives a number of research tools have taken into account, for most of which is a written discourse completion test as well as multiple-choice completion test. These tools have been employed to prove how hard is the translation of journalistic jargon at conflict areas. A questionnaire was also used to help along with the preceding tools the hypotheses set forth in the present study. One such hypothesis is that journalistic jargon poses certain hurdles for the MA students of translation. The subjects are EFL MA translation students at Sudan University of Science and Technology, College of Languages. A number of 50 of EFL students (males and females) have been selected randomly out of 70 students who represent the target population. The study managed to come up with a number of findings ,recommendations and suggestions. One recommendation is that Lecturers should provide students with adequate glossaries that are specialized in military language or jargon at war areas. One suggestion is that a large scale study is required to substantiate the current one and hence assures the effectiveness of using military jargon glosses.

المستخلص

(Arabic version)Abstract

هدف هذا البحث إلى دراسة مشاكل ترجمة المصطلحات الصحفية في مجال النزاعات بهدف تزويد طلبة ماجستير في الترجمة باستخدام المفردات المناسبة والأفكار المتعلقة بهذا المصطلح المحدد. تم اعتماد مجموعة من الأهداف المحددة جيداً للمساعدة في تسهيل الأهداف المقصودة. ويتمثل أحد هذه الأهداف في استخدام بعض المصطلحات الصحفية في مناطق الصراع ذات المعنى الخاص والتي يمكن أن تسبب إشكالية في بعض الأحيان ، كما أن طلاب ماجستير الترجمة يجدون صعوبة خاصة عند إعدادهم لترجمة المصطلحات المتعلقة بالصراع. ولتحقيق هذه الأهداف ، أخذت عدد من أدوات البحث في الحسبان ، ومعظمها هو اختبار إكمال الخطاب المكتوب بالإضافة إلى إتمام اختبار خيار من متعدد. وقد استخدمت هذه الأدوات لإثبات مدى صعوبة ترجمة المصطلحات الصحفية في مناطق الصراع. كما تم استخدام الاستبيان للمساعدة مع الأدوات السابقة على فرضيات المنصوص عليها في هذه الدراسة. إحدى هذه الفرضيات هي أن المصطلحات الصحفية تخلق بعض العقبات أمام طلاب ماجستير الترجمة. و عينة الدراسة هي طلاب ماجستير الترجمة بجامعة السودان للعلوم والتكنولوجيا ، وكلية اللغات. وقد تم اختيار عدد 50 من طلاب اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية (الذكور والإناث) بشكل عشوائي من أصل 70 طالبا الذين يمثلون السكان المستهدفين. تمكنت الدراسة من الخروج بعدد من التوصيات والاقتراحات. إحدى التوصيات هي أن يقوم المحاضرون بتزويد الطلاب بمسارد مناسبة متخصصة في اللغة أو اللغة العسكرية في مناطق الحرب. و أيضا تتضمن الاقتراحات إجراء دراسة واسعة النطاق لإثبات مخرجات الدراسة الحالية ، وبالتالي تعضد من فعالية استخدام فهارس المصطلحات العسكرية.

List of Abbreviation

Acronym	Meaning	NO
MA	Master	1
CNN	Cable News Network	2
EU	European Union	3
UNO	United Nation Organization	4
SUST	Sudan University for Science and Technology	5
SPSS	Statistical Packages of Social Science	6
SL	Source Language	7
TL	Target Language	8
BBC	British Broadcast Corporation	9
FBI	Federal Bauru of Investigation	10
CIA	Central Intelligence Agency	11

List of figure

No	Subject	page
Figure (1)	Teachers with percentage	77
Figure(2)	Male and female with percentage	78
Figure (3)	Years of experience of teachers	79

Table of Contents:

N0	Statement	page
	The Verse الاستهلال	i
	Dedication	ii
	Acknowledgement	iii
	Abstract	iv
	Abstract (Arabic – Version)	v
	List of Abbreviation	vi
	List of Figures	vii
	Table of Content	viii
Chapter One: Introduction		
1.0	Background about the thesis	1
1.1	Statement of the Problem	4
1.2	The Research Questions	4
1.3	The Hypotheses of the Research	5
1.4	The Objectives of the Research	5
1.5	The Significance of the study	5
1.6	The Research Methodology	6
1.7	Limits of the study	6
1.8	Definitions of Terms:	6
Chapter Two: Literature Review.		
2.0	Introduction	8
2.1	Concept of Journalistic Style	8
2.1.1	Elements of a New Article	12
2.1.2	Features of Newspapers and Language Style	13
2.1.3	Journalistic Translation: Scope, Definition, Importance and Principles	14
2.1.4	Today's Journalistic Style	18
2.1.5	Characteristics of today's journalistic style:	18
2.1.6	Jargon and Journalese:	19
2.1.7	Jargon and Slang	20
2.1.8	Jargon Concept and Function	21
2.1.9	The Choice and Meaning of Words	24
2.1.10	Naming and Reference	26
2.1.11	Why News Styles Differ	32
2.1.12	Radio Style.	33

2.1.13	Television Style	35
2.1.14	Comparisons of Style and Substance.	37
2.1.15	Reporting and Translating Media Terms of Conflict	39
2.1.16	Translation Equivalence	43
2.1.17	Multilingualism: An Issue of Stability and Conflict	44
2.1.18	Rhetorical Tropes	49
2.1.19	Metaphor	52
2.1.20	Metonym	54
2.1.21	Puns	56
2.2	Previous Studies	57
	CHAPTER THREE-RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	
3.0	Introduction	64
3.1	Study design	64
3.2	Sample	64
3.3	Study Design	65
3.3.1	The Content of the Test	65
3.3.2	Validity of the Test	65
3.3.3	Reliability of the Two Test	65
3.3.4	Administration of the Diagnostic Test	66
3.4	The Questionnaire for the Teachers\Translators	66
3.4.1	Content of the Questionnaire	66
3.4.2	Validity of the Questionnaire	66
3.4.3	Reliability of the Questionnaire	67
3.5	Statistical Reliability and Validity	67
3.5.1	Procedures for Data Analysis	69
	CHAPTER FOUR-DATA ANALYSIS,RESULTS AND DISCUSSION	
4.0	Analysis of Experiment(Pre and Post-test)	71
	CHAPTER FIVE-SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS	
5.1	Summary and Conclusion	99
5.2	Recommendations	100
5.3	Suggestions for further studies	100
5.3		

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Background (about the chapter)

This introductory chapter will provide a description of the theoretical framework of the study with special focus on the definition of the research problem, the study questions and hypotheses as well as the research methodology.

1.0 Background about the thesis

This research sets out to explore the translation of journalistic jargon in the realm of *conflicts* with the aim of providing MA students of translation with appropriate vocabulary as relating to this specific jargon. Journalistic jargon is a specialized shared vocabulary adopted by journalists. However they become familiar with the jargon they used to the extreme which makes it difficult to understand their writings. The problems and difficulties of the aforesaid usage arises during achieving the process of translation, particularly when rendering English headlines and news into Arabic language, In dealing with journalistic jargon definition of translation and style must be considered: Translation is studied as a linguistic phenomenon; a process of meaning transfer via linguistic trans-coding; this process has recently received some attention in the news with controversies over the translation of the Bin Laden tapes by CNN, Aljazeera and other outfits. These controversies have highlighted an inconspicuous problem of translation –mediated communication and critical importance of accuracy and precision of translated messages, especially in times of crisis and global instability, in this regard due to increasing role of the need for translation in all over the globe, Duff quoted in Rojo (2009:28) claims that ‘*translators will always be needed. Without them, there would be no summit talks.....*’ this reflects the importance of the translation and translator, also The great German genius Johann Wolfgang (1749-1832) has asserted their point of view about the significant role of the translator as he states that ‘*The translator must act as a*

mediator in this commerce of mind, making it his business to further this intellectual exchange'. Also, Nida and Taber (1969:12) confined translation process regarding the style of writing in the source language *'Translation consists in reproducing in the receptor language the closest neutral equivalent of the source language message, firstly, in terms of meaning and secondly, in terms of style.'* Also Nida and Taber confirm the conception of style while performing the translation process, as they state *that 'translation is a transfer of meaning message, and style from one SLT to the TLT.'* The French theorist, Dubois (1974:3) has pursued the same line of the emphasis on meaning and style in his definition of translation *'Translation is the expression in another language (the target language) of what has been expressed in another, (source language) preserving semantic and stylistic equivalences'*. 'On the other hand, style is the main factor besides the propositional content that modifies the audiences' reactions. Many linguists claim that there are two types of styles regarding newspapers writings: 1-Literary Style 2-Functional Style. The journalistic style comes under the second category. This study will focus on the journalistic jargon due to its great influence on newspapers style which consequently affects the translation of English headlines and news into Arabic language. Usage of journalistic jargon in writing headlines and news in British newspapers are quite confusing for student's translation, because everything is written in such a colloquial style, and a lot of slang expressions are used, which cause ambiguity that results in the presence of two or more meanings in an utterance due to the different possibilities of lexical, grammatical, and pragmatic interpretation.

The bulk of vocabulary used in newspapers writing is neutral and literary, but it has as well its specific features such as the intensive use of:

(i) Special political and economic terms, e.g. stability, election, anti-terror war, facilities, etc.....

(ii) Non terms political words, e.g. officials, hostages, kidnappers, breakdown, etc.....

(iii) Lofty bookish words including certain phrases based on metaphor, e.g. war hysteria, escalation of war, over whelming majority, a storm of applause, etc.....

(iv) Newspapers cliché: can be a recognisable word, or phrase that has been used so often, that it has lost its impact, e.g. stereotyped expressions, common place phrases familiar to the reader, e.g..easy as 1,2,3 which means:(very easy). Out of words means: (overcome problem or confusion), etc....

(v) Abbreviations. News items and press are full of several kinds of abbreviations , e.g. names of organizations, public states, and political associations, industrial and other companies, etc.....known by their initial are very common, e.g. EU(European Union), UNO (United Nation Organization). etc.....

(vi) Neologism: are new words, invented by social cultural groups, they are very common in newspapers vocabulary. John E. Richardson (2007:69) defines neologism as: *'a recently created (or coined) word, or phrase that has been assigned a new meaning'*. The newspapers is very quick to react to any development in the life of society in science and technology, e.g. cypersickness, (this means: a feeling of illness caused by using computer for a long period of time), animatronics, Watergate, Google, smog, etc.....

1.1 Statement of the Problem:

The researcher who has been teaching translation besides his work as a military man has experienced at battlefields the need for this type of translation, has observed that, MA students encounter problems and complexities as they start translating authentic media, particularly when rendering English headlines and news into Arabic language. Moreover, due to the ongoing process of globalization each time new words are invented and ones which have become obsolete were unearthed which necessitates special attention on the art of translators and students of translation. Such new words are associated with conflicts. The difficulties arise mainly from the type of style and jargon used by native pressmen. This style is quite confusing for students' translation, because the headlines and news are handled in obscure colloquial style regarding jargon, which causes ambiguity that results in the presence of two or more meanings in an utterance due to different possibilities of lexical, grammatical, and pragmatic interpretation.

1.2 Questions of the study

1. To what extent can MA students of translation deal effectively with the type of vocabulary relating to conflicts?
 - (ii) What kind of hurdles does journalistic style pose to MA students of translation?
 - (iii) To what extents are the hurdles of journalistic jargon can be dealt with successfully?

1.3 Research Hypotheses

- (i) MA students of translation cannot deal effectively with the type of vocabulary relating to conflicts.
- (ii) Journalistic jargon poses certain hurdles for the MA students of translation.
- (iii) The hurdles of journalistic jargon can be dealt with successfully

1.4 Research Objectives

The present research sets out to examine a set of objectives in journalistic style to help students of translation deal with these terms properly:

- (i) Certain journalistic jargon is used in conflict areas with special meaning which sometimes can be problematic at rendering.
- (ii) MA students of translation experience special difficulty when set about translating terms relating to conflict.
- (iii) Exploring journalistic jargon in particular with the aim of identifying the hurdles it constitutes for the students of translation and would-be translators.

1.5 Significance of the study

The research aims to highlight the difficulties that will meet student's translation level and suggests procedures by providing empirical evidence, then proposing suitable ways to deal, and to cope with this sort of language which the student will find in British newspapers, consequently to achieve through familiarity with this sort of writing, The ability to read and understand the British press.

This research also will help the student to deal with the linguistic and cultural difficulties of British newspapers, and to explore those intricate points and

suggests a way of addressing them through a syllabus deliberately intended to focus on the problematic area.

Finally, the findings of the study are hoped to be of value to the students of translation and those who are involved in translation and interpretation regarding the press. It is also expected that the study will draw the attention of other researchers to conduct further research into this area. Foreign and political correspondents can benefit from the study as well.

1.6 Methodology

This is both quantitative and qualitative research. Data has to be collected described and analyzed. The researcher will adopt the descriptive analytical method to carry out this study. Concerning the tools for data collecting, a test of different sentences from the most prominent UK newspapers to be taken directly from the Internet. Almost all British daily have an online issue which will make the collection of data a simple affair after obtaining a copyright which will be directed to (70) M.A students from the Sudan University of Science and Technology. Students will be asked to translate from Arabic into English and vice versa. Another tool that will be used is a questionnaire for (30) teachers/translators at Sudan University of Science and Technology, Omdurman Islamic University and Nileen University. .The tests and the questionnaire will be scientifically analyzed by (SPSS) using percentages and mean to convey the statistical information.

1.7 Limits of the study:

This study has limitations in both time and place as below:

- a. The time from 2001-2016.
- b. Conflicts around worldwide and disputes areas in all continents.

1.8 Definitions of Terms:

The researcher gave full definition of some terms that are very necessary as following:

Jargon

Specially language among journalists as interior law of conversation.

Slang Language

A local language that used among natives within limited area.

Semantic Translation

It takes aesthetic value of the source language.

Precise Translation

In this genre the translator aims at rendering what was thought is essential in the source language.

Faithful Translation

An attempt to produce the precise contextual meaning of the original within the constraints of the target language grammatical structure.

Adaptation

Is the freest form of translation?

CHAPTER TWO

Literature Rivew and Previous Studies

Introduction:

This chapter provides the theoretical framework of the study as well as exploring some previous related works. The study shall take as a descriptive step the investigation of translating journalistic jargon with special reference to the genre of conflicts. Related works will be viewed with respect to the definition of the contrastive studies and their role in language teaching and translation. The crucial importance of translation of world's languages will also be dealt with in the present part to pinpoint the necessity of discussing translation as a global phenomenon.

Part one: Literature Rivew

Part Two: Overview

2.1 Concept of Journalistic Style

This portion of the chapter will be dealt with in a manner mainly to highlight the concept of conflict which is the principal theme of the present study. In any analysis of news text at the discourse analytical level it is important to connect media with notion of linguistic style. Linguistic style is a concept that attempts to account for variations in the lexical and syntactic structures of texts. (John E. Richardson 2007:95), as Jucker (1992;) defines style as:

“comparative concept that it describes some relevant differences between a text or discourse and some other texts or discourses, it generally applies in to instances of real language, language that has been produced by speakers with their beliefs, aims and goals in specific

situations and in particular physical, social and temporal environments.”

According to (VanDijk,1988:27) stylistic variation is by no means free or arbitrary, but rather should be regarded as a contingent part of the role that the context plays in the formation of text and the talk Therefore the language that the journalists use to address the audiences tells you something about the identities of both journalists and assumed audiences. Style may be chatty or more formal, or more colloquial; it may use specialist terms slang or tabloids-words as (bonk) (stunna) or (rap) meaning ‘criminal charges,’ that you rarely see outside of the newspapers.

However, two very important points also need to be borne in mind. First

'media institution typically do have explicit policies on at least some aspects of language use, so when analysts look for ideological effects resulting from lexical and syntactic patterning in news discourse, it needs to be acknowledged that some textual regularities may be outcomes of explicit style rules rather than implicit assumptions about the matter in hands' (Cameron,1996:315-316).

This means when any journalist repeatedly uses a particular term or phrase, it reflects the policy of newspaper they work for rather than the (political, ideological) assumptions of the individual concerned. Second this does not mean that stylistic choice is empty of ideological importance. Cameron (1996) points out:

Style policies are ideological themselves. Though they are framed as purely functional or aesthetic judgements, and the

commonest criteria offered are 'apolitical' ones such as clarity, brevity, consistency, liveliness and vigour' it turns out that ' these stylistic values are not timeless and neutral, but have a history and a politics. They play a role in constructing a relationship with a specific imagined audience, and also in sustaining a particular ideology of news reporting.

Lynch (2003:122) has gone beyond the fact that style is related only to writing as he describes some journalists practices and news writing regarding using special kind of journalistic style to denote implicit meaning: *'Other issues were simply were simply stylistic, things, like 'running for cover' was changed to 'dashing for cover', because 'running for cover' implies cowardice'.*

Barry Baddock (1988:12) explains the journalistic style 'jargon' which has been used in press particularly in writing headlines and news, as he puts that:

'English newspaper headlines are governed by linguistic rules of their own. The language is elliptical and compressed, yet it is quite different from other condensed codes such as 'telegamese.' And often the fractured grammar and idiosyncratic vocabulary of English headlines will challenge the understanding even of native speakers. But these 'problems' are often, in themselves stimulating challenges to non- native speakers.' Also he has distinguished the newspaper writing from other written forms: *'It is important to realize that there are lexical, structural and stylistic differences between headlines and other written forms.'*

The notion of using the journalistic style in writing headlines and news is the most problematic area for student's translation, Geoffrey Land (1988:3) describes journalistic style 'jargon' by these words (very heavy going, unclear, colloquial, puzzling) in his book (what the papers say) :

‘Student- wanting to read the language that he is learning-goes along to the news-stand and buys whatever he can find there; it may be a copy of THE TIMES, or THE INTERNATIONAL HERALD TRIBUNE, or perhaps a weekly like TIME or NEWSWEEK. It doesn’t really matter it is up-to date or not. But what a disappointment! He finds it *very heavy going, and doesn’t really understand much*. It is not just a question of the vocabulary, because he has his faithful friend- his pocket dictionary- to hand, but the *style of writing* seems so very different from anything he has met so far in his English studies.

Perhaps he should have bought something less serious than THE TIMES, after all, he isn’t used to reading such intellectual papers even in his own language. So the next time he buys a copy of the DAILY MIRROR. Oh dear- that is even worse! Everything is written in such a *colloquial style*, and a lot of *slang expressions* are used that he has never seen before. The headlines are particularly *puzzling*, not only in the DAILY MIRROR but in all other papers too.’ Take these examples: ‘‘WALES WHEAT WOES’ turns to be (a story about the poor harvest in Wels), another puzzling example ‘CHEAP CHANNEL CHARTERS CHANGE CHARHES’, which means (something about reduce fares for charter flights). And another challenging example ‘GISCARD MUM ON CONCORD’, as the reader discovers that the headline does not mean that (the French President’s mother has flown to States, but that M. Giscard d’Estaing has refused to make any comment on a proposed trade agreement, he is quite discouraged. Also he considers the *writing style* of headlines and news is *very difficult* due to its specific strategies and techniques as the information packed sentence that uses lexical strategies as(deletion , predication, referential...),syntax and transitivity(modality, transitivity....) in addition to rhetorical tropes as(metaphor, metonym, hyperbole...) or other techniques. So Gooffrey Land (P:3) illustrates the example below which explains the news writing packed style:

'Another hurdle for the newcomer to the press to overcome is the information packed sentence'.

2.1.2 Elements of a News Article

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

There are four elements of news articles argued by Pape and Featherstone, (2005:60-122). The first element is headline. A headline is text at the top of a newspaper article, indicating the nature of the article. It functions to catch the attention of the reader and relate well to the topic. In addition they also stated that modern headlines are typically written in an abbreviated style omitting many elements of a complete sentence but almost always including a non-copula verb. The next element of news articles is called lead. They defined lead as the element of a news article that captures the attention of the reader, sums up the focus of the story, establishes the subject, sets the tone, and guides the reader into the article. Lead is also considered as the part which tells the most important facts and answers the questions: who, what, where, when, why, and how.

The third element of news article suggested by them is body. This is the part in which details and elaboration about the lead are given. According to Pape and Featherstone, (2005:124) asserts that the body of news articles may include chronological, cause and effect, classification,

compare and contrast, list, and question and answer structures, depending on the type of news story presented.

The last element of news articles is conclusion which refers to an ending element of a news article. They indicate that the conclusion of news articles may include a final quote, a descriptive scene, a play on the title or lead, and a summary statement.

2.1.3 Features of Newspapers and Language Style

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

- (a) A medium- standard language; not that deep classical nor popular slang of public corridors and quarters, rather it is a simple classical understood by most readers;
- (b) Concentration of ideas and information in a minimal space as far as possible because journalism always aims at 'breviary that makes sense', or at useful breviary. But this economization in words leads to create sentences full of subsidiary adjectives and meanings, as well as it leads to using abbreviations and acronyms the matter that puts a heavy burden on the shoulder of the translator;
- (c) The exciting concentrated headlines, to the extent that their concentration reaches the limit puzzles. For such reason, translators are advised not to translate the headline before translating the whole text, and

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

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

2.1.3 Journalistic Translation: Scope, Definition, Importance and Principles

Vybíralová, (2012:3-4) mention that ‘both journalism and translation play an indispensable role in the Age of Information’. Not only do they inform the reader, but they also facilitate the flow of information itself. W.W.Wappanam.com points out that ‘journalistic translation’ refers to the translation of writing newspapers, magazines, or other agency engaged in the collection and dissemination of news. Nowadays, it is rare that a newspaper, magazine or any other journalistic publication is free of a translated item. Journalistic publication turned to be part and parcel of many renewed newspapers, locally or globally and it can be the best means to convey news, thoughts, visions, and events that occur around the globe in a simple way accessible to everybody.

Appanam (a web site) states that translators working in this field have to meet all requirements usually demand from a translator as well as tight

deadlines, the ability to selectively edit before translating, and journalistic training. Several factors are important in selecting what news to translate: (1) readership demographics; (2) editorial view point; (3) space limitation; (4) time limitation and (5) the limitation of the source “*A Dictionary of Translation Technology* (2006:120-121)”. Moreover, journalistic translation is “the translation of newspapers, articles, books, bibles, radio and television broadcasts”.

However, translation for newspapers has peculiarity that distinguishes it from non-fiction translation. At first sight, one could think that a newspaper text expresses facts and communicates information is purely denotative text, therefore, relatively easy to translate as far as constructions and style are concerned, with a few difficulties of lexical order at the most (Collezione, a web site). Hassof (an article, web site) puts forward some principles, that should be taken into consideration in journalistic translation, namely:

- (i) **The limits of freedom of the journalistic in translating the original text.** Acting freely with translation stems from a pressing desire to get free some of the components of the original text and try to draft a new text that to a large extent takes into consideration the genre. Freedom in translation does not mean, however, to cut down translation through omitting the main ideas or to get rid of those paragraphs that the translator find himself unable to render. Freedom in translation does not mean increasing the rendition via introducing new ideas or conflicting ideas that do not appear in the original text. Freedom in translation is used to communicate with the recipient audience by means of a careful change of the function of the original text (summarizing it, explaining its ideas or simplifying

its linguistic standard.etc. without affecting the ideas that constitute its overall meaning.

(ii) The impact of the rendered text on the receiver

As the writer of the original text does, the translator has to make or have an idea about his readers before starting the text from the SL to the TL. The translator of journalistic texts who resorts to a technique understandable to his readers in fact speaks with them in their idiom. But what one who affects searching for words and expressions that mist the meaning and make comprehension difficult speaks with them by his own idiom. The good translator is one who possess the following questions during the process of translating text:

- (a) Are most of the readers going to understand this term or that expression?
- (b) Does this term or that expression negatively affect the general meaning of the text or does the context of the text is capable to eliminate any confusion?
- (c) Will the recipient understand the new term or there is a necessity to company it with and explanatory clause?
- (d) What is the linguistic standard that will be understandable to the recipient?
- (e) Is there is a need to change the technique of the original text or not?

(iii) The impact of the ideology of the newspaper on translation

Every a newspaper has its own shape and trend its form that distinguishes it from other newspapers in the stalls. Regarding the trend, it matches the editorial policy that is subject to various determinants: ideological, intellectual, political, or economic....etc

The thought and the ideology of the journalist who translates have its impact on selecting the texts that will be translated.

(vi) Time compulsion in specialized journalistic translation

One of the most prominent problems associated with journalistic translation today is the ability to produce a rendered text that takes into consideration honesty and devotion to the source and ‘acceptance’ in the TL in short period. Indeed, the proficiency of quickness in undertaking the translation with maintaining the meaning of the original text at the same time. What so ever is the allowed time span, the translating journalist should present a product that is acceptable in terms of quality and should meet all the determinants of reliable translation. In general, the point of tightness or ampleness of time during undertaking the journalistic translation is cancelled with various factors:

- The enjoyment of the translator in touching on a certain subject rather other. Whenever the translator finds himself harmonizing with the subject, his rendition will be quick and sound.
- Difficulty or easiness of the subject.
- The pre-knowledge of the translator about the subject. Experience and practice in the field of translation.

(v) Altering the meaning in some journalistic renditions

This can be through the following:

- Mistakes in translating idioms.
- Mistakes in translating common expressions.
- Mistakes in relating to overlapping of structure and composition between the two languages.
- Mistakes relating to technique.
- Excessive translation.
- Deficiency translation.
- Mistakes related to misunderstanding of the original text.

- Lacking the encyclopedic knowledge that accompanies the textual performance. Inserting the identity of the translator.

(vii) The ethical aspect in journalistic translation

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

2.1.4 Today's Journalistic Style

Newspaper's style in recent years has moved increasingly in the direction of uncluttered writing, simple direct sentences are desired, complex and compound sentences may provide the best vehicle for thought under certain circumstances, but also increase the possibility of **ambiguity**. The desire for economy in words has produced tight, swiftly paced writing that has proved to be boon to newspaper reading. Loose writing that leads to wasting words. Tight writing is characterized by the absence of 'breaks'(commas, etc..) In the flow of simple sentences but tight that leads to omitting should not be overdone.

2.1.5 Characteristics of today's journalistic style:

Compact, usually short sentences, every word selected and placed for maximum effect. Short paragraphs, each complete in itself and capable of being removed without destroying the sense of the story. Conciseness, directness, and simplicity through elimination of unnecessary words and phrases. Factualness without editorial opinion and dogmatic expressions. Strong verbs and nouns preferred over hackneyed words and expressions. Observance of grammatical and words usage rules.

(a) Journalistic style in its biggest extend has included: (Wikipedia, Encyclopaedia, and other numerous sources)

(b) Colloquial language: is the language that is informal, this can include words as well as phrases.

(c) Gobbledygook: is the language that is unnecessary complicated, unclear, wordy, or include jargon.

(d) Journalese:

- Type of jargon used by newspapers writers, language used by journalists that would never been used in everyday speech.
- BBC guide-style defines journalese as: *'journalese comes from newspaper which have developed a particular style to meet their own needs some of them have moved a very long way from Standard English.'*

2.1.6 Jargon and Journalese:

According to Collins, Jargon is firstly 'specialized language concerned with a particular subject, culture, or profession.' And second, 'language characterized by pretentious syntax, vocabulary, or meaning.' An audience is broad, so any jargon in the first sense must be translated into terms that all readers can understand. Jargon in the second sense is just bad writing Collin's third and fourth meanings are 'gibberish', and another word 'pidgin'. On the other hand journalese may be blamed on tabloid newspaper specially their subs. Headlines across short measures have led to overused of words such as bid, spark, move, hit ,blow, top, chief, crisis, drama, etc... That language has migrated from headlines to body copy.

On this regard Gorge Orwell (1946) on his book (Politics and English language) has puts out six points as a rule for journalistic style to avoid ambiguity are from (Politics and English language Gorge Orwell,1946).

- *Never use a metaphor, simile, or other figure of speech you are used to see in print.*
- *Never used a long word where a short one will do.*
- *If it is possible to cut a word out, always cut it out.*
- *Never use the passive where you can use the active.*
- *Never use a foreign phrase, a scientific word, or a jargon word if you can think of an everyday English equivalent.*
- *Break any of these rules sooner than say anything outright barbarous.*

2.1.7 Jargon and Slang

Jargon sometimes is wrongly confused with slang, and people often take in the same sense, but there is always a difference between them. Slang is a type of an informal category of a certain language developed within a certain community and consists of words or phrases whose literal meanings are different than the actual meanings. Hence, it is understood by people outside that community or circle, slang is more common in spoken language than written.

Jargon on the other hand, is broadly associated with a subject occupation or a business that makes use of standard words or phrases frequently comprising of abbreviations: e.g. *HTH*. *LOL*. However, unlike slang its terms are developed and composed deliberately for convenience of a specific section of society. We can see the difference between the sentences given below:

- (i) Did you hook up with him? (*Slang*). G'day, Mate- Australian slang for good morning. Crook- Australian slang for being sick.
- (ii) Gitten on the sea box. (Jargon)

2.1.8 Jargon Concept and Function

In every profession certain unique language is used. Words in one profession may be similar to those used outside the profession, yet the meaning may be quite different. Journalism is one of those professions with a unique language used to identify departments, parts of newspaper and types of writing and formatting.

Jargon is any overly obscure, technical, or bureaucratic words that would not be used in everyday language. (*Wikipedia, Columbia Encyclopaedia, Google search and other sources online*). Also jargon can be defined as: A type of shorthand (means: fast way of writing abbreviations and symbols, Cambridge dictionary) between a particular group of people, often words that are meaningless outside of certain context. These as: a spread which means (a big story accompanied with pictures), leg : refers (to a column), beat: is (a reporter topic area), copy boy: is (an older term for a man or a woman that keeps the news room running smoothly by answering phones, etc.....)

Jargon is literary term that is defined as a use of specific phrases and words by writers in a particular situations profession or trade. These specialized terms are used to convey hidden meanings accepted and understood in that field as journalistic headlines and news in journalism and this type of journalistic jargon will be the focus of present study.

The use of jargon becomes essential in prose, or verse, or some technical pieces of writing when the writer intends to convey something only to the readers who are aware of these terms. Therefore jargon was taken in early

times as trade language or as language of profession, because it is somewhat unintelligible for other people who don't belong to that particular profession. In fact, jargon is a specific terms that developed to meet the needs of a group of people working in the same field or occupation. Barry Baddock (1988:12) explains the essential of acquiring and understanding these strategies and techniques regarding the journalistic jargon which have been used in writing the headlines and news:

'The most compelling argument for studying headlines is that you need to be able to interpret them, for this is one of the skills required by any one in an English culture. A person who cannot 'use' headlines to grasp the gist of newspaper articles is at a big advantage: he browses through newspaper so as to choose what to read, skim or ignore'.

The use of jargon in prose and verse, it seems an unintelligible approach to the people that do not know the meanings. As jargon used in literature, they are used to emphasize a situation or to refer to something exotic to readers or audiences. In fact, the use of jargon in literature shows the dexterity of the writer of having knowledge of the phrases. Writers use jargon to make a certain character a real one in fiction as well as in plays or poetry, and extensively used in the writing of headlines and news in newspapers. Some examples of jargons that has been used by some groups as business group ([www skwirk.com...writing/required skills](http://www.skwirk.com...writing/required%20skills))

Group	Jargon	Meaning
Business people	operationalized	Carry out, to put into action
	Proactive	To act first and in a positive way

	Learnings	Things that have been learned
	functionality	Referring to functions or features of a product

Some examples of journalistic expressions that people never say: here is a list, followed by easy and understandable alternatives :(posted by Bobing Russia in February, 2012/media industry.

jargon	Meaning	jargon	Meaning
Fled on foot	Ran away/ high rate of speeding	Reduce expenditure	Cut costs
Terminate employment	Fire	Incendiary device	Bomb
vehicle	Car	reside	Live
Lower extremities	Legs	Utilize	Use
Physical altercation	Fight	Verbal altercation	Argument
Blunt force trauma	Injury	Discharged the weapon	Shot
Transport the victim	Take him/ her	Vehicle	Truck

2.2.9 The Choice and Meaning of Words

The analysis of particular words used in newspaper texts is almost the first stage of any text or discourse analysis. Words convey the imprint of society and of value judgment in particular- they convey connoted and denoted meanings. All type of words, but particularly nouns adjectives, verbs, and adverbs carry connoted in addition to denoted meanings.(John E.Retchard,2007 :47) . Take this text, published in the Guardian Weekly, which examined the words used by journalists during the 1991war against Iraq (cited in Allan,2004: 162-163)

We have	They have
Army, navy, and air force	A war machine
Reporting restrictions	Censorship
Press briefings	Propaganda
We	They
Suppress	Destroy
Eliminate	Kill
Neutralise	Kill
We launch	They launch
First strike	Sneak attacks
Pre-emptively	Without provocation
George Bush (Snr) is	Saddam Hussein is
At peace with himself	Demented
Resolute	Defiant

The alternatives in each of these pairings could, arguably, have been used to refer to the same person, people or action, but the ideological constraints, meant that they very rarely were. The words used to communicate the message's' of a text –whether about an individual, a group of people, an event, a predicted or expected event a process, a state of affairs or any of the other subjects and themes of newspapers texts-framing of these texts achieved through such choices demonstrates 'how racialised' us and them" frequently under-printed some journalists 'choice of descriptive terms' (Ibid: 162). Elements of such racialised reporting practices remain in the 2003 invasion of Iraq. For instance:

“British in battle to liberate Basra”. (London Evening Standard, 26 March 2003)

“British troops were poised to inter Basra today after an uprising by the local population against Iraqi army units led to a bloodbath. The Iraqi soldiers shelled rioting crowds with mortars, fought hand to hand battles and used machine guns to cut down unarmed protesters. Thousands had taken to the street in a revolt against troop’s resisting the advance of coalition forces.....”

It is important to state, first, that the actual event reported here did not take place . Although ‘British forces claimed that there had been a popular uprising in Basra, these reports 'were later revealed (noted by al-Jazeera inside the city) to be untrue'.(Lewis and Brookes,2004:139).Apart from this fact , look in the above expert how the action of Iraqi soldiers are described and compare to the actions of British soldiers :The violence of Iraqis is referred to directly, spelled out in specific terms (they shelled rioting crowds with mortars ,fought hand to hand battles and used machine guns to cut down unarmed protesters), and there after affects clearly stated: they led to' a bloodbath'. The British soldiers, on the other hand, are represented only in terms of movements, they 'advanced' and ‘were

poised to enter Basra'. Any sense that the British troops were also shelling and killing –often innocent Iraqis- is conveniently glossed over, through the choice of verbs. In addition to that, John E. Richardson (2007:205) also explains the choices of process:

'The chosen of the process in writing the headlines must be considered. First, and must obviously, verbs may be more or less euphemistic, or carry more or less negative meanings for instance :

The newspaper Independent, 26 March 2003, reported ‘*UK marines finally calm the port that proved so resistant*’. *The Independent’s use of ‘calm’ as a verb, is highly ideological: babies are calmed, animals may be calmed; the Iraqi port in question was conquered by force.*’ Another example cited by John E. Richardson(2007) to illustrate the strength of ideological square when interpreting ambiguous statement what have been reported in the (Sun,11 April 2003):

‘UK cleric butchered at Shrine.’ In this case a passivized verb without agent: ‘I contend that this would not be the first guess of the majority of readers, butchery, slaughter, and indeed killing, in general, are reportedly not activities that ‘We’ committed during the war and, when combined with a British victim, the implicature will always be that ‘they did it’, whoever ‘they’ to be at any one time’. Consequently, deliberate choices of words and phrases in journalistic texts and news participate in creating the journalistic jargon.

2.1.10 Naming and Reference

Referential strategy or nomination strategy,

‘By which social actors are constructed or represented for example, through the creation of in-groups and out-groups. This is

done through a number of categorization devices, including metaphors, metonymies, etc..' (Reisigl and Wodak, 2001:49)

The way that people are named in news discourse can have significant impact on the way in which they are viewed. We all simultaneously pose a range of identities, roles, and characteristics that could be used to describe us equally accurately but not with the same meaning.

The manner in which social actors are named identifies not only the groups that are associated with (or at least groups that the speaker/reader wants them to be associated with) it can also signal relationship between the namer and the named. As Blommaert (2005:11) explains:

“Apart from referential meaning, acts of communication produce indexical meaning, social meaning, interpretative leads between what is said and the social occasion in which it is being produced. Thus the word ‘sir’ not only refers to a male individual, but the role relationship of deference and politeness entailed by this status”.

The reader, for example, may be female as well as being student, and a barmaid, and British, and a Muslim, and autistic, and so on adding many other categories. Journalists have to provide names for people in the events they report and this naming always involves a choice. And logically, by choosing one social category over another, they include them within category and exclude them from other different categories- or perhaps, choose to foreground one social category over other equally accurate alternatives. Reisigl and Wodak (2001) have called these naming options a text's "referential strategies", and have illustrated that choosing to describe individual (or a group) as one thing or as another '*can serve many different psychological, social or political purposes{...} on the side of the speaker or writers*'(p.47) For example a social actor may be individualised in order to emphasise his ordinariness or 'every man' qualities, or

collectivised under a broad range of groupings, each with different explicit and implicit meanings (see van Leeuwen, 1996). With a little effort we can imagine someone who could as accurately be 'a Kurd' or 'a drunk' or 'Sheffield man' or 'an ex-policeman' or 'a communist' or by using a range of other collectivised terms. But there are significant and clearly apparent differences between the explicit and (denoted) and implicit (connoted) meanings of these terms. Take this very interesting example: in an article reporting the (temporary) defeat in the House of Lords of New Labour's attempt to introduce indefinite house arrest (Lord Irvine joint rebellion as peers inflict defeat on anti-terror Bill. Independent, 8 March 2005).

Here Earl the conservative of Onslow makes a persuasive point regarding the redundant nature of the Government's Terror Bill given existing conspiracy laws, it is the name 'Mohammed el-Smith' that interests me here- what does this referential strategy imply? The name is a clever variation on the name 'Jog Bloggs' or the American 'John Doe' this is the hypothetical 'average man', or in this case, the hypothetical 'average terrorist'. Here, Smith – the most common family name in Britain – is combined with "Mohammed" a name understandably associated with Islam. It is through the use of "Mohammed" as a first name that the Earl implies (or perhaps lets slip) he believes the hypothetical average terrorist suspect to be Muslim.

The chosen referential strategies perform a function within the text. Not only they project meaning and social values onto the referent, they also establish coherence relations with the way that other social actors are referred to and represented. Clark (1992), for example, has examined the way in which the tabloid Sun newspaper reports incidents of sexual violence, such as rape, Clark argues that when reporting a crime of this

type, the news article holds up one of the participants as being to blame for the incident – literally as "the victim"- and this is reflected in the way that they are named.

So if the Sun "decides" that the man was to blame for the attack, he is referred to as a "maniac", a "monster", a "fiend", a "beast" and other terms which suggest sub-humanity, depravity and animalistic abandon. On the other hand, if The Sun decides that it was the woman's fault, that she 'led the man on' or invited the attack, then she is referred to as a "lolita", "an unmarried mum", "a divorcee", and using adjectives which draw attention to her physical shape or her appearance, like "busty-----", 'shapely----', or 'blonde-----'. On the discourse of The Sun "Busty divorcees" are never attacked by fiends; instead, the men who attack "Busty divorcee" are represented as blameless and described by name or using respectable terms, like 'family man' or proximate colloquial terms like "hubby". And when the man is a 'fiend', the women attacked are, by contrast, referred to in ways which suggest innocence like, "bride", "school girl", "mother of three", "daughter", etc... So you get a squared relationship, where "Bad man {sex fiend} attack innocent women {Mum, daughter} Bad women {busty divorcee} provoke innocent men {hubby}." Related to this is the work of Teun Van Dijk. In a series of studies, he has developed a conceptual tool called "the ideological square", which suggests determine choices between referential strategies. He suggests that the ideological square is characterised by a Positive Self Presentation and a simultaneous Negative Self Presentation, it is a way of perceiving and representing the world – and specifically "our" and "their" actions, position and role within the world. The ideological square predicts that "outsiders" of various types will be represented in a negative way. This occurs by emphasising (what is called foregrounding) 'their' negative

characteristics and social activities. Conversely, "our" positive characteristics and social activities are fore-grounded and "our" negative characteristics and social activities are back-grounded. divorcee", and using adjectives which draw attention to her physical shape or her appearance, like "busty-----", 'shapely----', or 'blonde-----' On the discourse of The Sun "Busty divorcees" are never attacked by fiends' instead, the men who attack "Busty divorcee" are represented as blameless and described by name or using respectable terms, like 'family man' or proximate colloquial terms like "hubby". And when the man is a 'fiend', the women attacked are, by contrast, referred to in ways which suggest innocence like, "bride", "school girl", "mother of three", "daughter", etc... So you get a squared relationship, where "Bad man {sex fiend} attack innocent women {Mum, daughter} Bad women {busty divorcee} provoke innocent men {hubby}. Related to this is work of Teun Van Dijk. In a series of studies, he has developed a conceptual tool called "the ideological square", which suggests determine choices between referential strategies. He suggests that the ideological square is characterised by a Positive Self Presentation and a simultaneous Negative Self Presentation, it is a way of perceiving and representing the world – and specifically "our" and "their" actions, position and role within the world. The ideological square predicts that "outsiders" of various types will be represented in a negative way. This occurs by emphasising (what is called foregrounding) 'their' negative characteristics and social activities. Conversely, "our" positive characteristics and social activities are fore-grounded and "our" negative characteristics and social activities are back-grounded.

This ideological square is observable across all linguistic dimensions of a text. Starting with referential strategies, positive terms are used to refer to

"Us" and "Our country" and negative words to "Them", and "Their country", "Their values", etc...Take these headlines for example: **This illegal immigrant** drink driver killed a boy in an uninsured motor. (Sun, 2March2005) In the this headline, the sub-editor working for the Sun decided that "drink-driver" wasn't enough to convey the wickedness of the person responsible for this unfortunate accident – he was an *immigrant* and an *illegal* one at that. Without even knowing the full facts of this man's case, there are clearly many other ways that he could have been referred to. Here the journalist grudgingly acknowledge the alternative referential strategy of a "Home Office insider", who said that the perpetrator "is entitled to stay in this country until the full appeals procedure is exhausted. In those terms we would not call him an illegal immigrant – he is an overstayer. Lacking the combined negative impact of "illegal" (strategy: criminalisation) and "immigrant" (strategy: de-spatialisation). Another definition of ideological square has been presented by Moon and Rolison(1998:129) as they state that positive words will be used to describe 'our' actions, and negative words will be used more frequently to describe 'their'. 'when they are not absent or excluded, the working class may be rendered *hypervisible* through foregrounding an assemblage of 'social defects.' In contrast to the 'good', deserving poor 'who are industrious and know their place', The 'bad' working class tend to be 'discursively associated with 'waste' and fecklessness.' Munt (2000:8) puts that: 'The 'good' working class- where they appear in the news-tend to be depicted through archetypes as the honest factory hand or 'our Mum', symbol of hearth and home'; the hyper-visible 'bad; working class, on the other hand, are 'lads and tarts, yobs and slags', 'the profligate spender,' 'fat, cigarette-smoking, beer-drinking men who have become a drain on the social body'(ibid). Kyle Conway and Susan Bassnett (2006: 10) state that:

‘Media texts not only mirror reality but also construct versions of it, and analysis can show how and when certain choices are made-what is excluded/included, foreground/background, made explicit/implicit, thematized/silenced.’In addition to that colours can be used to describe ‘our’ and ‘other’ as *‘dark and light which are salient features (Kress and Van Leeuwen, 1996) dark for ‘others’, the bad people who steal and deal drugs, light, white, and orange for ‘good guys’ who will cleanse the city of threatening inhabitants. In this way the image combine metaphorical, metonymic, and pragmatic devices in intricate ways. Also the depiction of the (‘other’ employs biological characteristics, like skin colour, certain hairstyles, dark eyes, etc..).(Norikio Iwamoto: 51)*

2.1.12 Why News Styles Differ

Differences are not due to happenstance. Writing styles have evolved in newspapers, radio and television due to the unique nature of each medium and to the manner in which its audience consumes each medium. An evolutionary process has been at work adapting each news writing style to its medium. Further, by taking note of the gradual shift of many newspapers to a more conversational writing style and the shortening of both television news stories and sound bites, one could well argue that the evolutionary process will continue.

News in newspapers is written so that it may be edited from the bottom up. As old editors liked to say, a page form is not made of rubber. It won’t stretch. What doesn’t fit is thrown away. Historians trace the inverted pyramid, which is not the traditional style of British or other foreign newspapers, to the American Civil War, when correspondents, fearing that the telegraph would break down before they could finish transmitting their dispatches, put the most important information into the

first paragraph and continued the story with facts in descending order of news value. During the days of letterpress printing, the makeup editor fit lead type into the steel chase by the simple expedient of tossing paragraphs away — from the bottom — until the type fit the allotted space. In modern offset lithography the same job can be accomplished by a razor blade or a computer delete key; the editing, especially under time pressure, is often still done from the bottom of a story up.

The reading of a newspaper matches bottom-up editing. The reader's eye scans the headlines on a page. If the headline indicates a news story of interest, the reader looks at the first paragraph. If that also proves interesting, the reader continues. The reader who stops short of the end of a story is basically doing what the editor does in throwing words away from the bottom.

If newspaper stories were consumed sequentially as they are in radio and television newscasts, the writing style would change of necessity. If, for instance, a newspaper reader was unable to turn to page 2 before taking in every word on page 1 starting in the upper left hand corner and continuing to the lower right corner, the writing style of newspaper stories would, I believe, soon resemble a radio newscast.

Yet, although the newspaper reader can go back over a difficult paragraph until it becomes clear, a luxury denied to listeners to broadcast news, it is also true, as one newspaper editor noted, that if the newspaper reader has to go back often to make sense of stories, the reader is likely to go back to the television set.

Radio Style

The radio newscast must be consumed sequentially; that is, the listener does not hear the second story in the newscast without hearing the first

story. The eighth story waits on the first seven, which means in practice that all seven are chosen to be interesting to a significant number of listeners and are presented at a length, which maintains that interest.

In addition to the inevitable centrality of thinking which affects story choice and story length, a pressing concern exists for clarity in both sentence length and word choice because the radio listener, unlike the newspaper reader, is unable to stop to review and reconsider the meaning of a sentence. The eye can go back; the ear can go only forward with the voice of the newscaster.

During the “golden age of radio,” 1930-1950, before television sets appeared in every home, the family gathering around the parlor radio console in the evening sat facing it, a natural thing to do because the radio talked to them. Today, it seems, no one looks at radios. They speak to us from under the steering wheel or over our shoulder. Unlike the attentive newspaper reader, the radio listener is often driving, working, or engaged in some task other than absorbing the latest news, and consequently is paying less than full attention. As a result radio news stories are written to be told in familiar words combined into sentences, which run at comfortable lengths in a style known as “conversational.” One textbook guideline suggests writing as if telling a story to a friend who is trying to catch a bus that is ready to pull away.

Because listeners lack opportunity to go back to reconsider a bit of information, there should be no need to do so. This limitation affects the structure of phrases of attribution and the use of pronouns, because pronouns have antecedents. The radio broadcast news writer learns to beware of innocent little words like “it.” These conditions influence television news as well, but perhaps they apply with a little more force to

the writing of radio news summaries, where news items average two or three sentences and then the topic shifts.

Particularly important is the care needed in the presentation of the numbers sprinkled throughout economic news. Writing news of the economy requires a balance between precision and understanding.

An additional difficulty in absorbing the information in a summary newscast is its demand on the listener's ability to keep up not only with a rapid delivery but also with the variety of news. The newscaster jumps from topic to topic, geographic location to location, as if the listener would have no difficulty in going from a flood in Bangladesh to a political crisis in Romania to a train accident north of town. Radio news is hard enough for anyone to follow but the confusion is greater for people who are not on top of events.

The thoughtful newscaster takes these topical twists and turns into consideration in both writing and delivery; the newspaper editor need not give the matter a moment's thought. The radio news writing style that has developed includes the choice of simple words and short, declarative sentences. Attribution precedes statements as it does in normal conversation. Sentence structure is incomplete at times, such as verb less sentences. Purists may howl, but the reality is that understanding is more important than grammar to a radio news writer.

2.1.13 Television Style

Television news style is much like radio news style, for a viewer can no more return to a group of facts than a listener can. The viewer, like the listener, does not always focus on what the newscaster says. Television news adds further complexities when pictures join the words; that is, anchors or reporters deliver what is called a "voice over."

Ideally the words that accompany a videotape story of an event are written, even under time pressure, only after the writer has viewed the unedited videotape and made editing decisions such that the pictures follow a logic of their own. In practice the ideal method of editing video first and writing text afterward is rarely followed in television newsrooms, but the better news writers at least keep the pictures in mind as they write, and the tape is edited to fit the words.

Besides all the other constraints which limit the writing of a news story — lead, chronology, clarity, etc. — the words should relate in some way to the pictures. If the words and the pictures do not support each other, they surely fight each other for the viewer's attention, a dissonance that detracts from understanding.

An examination of a random selection of television newscasts will demonstrate that nearly all of the fresh information is found in the words, but it is the pictures that carry the impact for the viewers. It is the pictures that will be remembered.

There are other types of videotape stories, such as news about the economy, which consist primarily of file tape chosen for the sole purpose of illustrating the words.

Here, picture logic barely exists, yet care must be taken that the words are not overwhelmed by the helping pictures. Economic news presents an additional difficulty alluded to in considering radio, above. The difficulty lies in communicating numbers. Television has one advantage over radio here, because numbers can be presented visually while the newscaster reads them; the presentation can be enhanced by graphs, pie charts or other visual aids lacking in radio.

2.1.14 Comparisons of Style and Substance

Having noted all this, it should be added that, while distinctions between print and broadcast news writing certainly exist, more should not be made of them than is warranted. Broadcast news has been the butt of jokes and snide comments about its perceived lack of substance and "See Spot run" presentation, but the dominance of television newscasts coupled with the painful demise of many metropolitan newspapers has led to a reassessment of newspaper practices. Changes have included a less formal writing style. The result is not by any means the style of television and radio news, but there has been a trend in that direction. In fact, USA Today reportedly was designed to be a printed version of a television newscast both in style and substance.

Substance needs to be considered apart from writing style.

The choice of stories, their length, and the choice of topics are factors independent of writing style. Local television newscasts, particularly, have been criticized for their concerns with frivolous matters, with a penchant to chase after gossip, with time-wasting chatter among anchors, and generally with being the electronic equivalent of a backyard fence. Both radio and television newscasts, with the notable exception of public broadcasting, are criticized for devoting too little time to political and other matters of significance to public life. Defenders of the substance of newscasts have responded with a variant of the argument that it is pointless to preach to empty pews, that the newscasts have proven more adept at giving people the news they want, and that, in any case, newspapers are filled with the trivia of comic strips and "Dear Abby."

NEWSPAPER	RADIO	TELEVISION
<p>The inverted pyramid begins with the most important information. Succeeding paragraphs contain details that are less and less important. Editing can be done by cutting from the bottom of the story, but if time permits a story should be edited line by line.</p>	<p>Most newscast items are so short that there is time only for a few of the most important details of a report. Where more time is available, a choice can be made among the inverted pyramid style, the sequential telling of an event, or a combination of the two, starting with the important details.</p>	<p>After an on-camera lead by the anchor or the reporter, a visual story may begin with the most dramatic footage if there is any, and then show video that matches the written copy scene for scene. As already noted, if the words and pictures do not support each another they compete with each other for the viewer's attention. In that case the contest is unequal, for the pictures have more impact.</p>

2.1.15 Reporting and Translating Media Terms of Conflict

Reporting conflict requires a sound knowledge of the subject and good contacts to interpret complex stories. Get the basics right, such as appropriate language, ranks and regiments. Caroline Wyatt is the BBC's former defense correspondent.

At the end of the Cold War defense seemed to be an issue that was firmly on the back burner in Britain. Albeit there was some public debate about whether the UK really needed a nuclear weapons program, or such large armed forces, or so many ships, planes or helicopters. But the government of the day looked forward to a peace dividend.

It is amazing what a difference two or three decades, 9/11 and several wars can make. Defense has ratcheted its way up the political agenda; debated everywhere from parliament to the pub.

Do Britain's servicemen and women have the right equipment and the right budget for the wars they are sent to fight on our behalf? Are we keeping the [Military Covenant](#)? Are civilians now too far removed from any understanding of the realities of military life so long after the end of national service?

What are our armed forces for? And where do Britain's responsibilities in the world stop when it comes to providing or exercising 'hard power'?

"Make it simple enough to understand, keep it interesting and make sure - crucially - that it's right"

Journalists need to be able to tell all of those stories properly, interpret them correctly, and give them the appropriate weight and place in the BBC's output - from the broader policy questions to coverage of each

individual soldier, sailor or airman's death. Journalists need to report those issues fairly, truthfully and as objectively as possible.

Defense stories are often complex for those with no [military](#) background. And sometimes journalists are liable to confusion over the basics - for example: ranks, regiments, military structure, funding and responsibilities.

Is it 'the' commander who has resigned or 'a' commander? Do you mean the overall head of [Nato](#) forces in 'X' or the brigadier in charge of British forces in 'Y'? These things matter; nuances and interpretation can also be crucial.

This subject guide is intended to help you make your way through what can sometimes appear to be a cacophony of claim and counter-claim, never mind the baffling battalions of abbreviations - the three-letter acronyms (obviously shortened to TLAs) of military terminology.

Caroline was the BBC's specialist defence correspondent for seven years until 2014. She has covered the conflicts in Kosovo, Chechnya and Afghanistan - as well as Iraq. A former BBC correspondent based in Berlin, Bonn, Moscow and Paris, she has also reported from Jerusalem and Gaza.

In translating English newspapers into Arabic, there are many methods that should be followed in order to translate the text perfectly. Newmark, (1988:81) mentions the difference between translation methods and translation procedures. He writes that, "translation methods relate to whole texts, while translation procedures are used for sentences and the smaller units of language". The following are the most important methods in translating the text of the journalistic register into Arabic:

(a) Faithful Translation

It attempts to produce the precise contextual meaning of the original within the constraints of the 'TL' grammatical structures. This method is mainly used in translating legal texts. The criteria used to judge the faithfulness of a translation are: the subject, the precision of the original contents, the type, function and use of the text, its literary qualities, its social or historical contexts and so on.

(b) Semantic Translation

Which differs from '*faithful translation*' only in as far as it must take more account of the aesthetic value of the (SL) text. It can be used in philosophical, religious, political, scientific, technical, or literacy text.

(c) Precise Translation

In this type the translator aims at rendering what he/she thinks is essential in the 'ST', and deletes what seems to be unnecessary for the 'TL' reader. It is useful in rendering texts in which what are important is not the details, but the main or controlling idea, such as lectures, letters, telegrams. The following examples show the differences between '*Semantic Translation*' and '*Precise Translation*' For example, "*The new President BARACK Obama re-took the oath with Mr Roberts at the White House in front of a group of reporters around when 1.8million people crowded Capitol Hill to watch the ceremony...*"

- Semantic Translation:

سيؤدي الرئيس بارك أوباما القسم امام جمع من المراسلين عندما يجتمع 1.8 مليون نسمة في مدينة كابيتلو هيل لمشاهدة المراسم.

- Precise Translation

سيؤدي الرئيس بارك أوباما اليمين امام الشعب الأمريكي في مدينة كابيتلو هيلز.

(d) Communicative Translation

It attempts to render the exact contextual meaning of the original in such a way that both content and language are readily acceptable and comprehensible to the readership. For example in the Observer newspaper Alamiga, (2013:5) mentions:

“I cannot imagine a German calling for forgiveness of Adolf Hitler
لا أستطيع أن أتخيل بأن الألمان ينادون *and saying let bygones be bygones..*”
بمسامحة أدولف هتلر ويقولون عفا الله عما سلف.

(e) Adaptation

Which is the freest form of translation, and is used mainly for plays (comedies) and poetry; the themes, characters, plots are usually preserved, the ‘SL’ culture is converted to the ‘TL’ culture and the text is rewritten. For example the adaptation of Shakespeare’s play “King Lear” which is mentioned in an article by Miller, L.(2015:12) in the Independent newspaper mentions, “William Shakespeare in 1606 he pens three of his greatest *plays: King Lear, Macbeth and Antony and Cleopatra..*” and it can be translated into Arabic as .

كتب وليام شكسبير أعظم مسرحياته في عام 1606 مثل: "الشيخ الغنى الأعمى وأولاده الثلاثة"،
ماكبث، و أنطونيو وكليوباترا.

(f) Free Translation

It produces the ‘TL’ text without the style, form, or content of the original. For example, Dickins and *et al*, (2002:18) mentions the expression “*This one’s dead trendy*” which is translated as:

مثل هذه الأشياء عليها إقبال كثير الآن

(g) Idiomatic Translation

It 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.

2.1.16 Translation Equivalence

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

The domain of equivalents conveys linguistic units such as *collocations*, *morphemes*, *words*, *phrases*, *clauses*, *idioms* and *proverbs*. So, finding equivalents is the most difficult stage of translation and does not mean that the translator should always find one-to-one categorically or structurally equivalent units in the two languages that is, sometimes two different linguistic units in different languages carry the same function.

For example, the verb “*happen*” in the English sentence “he happens to be happy” equals the adverb “*Etefaghan*” (by chance) in Persian sentence “ *U Etefaghan Khosh ha last*”. The translator after finding out the meaning of SL linguistic form should ask himself/ herself what the linguistic form in another language (TL) for the same meaning encoded by.

2.1.17 Multilingualism: An Issue of Stability and Conflict

One of the critical realities of many nations across the globe is the issue of multilingualism. Many questions have been posed as to whether multilingualism is a resource or a hindrance to the unity and integrity of a nation as also its administrative functioning and socio-economic life. Whatever the answers, it has to be accepted that multilingualism is a fact in the life of most nations and a state which is likely to prevail for years to come. Strictly speaking, there is no unilingual state, only the degree of linguistic heterogeneity of the population may vary.

To get a really trustworthy picture especially as regards territorial spread and hierarchical relations is perhaps next to impossible. Belgium has discontinued including questions on language after the Census of 1947 as it raises hostile reactions especially among the Dutch. Pakistan to avoid it for political reasons. Canada is perhaps the only country which sets a great store by the language question and takes care during the censal counts to record exact details. Many African states do not have the administrative machinery to undertake such a precision task with precision.

Laponcel has taken three categories to delineate differences as observed in different multilingual states across the world. States which are linguistically unified (90%-100%) are encountered in Europe and

America. In the second type (50%-90%) the examples from Europe are Spain and the erstwhile Soviet Union, Paraguay and Peru from South America, Somalia and Sudan from Africa and Thailand and Kampuchea from Asia. These represent incomplete dominance by an indigenous language. Though multilingual, only the dominant language is recognized, and used for official purposes. It plays the role of lingua franca. The subordinate languages are found in the peripheries. The third category takes care of those states with less than 50 per cent linguistic homogeneity. Many of the African states which have an international language as official language come in this category. In some countries, a single language like Wolof in Senegal, Nyarawanda in Rwanda etc-are sufficiently distinguishable from the other local languages and may someday become the national language.

In a subgroup of the third category come states like Luxembourg before 1984, Haiti, Taiwan, Indonesia etc.

Although officially unilingual, Luxembourg is actually trilingual. French is the language of law and administration, German of press and business and Luxembourgian of daily life. In Haiti, the official language is of the international type. French the tongue of its colonial masters has been indigenized and split into creole and classical French. In Taiwan, the official language, Mandarin was imposed by the rulers, the Nationalists who had fled China in the 1940s. However, more than 80 per cent of the Taiwanese speak Fukien's~. In Ethiopia) Amharic is spoken only by one-third of the population, yet it is the official language. This was done for reasons of political expediency.

In the above mentioned states, an indigenous minority language is on the way to reducing and perhaps eventually eliminating other indigenous tongues through state control, administrative machinery and education policies. A dominant African language may evolve to replace the international languages, English or French as the case may be, or the foreign languages may become indigenized.

A classification of multilingual states according to their official languages can prove interesting. Only Cameroon and Vanuatu have two foreign languages as official languages, while countries like India, Pakistan, Sri Lanka, Swaziland, Lesotho etc. have one foreign language and one indigenous language as official languages.

Relatively few multilingual states have the same foreign languages as official languages. French and English share Cameroon, Canada, Seychelles and Vanuatu. English is an official language in 19 states, French in 10, German and Tamil in two.

Linguistic geography and multilingualism may be understood in any specific context by going through the history of the particular region or state. Often the presence of a foreign language is due to the impact of colonialism. At times a small state can be on the borders of large countries which are more linguistically homogenous. An obvious example would be that of Switzerland. Assimilation of peripheral minorities is another manner by which territorial multilingualism occurs. The erstwhile Soviet Union is a prime example of the situation.

Not all multilingual/bilingual countries are so to the same degree. Some are so in name only. Symbolic bilingualism is evident from postage stamps, bank notes, passports etc. Some officially multilingual states for

example: Singapore, pass their laws only in one language, in this case it is English. Another feature to note would be the language used.

In Parliament. Switzerland uses German extensively though French is also used. Comprehensibility is another factor. States like Canada and Belgium make use of simultaneous translation. In Cameroon, Finland, India, South Africa, Switzerland etc. one language is dominant.

There are two types of officially multilingual states - those with indigenous official languages (Canada and Switzerland) and those with of foreign official language to serve as *lingua franca*. In the latter category competition between foreign tongue and the dominant indigenous one is evident (Malta and Swaziland) or where indigenous languages are so fragmented that the foreign language is the only acceptable medium (Black Africa) . The colonial rivalries of France and England lie at the origin of four~ multilingual states (Cameroon, Canada, Seychelles and Vanuatu).

Where the indigenous official language is spoken by more than 50 per cent of the population it has chances of supplanting the foreign tongue~ the same cannot be said where less than 50 per cent speak the official language (India-Hindi). Then, the foreign tongue may get indigenized to maintain the *status quo*. This can be said of English in Philippines and Singapore.

States that are factually as well as also legally bilingual/trilingual with the official languages also being indigenous are Belgium, Czechoslovakia, Finland, Luxembourg, and Switzerland in Europe, Canada, South Africa and Afghanistan. These states have been buffers between great powers (Afghanistan, Belgium, Switzerland etc.) or are the remains of former colonies or shattered empires (Canada, Finland, South Africa etc.) Instances of multilingualism can be cited from every continent. Even in

Australia, which has been peopled by successive immigration mainly from Europe some form of multilingualism is prevalent. In USA, English is the most widely spoken language. Though apparently an English speaking country, it has not till date designated any language as its national language. Spanish is gaining ground especially due to immigration from Mexico. There is also a sizeable population of Italians, Germans and Asians. It has not really become the melting pot that had been envisaged for it.

Violent conflicts may not be encountered in every multilingual situation. Only when there are conflicting interests does the situation becomes volatile. It depends on how much a community or state lays emphasis on the linguistic identity of its people. Relatively peaceful coexistence as witnessed in Switzerland despite the presence of three major language groups is also a reality as was the break up of West Pakistan and East Pakistan into Pakistan and Bangladesh. The break up of Pakistan shows clearly two factors, (i) that the East Pakistanis speaking Bangla would not be dominated by Urdu speaking elite in Islamabad. They required a separate identity. (ii) It is not easy to control separatist tendencies when a region is not geographically/territorially contiguous. Multilingualism and language problems are rife both in developed as well as developing nations and as often simplistically analyzed, economic deprivation does not lie at the root of all language conflicts. History, territoriality, migration, political leadership is all prime factors in any discussion on multilingualism. These interacting with each other are responsible for coloring the attitudes of the inhabitants of any specific region.

Certain multilingual situation has also their potential for conflict, has been attempted in this chapter. Attempts have been made to give an

overview of various types of multilingualism, their causal factors and their manifestations in varying situations.

2.1.18 Rhetorical Tropes

The present study is to a greater extent linguistic in nature though some aspects of sociolinguistic have to be considered to provide an overall perspective. In this part of the chapter, the role of rhetorical tropes for creating a particular mental image that is moderately contradictory to what the reader might expect.

(a) Hyperbole and Understatement

Hyperbole and understatement are used as tools of manipulation. Hyperbole, is a rhetorical device used to highlight, intensify and amplify selected elements of the image of reality, seems to be extremely pervasive in communication of any kind. It is traditionally associated with literature, but can in fact be presented in most types of linguistic activity, from everyday interactions to carefully designed political propaganda- on the other hand, we know that these two devices are not used equally frequently in different cultural communication. Some of them prefer to use implicit information, while Others rely more on explicit references, exaggeration, and superlatives (cf. Gutt:1991). Both hyperbole and understatement influence our perception of reality.

Hyperbole: is an over-exaggeration to make a point, it helps the reader to understand the excessive meaning of something.(Study.com, Cannie Warner). Hyperbole is an example of excessive exaggeration for rhetorical effect. The headline (Bambi turns killer) (Daily Express, 25February2005)—is an example that reflects the sensationalism, and

often the humour, of news reporting in the tabloid press. However, it is in the reporting of various social out groups-'racial' or ethnic minorities, criminals and mental health patients in particular –that hyperbole can take on a more sinister dimension. Van Dijk(1991) points out that in his study of the reporting of 'race' and 'racial' minorities hyperbole was highly selective 'disturbances' are not merely described as "riots" but even as "mob war 'when young West Indians are involved, a policeman is not "stabbed" but "hacked down and mutilated in a fury of blood lust' when killed by a black man(p:219). Racist hyperbole persists in some reports. Take this editorial from the *Sun* (2 March2005), for example, commenting on the same drink-driving death examined in the unit of (nomination strategy):

(b) Analysis of the Reporting Event

‘In the reporting of this story, the Sun reconfigures a traffic accident into an immigration story. This in itself is unwarranted, but it is the hyperbole-specifically choosing to describe the driver as wicked. These show the driver was over the legal limit; that the alcohol in his system was a residue from the night before; that the police found insufficient evidence to charge him with causing death by careless driving, that they failed to prove he was driving without due care and attention; and that he was in fact, "going only marginally over the 30 mph speed limit". In short, the death he caused was an unfortunate accident’. John E. Richardson (2007:66).The hyperbolic account of this accident should therefore be viewed as an attempt to "emphasise the aggression or other negative properties of *black people*" (Van Dijk, 1991: 219), and in this case, to support The Sun's wider point that our immigration system is being abused by "wicked foreigners".

(c) Framing

The media provide frame of reference, or highly stereotyped representations of specific situations, to make the event accessible to public. And the shape other kind of frames –the ones that audience, the individuals use when interpreting information about events

The frame system consists of stereotypical scenarios, routines, and beliefs, and are based on expectations in a given social situations. They enable each of us ‘to locate, perceive, identify, and label.’(Fillmore 1977, Dubios1997, Goffman1974, Schank etal 1977). Through the framing of news discourse, journalists and their editors create a certain context for readers and viewers.

News frames make a certain facts meaningful, provide a context in which to understand issues, shape the inferences made, reinforce stereotypes, determine judgments and decisions, draw attention to some aspects of reality while obscuring other elements.

This selection in turn creates reactions in the audience, related to diagnosis of causes, attribution of responsibility, and so on (Baker, 2006).

Media reports on events are neither produced nor processed in a neutral, unbiased way. Interpretations and attitudes are influenced by the different frames which influence not only the content but also the form adjusting (or manipulating) both to generate particular feelings and responses on the part of the audience.

According to Kauffman, Elliot, and Shmueli (2003) ‘framing involves both the construction of interpretive frames and their representation to others.’These interpretive frames reflect judgments made by creators or framers of the

message (Hallahan, 1999:207). Furthermore, Rhoads (1997) defines a frame as:

'As psychological device that offers a perspective and manipulates salience in order to influence subsequent judgments'. This definition focuses on two relevant elements of framing perspective and manipulating. Also in this concern Ali Darwish (2006:67) states that:

One of the major problems of translating news or any kind of texts for that matter is a phenomenon known as shift in focus. This shift in focus is practically a shift in perspective through linguistic manipulation and reconstruction. One could argue that obligatory syntactic shifts in translating news reframe the message through shifting the focus from the subject to the verb in Arabic for example.

2.1.19 Metaphor

(Entman 1991) puts that a metaphor is type of framing by stating: *'media frames or news frames are embodied in the keywords, **metaphors**, concepts, symbols, visual images used in a news narrative.'*

A metaphor used to compare two things in an effort to help the reader have a better understanding of what the writer is attempting to convey. Metaphor does not utilize the words like 'as' or 'than', example of metaphor 'It is raining men.' This does not mean it is literally 'raining men', since that it is impossible. It simply means that there are lot of men present. (Study.com, Carrie Warner).

A familiar concept to most, a metaphor in the most general sense, involves perceiving one thing in terms of another. Take the economy for example we can talk about an economy being 'overheated', or 'stagnating', 'tiger economies', 'peaks', and 'troughs', in production, 'a financial boom',

the 'bubble bursting' or a range of other metaphors which are employed in order to understand financial affairs in terms of something else.

'There are more or less fixed set of metaphors employed in exclusionary discourse such as the likening of migration to a natural disaster of immigration/ immigrants as 'avalanches or floods,' and of illegal immigration as 'dragging or hauling masses.' (Reisigl and Wodak, 2001:50).

Certain types of metaphors are associated with specific genres of journalism. Metaphors of war are frequently, indeed ubiquitously, employed in sports reporting. In most sports we talk about 'attack' and defence ', about 'counter attack'; we 'shoot for goal' or 'shoot at the goal"; if one side is subject to a prolonged period of pressure they can be said to be 'under siege'; a team can get 'slaughtered' by the opposition, etc. The players in our teams, or the more successful members of our teams, are often labelled 'heroes' or 'our boys'; the less successful are labelled 'villains' or, in the case of Paula Radcliffe, after she dropped out of the 2004 Olympic marathon, a 'casualty of war' (*Daily Mirror*, 23 August 2004). Such a metaphorical framework shapes our understanding of sport as an extraordinary activity- an activity that allows us to abandon reason and sense of proportion. As Sontag (1990:99) wrote, this because *war 'is one of the few activities that people are not supposed to view 'realistically': that is, with an eye to expense and practical outcome in all-out-war ,expenditure is all-out, imprudent-war being defined as an emergency in which no sacrifice is excessive'*. Interestingly, war itself is often reported (and hence understood) using metaphors and metaphorical frameworks. Lule (2004), for instance, shows how during the prelude to the US/ UK invasion of Iraq in 2003, news-reporting was dominated by four metaphors: 'the Timetable; the Games of Saddam; the Patience of the White House; and Making a Case/Selling the Plan'(p.184). Explaining each of these metaphors:

{...} the administration had a timetable it was trying to follow, a timetable with a final inevitable destination: war. The timetable ,however ,was threatened by the games of Saddam, who adroitly played hide and seek with weapons {...}the White House was losing patience with the process, the UN ,and eventually ,its allies. Subsequently, the administration was forced to make its case, sell its plan to the American people.(ibid).

Other prominent metaphors frequently employed to make war 'understandable' are war is business, war is politics and war is a freedom (see Lakoff, 1991). Each of these, like metaphorical frameworks employed to promote the invasion of Iraq, help to hide the true sequences of violent conflict: blood, bones and bodies. The following example of metaphor has been presented by the *Sun* newspaper to shape the readers view regarding the teenager girls who are getting pregnant; this social issue has been aroused in the British community:

Vicky clones: (Little Britain's Vicky Pollard makes all laughs). Here the *Sun* employs metaphor to structure our understandings of the family: the girls are 'Vicky clones'. For those unaware, Vicky Pollard is a comic character from television show 'Little Britain,' So the girls described as selfish, stupid, indifferent, the characterisation is clearly intended to shape not only our view of the girls, but also our perception of how the girls apparently believe that 'having babies and scrounging off the state is perfectly normal behaviour,'.

2.1.204 Metonym

- Jasinski (2001:551) writes that metonym *'is the form of substitution in which something is associated with X is substituted for X'*.
- More formally, a metonym is a trope in which one word, phrase or object is substituted for another from a semantically related field of reference. Metonymy differs from metaphor; in that metaphor operates through transference of similar characteristics while

metonymy operates through more direct forms of association. Reisigl and Wodak (2001:56-58) detail a number of metonymic replacements:

- The cause or creator is replaced by the product: e.g. 'the anti-terrorism, Crime and Security Act 2001 criminalises Muslims'.
- The user of an object is replaced by the object: e.g. 'Rachel Corrie was killed by Israeli bulldozer'
- People are replaced by a place in which these people work /are staying e.g. "The White house declared ..."the detention centre erupted into violence.
- Events are replaced by the date in which these events occurred e.g. "September 11th must never be allowed to occur again".
- A country, or state, is replaced by (certain people) living in this country :e.g. 'We cannot let the evil of ethnic cleansing stand. We must not rest until it is reversed (*Tony Blair, 22 April 1999, cited in Fairclough, 2000:148*).

Metonyms are used because the actors responsible are unknown. Consider the following headline: '*Truck crashes into UK embassy*' (*Independent, 1 April 2003*). Here, the user of an object replaced by the object –perhaps partly because the reason why the truck was driven into the embassy building died with the driver, and partly because it was a punchier headline than alternatives (e.g. "*Man drives truck into UK embassy*").

On the other hand, metonyms may '*enable the speakers {or writers} to conjure away responsible, involved or affected actors (whether victims or perpetrators), or to keep them in the semantic background*' (Reisigl and Wodak, 2001:58). Consider the following headline, also taken from the *Independent*: '*Besides the Tigers, another river carries food, fuel, and arms north*' (7 April 2003). This metonym involves the social agent (the army) being replaced by the medium (the river, through which this action is enabled): the text reveals that these materials were carried by the army, using their boats on the river, not in fact by the river itself. This metonym is comparable to saying that "the wind takes tourists on holiday", rather than pilots using planes. Casting the river as an active agent- and the rather poetic evocation of the Tigers-makes the event seem romantic

than the reality:the army moving its supplies in order to kill Iraqis more efficiently.

With this regard John E. Richardson (2007:201) gives these examples to illustrate the trope metonym:

1-Missiles hit Red Crescent maternity hospital (Independent, 3April 2003).

2-Maternity Unit bomb kills three (Daily mirror, 3 April2003)

3-Rocket kills teenager in Iran (Financial Times 9April2003)

4-Grenade kills two soldiers (Daily Telegraph 15 April 2003)

In each of these headlines, a metonym is used to shield ‘Our’ agency, in each, the user of an object is replaced by the object itself. It was US forces that launched all of these missiles, bombs, and rockets, (in the case of the fourth headline, the grenade was both thrown by and killed US soldiers). These headlines were product of an editorial choice. Taking the second example ‘Maternity Unit bomb kills three’ concertinas two process (US bombs a maternity and kills three people) into a clipped noun phrase that retains their contextual sense (a bomb, a maternity unit, three people killed) but remove any sense of responsibility.

2.1.21 Puns

Pun is the form of word play used by writers, and it may be grouped into three main forms:

- **Firstly**, homographic puns that exploit multiple meanings of essentially the same word {e.g. foil, meaning to baffle and foil, meaning thin metal).
- **Secondly**, ideographic puns that substitute words of similar but not identical sound (e.g. merry and Mary).
- **Thirdly**, homophonic puns that substitute words with the same sound but unrelated meaning (e.g. raised and razed).For example the headline *‘Batchelor Pads it out :Jockey denies misleading investigators’(Daily Mirror,22 June 2004)*,reporting allegations against the jokeyMttie Batchelor, contains an example of a homographic pun on the word ‘pad ’

While some may just view such features as a merely entertaining aspect of particularly (tabloid news discourse). Like all rhetorical features, they often underscore a newspaper's editorial and often political agenda. For example, 'My Euro Vision: Blair spells out why he backs yes vote on New Constitution' (Ibid), is pro-European constitution article printed in a pro-Euro newspaper. A less successful pun, 'Beware the bribes of March' (17 March 2005), draws attention to what the Chancellor Gordon Brown's pre-election budget. It is less successful because the ideograph –bribes- is a little too far from the word it puns –ides – and the literary reference is perhaps not instantly recognisable to a tabloid readership. The *Sun* is usually far better at inventing puns – for example: 'Was it a left hook or a right hamza?' (*Sun*, 7 March 2005) reporting a physical assault in prison against the Muslim preacher Abu Hamza. While the report is prejudicial and revels in the criminal attack against this man is rhetorically successful because it uses both homographic pun on hook (as a verb or a noun) and an ideographic pun on "hamza" (write hander).

In conclusion, puns with other writing techniques have a great influence in the occurrence of the journalistic jargon, so the students of translation and other relevant discipline should be aware about these writing strategies to understand the headlines and news and interpret them correctly.

2.2 Previous Studies

1. Quite a number of studies in the field of translation in relation to media have been conducted. The first study is a PhD thesis conducted by Mouner Al-Soroji (2012) Faculty of Education, University of Gezira, entitled "*Impact of Machine Translation on Learners and Teachers. A Comparative Study with Special Focus on Press Translation*". The main objective of the study is to see whether translation/trainees are aware of the principles of editing and translating good news and journalistic items from English into Arabic and vice versa. The study finds out that a considerable number of translation learners as well as professionals are not aware of the basics of journalistic translation, the news and its components. Thus, the study recommends that improving the standard of translation students that can be through making extra exercises of translation (rather than given in the class). It also

recommends that those who are interested to be journalistic translators, should get aware of the features, rules and characteristics of editing journalistic items, as beyond doubt, journalism plays a great role in our daily life.

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

3. In addition, an M.A dissertation by Shirzad Mansouri (2007) Garmsar Branch- Tehran, College of translation, Islamic Azad University entitled “*Learning How to Translate Foreign News Discovering Strategies in Translation of Press Texts*”,. The main objective is to find out the strategies that were used by the translator team when translating foreign news in translation classes. Findings of the study can be summarized as follows: in the process of translating foreign newspapers, students are unable to omit word or words and add some explanations or a choosing the words that stimulate the readers' feelings or reactions. It also found that the

students have low performance in choosing the appropriate strategy when translating English foreign newspapers into Persian. The main recommendations of this study, the instructors who teach journalism or other related fields can use this study to clarify differences between English and Persian news structures. Moreover, the instructors of translation can also use this study for their works, like to explain translation theories, or to suggest which translation strategy should be used for each kind of text. Moreover, the study is guideline to solve problems that occurred when translating because the strategies mentioned in this study are applicable to other similar cases. And may also be helpful for translators of any kind of text.

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

translators should use the appropriate strategy or technique in translating collocations into Arabic.

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

In addition, an M.A thesis was by Aya Kh. EL Mashharawi (2008) The Islamic University Deanery of Higher Education, Faculty of Education, Department of Curricula and Methodology, which is entitled *Collocation Errors Made by English and Journalism Majors at the Islamic University of Gaza*. The main objective of this study is to identify classify and analyze collocation errors made by English and journalism majors at the IUG. Among the main findings: The English language and journalism

majors at the IUG made different types of collocation errors which manifest their lower and deficient competence in using collocations within English language and in dealing with such collocations across Arabic and English language. Such weak linguistic performance is attributed for various reasons. Moreover, dealing with collocations across Arabic and English language is a problematic spot and an error-generating area for both majors rather than using collocations within English. Based on the findings provided by the current study, the main recommendations are: both the English teachers and the students bear a part of responsibility of the incompetent collocational knowledge and usage. Furthermore, the teachers should prepare and design materials of handouts, worksheets, and transparencies from various authentic resources like radio interviews, extracts from magazines, journals articles, TV programs, newspapers clips, advertisements, reports and others. These materials should be related to the students' interests and needs.

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

idiomatic expressions. Furthermore, translators who wish to be professional should be competent in both source and target cultures.

The similarities and the differences between the above mentioned studies and the present study can be summarized as follows:

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

Summary of the Chapter:

As a summary of this chapter we can say it really provides the theoretical framework of the thesis and exploring some of previous related work. The study shall conduct a descriptive step towards investigation of translating journalistic jargon with special reference to all sorts of conflicts. Works relevant to this will be viewed with respect to the definition of contrastive studies and their role in language teaching and translation. The highly importance of translation of words language will also be dealt with in the present part to pinpoint the necessity of discussing translation as a global phenomenon.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

This chapter includes a survey, comprised of two sets of questionnaires (one for learners and other for lecturers) concerning translation and language learning. Moreover, in order to discover more deeply the relationships and among learners' beliefs about translation, strategy use, and individual demographic variables, interviews were conducted with students as well. Sampling, tools for collecting and analyzing data will be described and discuss in details.

3.1 Study design

The researcher adopts two study designs. Initially, a questionnaire has been designed for lecturers- besides, assessing Test. An attitudes questionnaire was implemented by the researcher to measure the students' opinion towards using English language supported with Arabic if necessary or using English language without any usage of Arabic (only English language) as a tool for translation particularly at the realm of *conflicts* where the situation is dramatically calls for utmost care as long as a single inappropriate word can trigger off war. Besides, pre- and post-test which is designed to find out the impact of the experimental factor (translation) on enhancing students' comprehension of English language Skills (Reading, Writing, listening and speaking). As a final point, the researcher compares the pre- and post-tests results to see if there is a progress in the students' performance.

3.2 Population and samples

The subjects are EFL MA translation students at Sudan University of Science and Technology, College of Languages. A number of 50 of EFL students (males and females) have been selected randomly out of 70 students who represent the target population.

3.3 Study design (Procedures for data collection)

The researcher has adopted the descriptive and analytical approach. The cross sectional method (selecting a representation sample from the study population) is the most suitable study design for this study because it helps in obtaining the overall picture of the difficulties encountered by M.A students in translating English lexical items at conflict areas into Arabic.

3.3.1 The Content of the Test

The diagnostic test consists of (30) appropriate sentences from different international papers all with words and structures relating to war and conflict areas. The researcher has composed the test as follows:

- The first part includes sentences which were intended to investigate the difficulties that encounter M.A students when translating lexical conflict words from newspapers into Arabic such as: equivalence, variability, flexibility, idiomatic expressions, and culture.
- The second part Sentences include the types of lexical collocations from different sections, world news in particular. They were designed to elicit the most difficult type of lexical collocations in translating newspapers into Arabic.

3.3.2 Validity of the Test

Validity is considered as an essential characteristic of a good test. Richard and *et al* (1999:93) define validity as “a test is said to be valid when it measures, what is supposed to measure”. Face validity was checked by presenting the test to four associate professors at the English Department, College of languages, Mugtribeen University and Rabat University.

3.3.3 Reliability of the Two Tests

Reliability is highly considered as one of the specific qualities that determines the overall usefulness of a test. It is defined by Brown, (1987:220) as “a reliable test is a test that is consistent and dependable”. To measure the reliability of the diagnostic test, the test was divided into

odd and even numbers so as to get two marks for each student. A coefficient was calculated for the test using *Spearman Rank- Difference Method* to measure the tests' reliability. The degree of reliability obtained for the test was (88.2), which indicates considerable reliability.

3.3. 4 Administration of the Diagnostic Test

The researcher was helped by two lecturers in administering the test to (50) M.A students at the College of Languages. The students were also assured that the results would only be used to serve the purposes of the study.

3.4 The Questionnaire for the Teachers/Translators

3.4.1 Content of the Questionnaire

The questionnaire was directed to ten (30) Sudanese teachers/translators (*Appendix 2*) working at different universities here in Khartoum, Department of English, Translation Language Centre Sudan University of Science and Technology , and professional translators working in Sudan National Assembly (The Parliament) and 'SUNA'. It was made up of (15) items with four options for each (*Strongly agree, Agree, Disagree and Strongly Disagree*). The objective of the first ten (10) questions was to find out teachers/ translators' opinions about the subject matter. The last three are open-ended questions which were designed to find out teachers/translators' suggestions about some techniques to promote M.A students' performance in translating English words relating to conflict areas.

3.4.2 Validity of the Questionnaire

A questionnaire is said to be valid when it measures what it is intended to measure. A number of different ways can be used to evaluate the validity of a questionnaire. In the present study, the researcher chose the face validity which entails that two or more experts (associate professors) in the concerned field are to act as referees for the validity of a questionnaire. In this respect, the questionnaire of the current study was

given to four associate professors of the staff members of the Department of English, College of Languages at the Sudan University of Science and Technology, and was approved to be valid.

Questionnaire's Referees

Table (3.1)

NO	NAME	JOB	QUALIFICAT IONS	PLACE OF WORK
1	Abdulla Yasin	associate prof	PhD Holder	SUST
2	Ahmed Abdulla	associate prof	PhD Holder	Nilein University
3	Ahmed Mukhtar Al Mardi	associate prof	PhD Holder	Omdurman Islamic University
4	Najla Bashari	assistant prof	PhD Holder	SUST
5	Abass Mukhtar	assistant prof	PhD Holder	SUST

3.4.3 Reliability of the Questionnaire

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

3.5 Statistical Reliability and Validity:

It is meant by the reliability of any test, to obtain the same results if the same measurement is used more than one time under the same conditions.

In addition, the reliability means when a certain test was applied on a number of individuals and the marks of every one were counted; then the same test applied another time on the same group and the same marks were obtained; then we can describe this test as reliable. In addition, reliability is defined as the degree of the accuracy of the data that the test measures. Here are some of the most used methods for calculating the reliability:

1. Split-half by using Spearman-Brown equation.
2. Alpha-Cronbach coefficient.
3. Test and Re-test method
4. Equivalent images method.
5. Guttman equation.

On the other hand, validity also is a measure used to identify the validity degree among the respondents according to their answers on certain criterion. The validity is counted by a number of methods, among them is the validity using the square root of the (reliability coefficient). The value of the reliability and the validity lies in the range between (0-1). The validity of the questionnaire is that the tool should measure the exact aim, which it has been designed for.

The researcher calculated the validity statistically using the following equation:

$$\text{Validity} = \sqrt{\text{Reliability}}$$

The researcher calculated the reliability coefficient for the measurement, which was used in the questionnaire using (split-half) method. This method stands on the principle of dividing the answers of the sample individuals into two parts, i.e. items of the odd numbers e.g. (1, 3, 5, ...)

and answers of the even numbers e.g. (2,4,6 ...). Then Pearson correlation coefficient between the two parts is calculated. Finally, the (reliability coefficient) was calculated according to Spearman-Brown Equation as the following:

$$\text{Reliability Coefficient} = \frac{2 \times r}{1 + r}$$

r = Pearson correlation coefficient

For calculating the validity and the reliability of the questionnaire from the above equation, the researcher distributed about (20) questionnaires to respondents. In addition, depending on the answers of the pre-test sample, the above Spearman-Brown equation was used to calculate the reliability coefficient using the split-half method.

We note from the results of above table that all reliability and validity coefficients for pre-test sample individuals about each questionnaire's theme, and for overall questionnaire, are greater than (50%), and some of them are nearest to one. This indicates to the high validity and reliability of the answers, so, the study questionnaire is valid and reliable, and that will give correct and acceptable statistical analysis.

3.5 Procedures for Data Analysis

The technique used to analyze the data is by SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Science) which were used to convey the statistical information. In the following chapter, the results of the data analysis will be displayed and discussed in relation to the hypotheses of the study.

Summary of the chapter:

This chapter mainly consists of two genres of questionnaires (one is dedicated for learners and the other for lecturers) concerning translation and language learning. Moreover, in order to discover more deeply the relationships and among learner's beliefs about translation, strategy use, and individual demographic variables, interviews were conducted with students as well. Sampling, tools for collecting and analyzing data will be described and discussed in details.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS, RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

Introduction

This chapter presents the analysis of data obtained from experiment, pre-test ,posttest and teachers' questionnaire .

4.1 Analysis of the Experiment (Pre and Post-test)

The analysis of the experiment will focus on answering vital questions on the use of translation and understanding of war words at the war zones as used by warriors and interpreted by reporters. This will be further considered in classroom interaction as the whole experiment is intended to furnish military students with a type of vocabulary, namely military vocabulary to which they have not been exposed before. To answer these questions, we computed the mean, standard deviation, standard error and ranges for the pretest- and post-test scores of both experimental and control groups. T-test was computed to find out whether each group had made any progress as a direct result of instruction. The following three hypotheses will be verified or confirmed in view of the analysis of the diagnostic test, Discourse Completion Test (DCT) as well as the questionnaire for the tutors and students.

Before the treatment, a pretest (PET test) was given to the participants in order to guarantee their homogeneity and determine their ability and knowledge. The test which consisted of 4 sections separated in different parts was administrated to both groups. The students' individual scores on the proficiency test (10 scores for the experimental group and 10 scores for the control group) are listed in following table(4-1):

Pre test			Post test	
Experimental group	Control group		Experimental group	Control group
5	4		6	5
2	3		8	5
3	5		8	5
4	4		8	5
2	4		8	5
2	5		7	6
2	4		3	6
4	5		8	5
3	4		7	6
2	5		7	5
2	4		6	5
3	2		8	6
4	2		8	6
2	2		8	3
3	3		8	6
6	3		9	3
3	4		6	7
3	2		7	6
3	4		8	6
3	5		7	7
3	4		7	6
2	5		7	5
2	4		6	5
3	2		8	6
3	4		7	6

Table(4-2)

N	Std. Deviation	Mean	
25	1.2	5.5	post control
25	1.6	5.0	Pre control
25	0.65	8.3	Post exp
25	1.9	5.0	Pre exp

Resource: the researcher

The following figure illustrates the comparison of the mean values of for the reading test both groups on pretest and posttest

Groups in Pretest and for both Comparison of the Mean Values of reading test .Figure 1 Posttest

Table (4-3) T-test for the differences between the two means

Groups		SD	DF	T-value	p-value	95% confidence interval	
						L	U
experimental	5.0	5.94	24	2.862		342.-	7.2
control	5.3	7.9	24	2.824	0.104	363.-	8.8
							86

Resource: the researcher

Table(4-4) T-Test Analysis of the Means of Two Groups in the Posttest

Groups		SD	DF	T-value	p-value	95% confidence interval	
						L	U
experimental	8.3	1.887	19			3.32	12.72
control	5.5	3.966	19	3.54	0.000	3.30	11.40

Resource: the researcher

Table(4-5)Secondly : female responses in both) WDCT & MDCT.

Pre test			Post test	
Experimental group	Control group		Experimental group	Control group
3	1		6	4
2	4		5	3
1	2		1	1
4	2		7	2
0	3		3	3
0	1		1	0
2	.5		6	2
1	1		8	0
0	1		5	3
2	2		7	2
2	2		5	1
3	3		4	3
1	1		6	0
5.	5.		4	3
1	1		5	2
1	3		7	2
1	3		6	2
4	2		6	2
3	3		6	4
4	1		7	2
1	5.		5	2
0	1		7	1
2	0		5	3
2	2		4	0
3	1		6	3

Table(4-6)The show Scores of the Experimental and Control Groups on the Pretest and Posttests

Descriptive Statistics for pre and post for both experimental and control tests			
N	Std. Deviation	Mean	
25	1.03	3.0	post control
25	1.01	2.5	Pre control

25	2.01	7.5	Post exp
25	1.22	2.3	Pre exp

Resource: the researcher

Groups in Pretest and for both Comparison of the Mean Values of reading test .Figure 1 Posttest

Table (4-7) T-test for the differences between the two means

Groups		SD	DF	T-value	p-value	95% confidence. interval	
						L	U
Experimental	2.3	1.7	25	4.8	0.214	341.-	7.2
Control	2.5	4.6	25	6.8		365.-	9.8

Resource: the researcher

2.1 Analyzing the Questionnaire

The responses to the questionnaire of the 70 teachers were tabulated and computed. The following is an analytical interpretation and discussion of the findings regarding different points related to the objectives and hypotheses of the study .

Each item in the questionnaire is analyzed statistically and discussed. The following tables will support the discussion. The researcher distributed the questionnaire on determined study sample (70), and constructed the required tables for collected data. This step consists transformation of the qualitative (nominal) variables (strongly disagree, disagree, Undetermined, agree, and strongly agree) to quantitative variables (1, 2, 3, 4, 5) respectively, also the graphical representations were used for this purpose.

2.1 Statistical Reliability

Reliability refers to the reliability of any test, to obtaining the same results if the same measurement is used more than one time under the same conditions. In addition, the reliability means when a certain test was applied on a number of individuals and the marks of every one were counted; then the same test applied another time on the same group and the same marks were obtained; then we can describe this test as reliable. In addition, reliability is defined as the degree of the accuracy of the data that the test measures. Here are some of the most used methods for calculating the reliability:

2.1.1 Alpha-Cronbach coefficient.

On the other hand, validity also is a measure used to identify the validity degree among the respondents according to their answers on certain criterion. The validity is counted by a number of methods, among them is the validity using the square root of the (reliability coefficient). The value of the reliability and the validity lies in the range between (0-1). The validity of the questionnaire is that the tool should measure the exact aim, which it has been designed for..

In this study the validity calculated by using the following equation:

The reliability coefficient was calculated for the measurement, which was used in the questionnaire using Alpha-Cronbach coefficient Equation as the following:

For calculating the validity and the reliability of the questionnaire from the above equation, the researcher distributed the questionnaires to 30 respondents to calculate the

reliability coefficient using the Alpha-Cronbach coefficient; the results have been showed in the following table(4-8)

No. of Items	C. alpha
20	0.85

Table (4-9) The Frequency Distribution for the Respondent's Answers according to their academic status:

Percentage	Frequency	Academic Status
28.6	20	Lecturer
57.1	40	Assistant Professor
10.4	8	Associate Professor
2.9	2	Professor
100	70	Total

According to the above table (4-9) and figure (6) it's clear that the number of Lecture is (20) teachers with percentage (28.6) , and the number of Assistant Professor is 40 with present (57.1%) , and the number of Associate Processor is 8 with percentage (10.4%) , and there are only 2 Professor with percentage (2.9%).

Figure No(4-1)

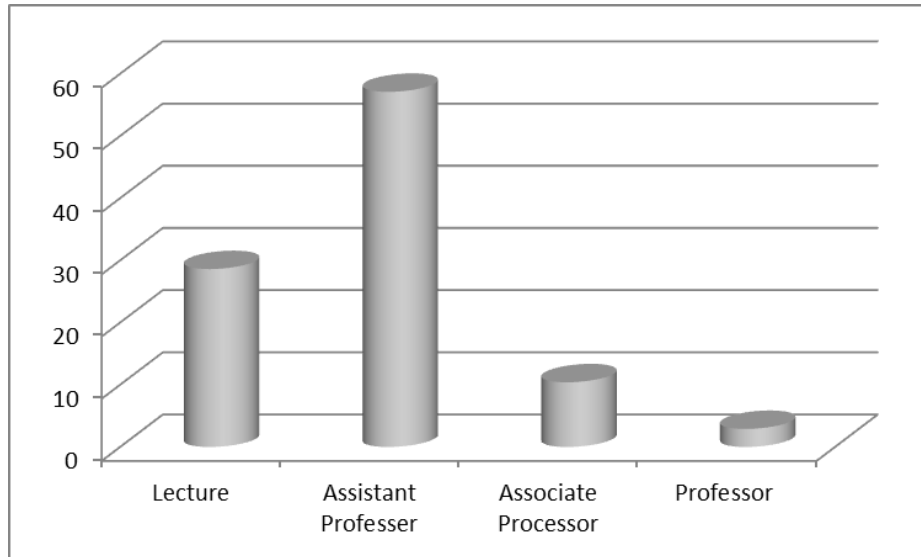
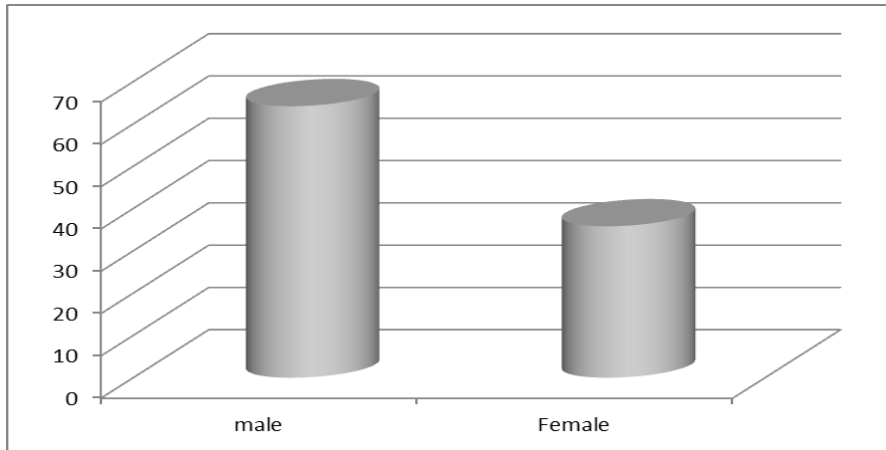


Table (4-10) The Frequency Distribution for the Respondent' S Answers according to their gender :

Distribution	Frequency	Gender
64.2	45	MALE
35.8	25	FEMALE
100	70	TOTAL

From the above table and figure it's clear that the number of male teachers is greater than the number of female teachers (45) with percentage (64.2%) , and the number of female teacher is (25) with percentage (35.8) .

Figure no(4-2)



Table(4-11)

Percentage	Frequency	Years of Experience
35.7	25	to5
42.9	30	10from 6 to
14.3	10	15from 11 to
7.1	5	15more than
100	70	Total

From the above table and figure it's clear that most of the teachers have years of experience from 6 to 10 the number of those amounted to was 30 with percentage (42.9%). The number of teachers who have years of experience distribution from 1 to 5 years were 25 with percentage 35.7

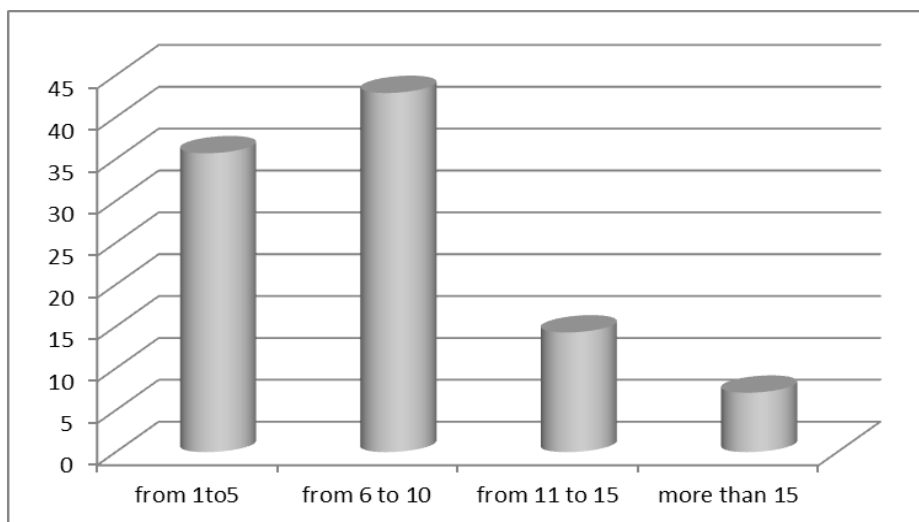


Figure no(4-3)

2.2 Proper Analysis of the Questionnaire

Section one: Media Reporters in order to:

Statement No (1): *seek explanation for events* .

Table (4-12) The Frequency Distribution for the Respondent's Answers of variable No (1)

Table(4-12)

Percent%	Frequency	Valid
25.0	11	strongly agree
47.5	17	Agree
5.0	3	Neutral
20.0	8	Disagree
2.5	1	strongly disagree
100.0	40	Total

It is clear from the above table No. (1) and figure No (6) that there are (11) persons in the study's sample with percentage (25.0%) strongly agreed with " seek explanation for events are fully aware of the objectives of their duty and the ". There are (19) persons with percentage (47.5%) agreed with that, and (2) persons with percentage (5.0%) were not sure that, and (8) persons with percentage (20.0%) disagreed (1) persons with 2.5% are strongly disagreed.

This reflects that the duty of reporters is essentially seeking information and explanation for the events they were destined to be involved in. Sometimes for cultural and linguistic barriers, reporters were incredibly hurdled to perform their duties with professional and clarity as required.

Statement No. (2): elicit information from sources.

Table No (13) The Frequency Distribution for the Respondent's Answers of variable No. (2)

Table (4-13)

%Percent	Frequency	Valid
52.5	21	strongly agree
32.5	13	Agree
7.5	3	Neutral
5.0	2	Disagree
2.5	1	strongly disagree
100.0	40	Total

Percent%	Frequency	Valid
17.5	7	strongly agree
62.5	25	Agree
7.5	3	Neutral
10.0	4	disagree
2.5	1	strongly disagree
100.0	40	Total

It is clear from the above table No.(13) and figure No (7) that there are (7) persons in the study's sample with percentage (17.5%) strongly agreed with " elicit information from sources ". There are (25) persons with percentage (62.5%) agreed with that and (3) persons with percentage (7.5%) were not sure and (4) persons with percentage (2.5%) disagreed and (1) persons with 2.5% are strongly disagreed.

Seeking information constitutes a major concern for journalists in war zones to give credence and strength to their reports. Journalists working for trustworthy channels or newspapers or magazines are greatly concerned with the reliability of the sources of their news as this will considerably affect their career

or professionalism. This in turn sheds light of credibility over their place of work and increases or elevates its ranking.

Statement No. (3): confirm information they have gathered.

Table No (14) The Frequency Distribution for the Respondent’s Answers of variable No. (3)

Table(4-14)

%Percent	Frequency	Valid
47.5	19	strongly agree
37.5	15	Agree
5.0	2	Neutral
7.5	3	Disagree
2.5	1	strongly disagree
100.0	40	Total

It is clear from the above table No.(14) and figure No (8) that there are (19) persons in the study's sample with percentage (47.5%) strongly agreed with the statement confirm information they have gathered There are (15) persons with percentage (37.5%) agreed with that, and (2) persons with

Table(4-15)

percentage (5%) were not sure that, and (3) persons with percentage (7.5%) disagreed and (1) persons with 2.5% are strongly disagreed.

Confirming information is undoubtedly is as important as gathering information. If any news item went without clarification and credence it is likely to affect the standard of the magazine or channels and hence lose credibility or sincerity. The table and figure reflect this state of affair quite evidently.

Section two:

When collecting data for their reports, media reporters should:

Statement No. (4) Observe the social distance between them and their sources. Table No (15) The Frequency Distribution for the Respondent’s Answers of variable No. (4)

It is clear from the above table No (4).and figure No (9) that there are (21) persons in the study's sample with percentage (52.5%) strongly agreed with " Observe the social distance between them and their sources ." . There are (13) persons with percentage (32.5%) agreed with, and (3) persons with percentage (7.5%) were not sure ,and (2) persons with percentage (5%) disagreed and (1) persons with 2.5% are strongly disagreed.

Statement No. (5) Have a detailed profile of the source they deal with

Table No (16) The Frequency Distribution for the Respondent’s Answers of variable No. (5)

Table(4-16)

%Percent	Frequency	Valid
32.5	13	strongly agree
32.5	13	Agree
20.0	8	Neutral
7.5	3	Disagree
7.5	3	strongly disagree
100.0	40	Total

It is clear from the above table No.(16) and figure No (10) that there are (13) persons in the study's sample with percentage (32.5%) strongly agreed with *Have a detailed profile of the*

source they deal with ". There are (13) persons with percentage (32.5%) agreed with that, and (8) persons with percentage (20%) were not sure that, and (3) persons with percentage (7.5%) disagreed and (3) persons with 7.5% are strongly disagreed.

Having detailed profile of their sources is as equally well important to journalists as any of the preceding steps of news gathering, seeking and confirming. Veteran journalists are well aware of the importance of the value of the profile for their news items. The table and the figure reflect this fact quite noticeably.

Statement No. (6) *read the situation from as many different angles as possible*

Table No (17) (The Frequency Distribution for the Respondent's Answers of variable No(6) .

Table (4-17)

%Percent	Frequency	Valid
12.5	5	strongly agree
52.5	21	Agree
7.5	3	Neutral
25.0	10	Disagree
2.5	1	strongly disagree
100.0	40	Total

It is clear from the above table No.(17) and figure No (11) that there are (5) persons in the study's sample with percentage (12.5%) strongly agreed with "*read the situation from many different angles as possible.*". There are (21) persons with percentage (52.5%) agreed with that, and (3) persons with percentage (7.5%) were not sure that, and (10) persons with percentage (25%) disagreed and (1) persons with 2.5% are strongly disagreed.

Journalists who are well informed of their profession would not view news items from only one angle but would consider and reconsider the item from multiple views, readings and opinions.

familiar with the key players in the area of be (7) .Statement No conflict

Table No (1 (8The Frequency Distribution for the Respondent's Answers of variable No(7) .

Table (4-18)

%Percent	Frequency	Valid
32.5	13	strongly agree
50.0	20	Agree
5.0	2	Neutral
5.0	2	Disagree
7.5	3	strongly disagree
100	40	Total

It is clear from the above table No.(18) and figure No (12) that there are (13) persons in the study's sample with percentage (32.5%) strongly agreed with (be familiar with the key players in the area of conflict ". There are (20) persons with percentage (50.0%) agreed with that, and (2) persons with percentage (5.0%) were not sure that, and (2) persons with percentage (5%) disagreed and (3) persons with 7.5% are strongly disagreed.

To be familiar with the key players in the conflict area is of very great significance to reporters. This helps accessibility to information which may prove unobtainable. This is also bound to give a great degree of credence to reporting.

Statement No (8) .Possess a high level of negotiation skills

Table No (1 (9The Frequency Distribution for the Respondent’s Answers of variable No(8) .

Table(4-19)

%Percent	Frequency	Valid
32.5	13	strongly agree
57.5	23	Agree
0	0	Neutral
5.0	2	Disagree
5.0	2	strongly disagree
100.0	40	Total

It is clear from the above table No (19).and figure No (13) that there are (13) persons in the study's sample with percentage (32.5%) strongly agreed with“ *Possess a high level of negotiation skills .*” There are (23) persons with percentage (57.5%) agreed with that, and (0 (persons with percentage (0.0%) were not sure that, and (2) persons with percentage (5%) disagreed and (2) persons with 5% are strongly disagreed.

Successful journalists usually possess high level of negotiation skills as this immensely required for drawing more confirmed and fresh information. Sometimes new information or even ways of thinking and trend of thoughts appear while making a dialogue with a key player.

Section three

In order to express themselves clearly and to understand the discourse of conflict areas, media reporters should

Statement No. (9) *Master the skill of crafting queries in such a way that enables them to manipulate their sources*

The Frequency Distribution for the Respondent’s Answers of variable No(9) .

Table(4-20)

%Percent	Frequency	Valid
45.0	18	strongly agree
45.0	18	Agree
0	0	Neutral
2.5	1	Disagree
7.5	3	strongly disagree
100.0	40	Total

It is clear from the above table No.(20) and figure No (14) that there are (18) persons in the study's sample with percentage (45.0%) strongly agreed with “Master the skill of crafting queries in such a way that enables them to manipulate their sources . ”. There are (18) persons with percentage (45.0%) agreed with that, and (0) persons with percentage (0.0%) were not sure that, and (1) persons with percentage (2.5%) disagreed. and (3) persons with 7.5% are strongly disagreed.

Statement No. (10) *Be aware of the language resources that they can employ in order to convey their message without irritating their sources*

The Frequency Distribution for the Respondent’s Answers of variable No(10)

Table(4-21)

%Percent	Frequency	Valid
25.0	10	strongly agree
50.0	20	Agree
15.0	6	Neutral
7.5	3	Disagree
2.5	1	strongly disagree
100.0	40	Total

It is clear from the above table(4-21) and figure No (15) that there are (10) persons in the study's sample with percentage (25.0%) strongly agreed with “*Be aware of the language resources that they can employ in order to convey their message without irritating their sources* ”. There are (20) persons with percentage (50.0%) agreed with that, and (6) persons with percentage (15.0%) were not sure that, and (3) persons with percentage (7.5%) disagreed and (1) persons with 2.5% are strongly disagreed.

Good knowledge of language and culture can help reporters convey their messages without irritating their sources. Negotiations carried out in peaceful and friendly atmosphere is likely to be successful and goal-realizing one. On the other hand, infuriating one's sources can have a drastically counterproductive effect.

Statement No. (11) *Avoid vagueness and circumlocution when formulating their questions to their sources*

The Frequency Distribution for the Respondent’s Answers of variable No(11) .

Table(4-22)

Percent%	Frequency	Valid
40.0	16	strongly agree
42.5	17	Agree
15.0	6	Neutral
2.5	1	Disagree
0	0	strongly disagree
100.0	40	Total

It is clear from the above table No.(22) and figure No (16) that there are (16) persons in the study's sample with percentage (40.0%) strongly agreed with (Avoid vagueness and circumlocution when formulating their questions to their sources ". There are (17) persons with percentage (42.5%) agreed with that, and (6) persons with percentage (15.0%) were not sure that, and (1) persons with percentage (2.5%) disagreed and (0) persons with 0.0% are strongly disagreed.

Good journalists and reporters are aware of the fact that formulating their queries in easy and straightforward language is likely to generate clear and transparent answers from their resources. Resorting to circumlocution and in an indirect manner can have the effect of destroying the dialogue and hence hurdle communication.

Statement No. (12) *Be very skillful in employing 'constructive ambiguity' in order to obtain as much information as possible from their sources*

The Frequency Distribution for the Respondent’s Answers of variable No(12)

Table(4-23)

%Percent	Frequency	Valid
25.0	10	strongly agree
65.0	26	Agree
5.0	2	Neutral
0	0	Disagree
5.0	2	strongly disagree
100.0	40	Total

It is clear from the above table (12) and figure No (17) that there are (10) persons in the study's sample with percentage (25.0%) strongly agreed with “Be very skillful in employing

'constructive ambiguity' in order to obtain as much information as possible from their sources. . ". There are (26) persons with percentage (65.0%) agreed with that, and (2) persons with percentage (5.0%) were not sure that, and (0) persons with percentage (0.0%) disagreed and (1) persons with 2.5% are strongly disagreed.

Constructive ambiguity is a term generally credited to Henry Kissinger, said to be the foremost exponent of the negotiating tactic it designates. It refers to the deliberate use of ambiguous language on a sensitive issue in order to advance some political purpose. Constructive ambiguity is often disparaged as fudging.

However, constructive ambiguity carefully applied can turn out to be very productive in generating quite unexpected information.

Statement No. (13) *Use the conventional jargon used in the register of conflict*

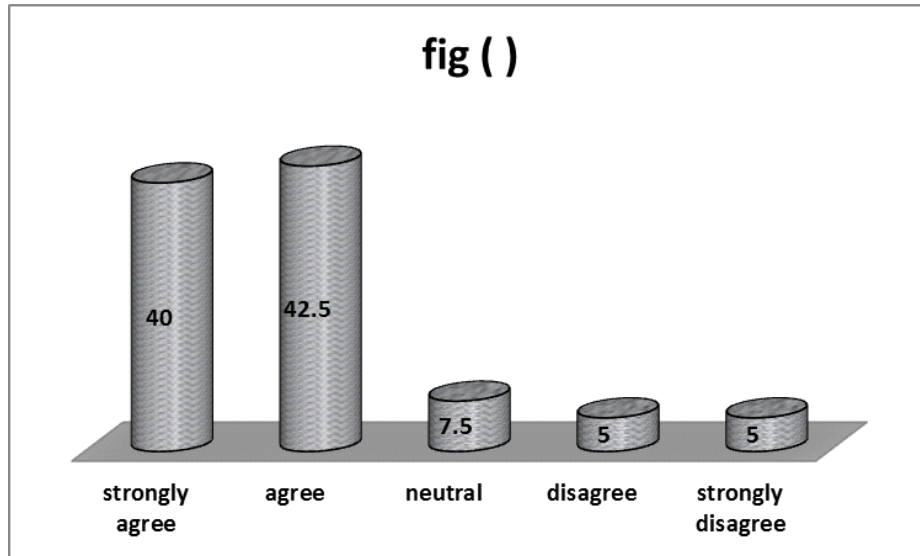
Table(4-24)The Frequency Distribution for the Respondent’s Answers of variable No(13)

%Percent	Frequency	Valid
40.0	16	strongly agree
42.5	17	Agree
7.5	3	Neutral
5.0	2	Disagree
5.0	2	strongly disagree
100.0	40	Total

It is clear from the above table No (4-24) and figure No (18) that there are (16) persons in the study's sample with percentage (40.0%) strongly agreed with “Use the conventional jargon used in the register of conflict ”. There are (17) persons with percentage (42.5%) agreed with that, and (3) persons with percentage (7.5%) were not sure that, and (2) persons with

percentage (5.0%) disagreed and (2) persons with 5% are strongly disagreed.

Figure no(4-4)



Applying traditionally used language at conflict areas can save time and help provide clear information. Use of twisted language in a circulatory way can be unhelpful.

Statement No. (13) *keep abreast of the neologisms (new words or expressions or new meanings of old words) in conflict, diplomacy and politics.*

Table(4-25) The Frequency Distribution for the Respondent's Answers of variable No(14)

Percent	Frequency	Valid
72.5	29	strongly agree
10.0	4	Agree
2.5	1	Neutral
12.5	5	Disagree

2.5	1	strongly disagree
100.0	40	Total

It is clear from the above table (4-25) and figure No (19) that there are (29) persons in the study's sample with percentage (72.5%) strongly agreed with " keep abreast of the neologisms (new words or expressions or new meanings of old words) in conflict, diplomacy and politics ". There are (4) persons with percentage (10.0%) agreed with that, and (1) persons with percentage (2.5%) were not sure that, and (5) persons with percentage (12.5%) disagreed and (1) persons with 2.5% are strongly disagreed.

Statement No (15) Be able to build up and develop a repertoire of the buzzwords in the media

Table (4-26) The Frequency Distribution for the Respondent's Answers of variable No(16)

Cumulative Percent	Valid Percent	Percent	Frequency	Valid
45.0	45.0	45.0	18	strongly agree
82.5	37.5	37.5	15	Agree
85.0	2.5	2.5	1	Neutral
95.0	10.0	10.0	4	Disagree
100.0	5.0	5.0	2	strongly disagree
	100.0	100.0	40	Total

It is clear from the above table(4-26) and figure No (19) that there are (18) persons in the study's sample with percentage (45.0%) strongly agreed with " Be able to build up and develop a repertoire of the buzzwords in the media ". There are (15) persons with percentage (37.5%) agreed with that, and (1) persons with percentage (2.5%) were not sure that, and (4)

persons with percentage (10.0%) disagreed. And (2) persons with 5% are strongly disagreed.

Statement No. (16) *Have full command of the glossaries used by national, regional and international institutions and organizations*

Table (4-27) The Frequency Distribution for the Respondent's Answers of variable No(16)

Cumulative Percent	Valid Percent	Percent	Frequency	Valid
40.0	40.0	40.0	16	strongly agree
82.5	42.5	42.5	17	agree
85.0	2.5	2.5	1	neutral
97.5	12.5	12.5	5	disagree
100.0	2.5	2.5	1	strongly disagree
	100.0	100.0	40	Total

It is clear from the above table (4-27) and figure No (20) that there are (16) persons in the study's sample with percentage (40.0%) strongly agreed with " Have full command of the glossaries used by national, regional and international institutions and organizations "There are (17) persons with percentage (42.5%) agreed with that, and (1) persons with percentage (2.5%) were not sure that, and (5) persons with percentage (12.5%) disagreed. And (1) persons with 2.5% are strongly disagreed.

Having excellent command of the glossaries used by national, regional and international institutions is prerequisite for anyone seeking to engage into journalism.

Statement No. (17) *Be well versed in the most recent concepts and practices in international politics and diplomacy*

Table (4-28) The Frequency Distribution for the Respondent's Answers of variable No (17)

Cumulative Percent	Valid Percent	Percent	Frequency	Valid
65.0	65.0	65.0	26	strongly agree
85.0	20.0	20.0	8	Neutral
95.0	10.0	10.0	4	Disagree
100.0	5.0	5.0	2	strongly disagree
	100.0	100.0	40	Total

It is clear from the above table (4-28) and figure No (17) that there are (26) persons in the study's sample with percentage (65.0%) strongly agreed with . "Be well versed in the most recent concepts and practices in international politics and diplomacy . There are (4) persons with percentage (20.0%) agreed with that and (2) persons with percentage (10.0%) were not sure that, and (0) persons with percentage (0.0%) disagreed. And (5) persons with 5% are strongly disagreed.

Statement No. (18) *Be sensitive to the culture of their resources*

Table (4-29) The Frequency Distribution for the Respondent's Answers of variable No (18)

Cumulative Percent	Valid Percent	Percent	Frequency	Valid
57.5	57.5	57.5	23	strongly agree
65.0	7.5	7.5	3	agree
77.5	12.5	12.5	5	neutral
97.5	20.0	20.0	8	disagree
100.0	2.5	2.5	1	strongly disagree
	100.0	100.0	40	Total

from the above table(4-29)and figure No (19) It is clear that there are (23) persons in the study's sample with percentage (57.5%) strongly agreed with " Be sensitive to the culture of their resources ." There are (3) persons with percentage (7.5%) agreed with that, and (5 (persons with percentage (12.5%) were not sure that, and (8) persons with percentage (20.0%) disagreed. And (1) persons with 2.5% are strongly disagreed.

Statement No. (19) *Able to adjust the language of their questions to the demands of the immediate situation*

Table (4-30) The Frequency Distribution for the Respondent's Answers of variable No. (19(

Cumulative Percent	Valid Percent	Percent	Frequency	Valid
60.0	60.0	60.0	24	strongly agree
72.5	12.5	12.5	5	Agree
75.0	2.5	2.5	1	Neutral
95.0	20.0	20.0	8	Disagree
100.0	5.0	5.0	2	strongly disagree
	100.0	100.0	40	Total

from the above table (4-30) and figure No (20) It is clear that there are (24) persons in the study's sample with percentage (60.0%) strongly agreed with . " Able to adjust the language of their questions to the demands of the immediate situation ."

There are (5) persons with percentage (12.5%) agreed with that, and (1) (persons with percentage (2.5%) were not sure that, and (8) persons with percentage (20.0%) disagreed. And (2) persons with 5% are strongly disagreed.

Statement No. (20) *Read the body language of their resources*

Table(4-31) Frequency Distribution for the Respondent's Answers

Cumulative Percent	Valid Percent	Percent	Frequency	Valid
32.5	32.5	32.5	13	strongly agree
72.5	40.0	40.0	16	agree
75.0	2.5	2.5	1	neutral
97.5	22.5	22.5	9	disagree
100.0	2.5	2.5	1	strongly disagree
	100.0	100.0	40	Total

from the above table (4-31) and figure No (21) It is clear that there are (13) persons in the study's sample with percentage

(32.5%) strongly agreed with " *Read the body language of their resources* . ". There are (16) persons with percentage (40.0%) agreed with that, and (1) persons with percentage (2.5%) were not sure that, and (9) persons with percentage (22.5%) disagreed. And (1) persons with 2.5% are strongly disagreed.

3. Confirmation of Hypotheses

The present study has three hypotheses which were confirmed across the analysis. These are:

(i) MA students of translation cannot deal effectively with the type of vocabulary relating to conflicts.

(ii) Journalistic jargon poses certain hurdles for the MA students of translation.

(iii) The hurdles of journalistic jargon can be dealt with successfully

The questionnaire analysis has dealt with a greater part of the hypotheses mostly on the part of the reporters at the hot zones and how they manage to cope with the situation in order to fill their reports.

4. Summary

This chapter has dealt with a number of issues foremost of which is the analysis of the Discourse Completion Test which

students have done before embarking on any experimental tasks or groupings. The a questionnaire for the teachers has also been analyzed to cater mostly for the verification of the hypotheses.

CHAPTER FIVE

MAIN FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Suggestions for Further Studies

Introduction

This chapter provides a summary of the study, conclusions, recommendations and suggestions for further studies.

5.1 Main Findings

This study attempts to address a number of issues including most significantly the issue of students of translation struggle to translate news words filled by reporters working at war zones. Actually, this research sets out to explore the translation of journalistic jargon in the realm of conflicts with the aim of providing MA students of translation with appropriate vocabulary as relating to this specific jargon. Journalistic jargon is a specialized shared vocabulary adopted by journalists. Other issues include the rhetoric news headlines in English differ from that in Arabic and how national, political, cultural, religious, and socio-ideological views of the source and target audience affect not only the function of press headlines but also their content and even length.

The problems and difficulties of the aforesaid usage arises during achieving the process of translation, particularly when rendering English headlines and news into Arabic language, In dealing with journalistic jargon definition of translation and style must be considered: Translation is studied as a linguistic phenomenon; a process of meaning transfer via linguistic trans-coding; this process has recently received some attention in the news with controversies over the translation of the Bin Laden tapes by CNN, Aljazeera and other outfits.

Moreover, Complications arise as a result of reporters who are not well informed of the culture and language of the people at war zones, not mention the military jargon so specifically applied by warriors at these fronts. So all in all, the present study is in cross-cultural understanding first and ability to cope with situations where one is destined to be exposed to for the first time. The study sets out to achieve a certain set of well-defined objectives: that certain journalistic jargon is used in conflict

areas with special meaning which sometimes can be problematic at rendering, and that MA students of translation experience special difficulty when set about translating terms relating to conflict, and that finally exploring journalistic jargon in particular with the aim of identifying the hurdles it constitutes for the students of translation and would-be translators.

Conclusions:

It is clear that the research problem is linked with finding solutions to the hurdles in connection with the set objectives. To achieve the set objectives, the study adopted a mixed-methods approach: the descriptive analytical and experimental methods. This allowed the research instruments to complement each other. Hence, an experiment, questionnaires, was used to address the research questions and objectives. The (SPSS) program version 24 was used for data analysis.

Certain questions were posed as manifested in the following:

- (i) To what extent can MA students of translation deal effectively with the type of vocabulary relating to conflicts?
- (ii) What kind of hurdles does journalistic style pose to MA students of translation?
- (iii) To what extents are the hurdles of journalistic jargon can be dealt with successfully?

The same questions were transformed into hypothetical questions to include the following:

- (i) MA students of translation cannot deal effectively with the type of vocabulary relating to conflicts.**
- (ii) Journalistic jargon poses certain hurdles for the MA students of translation.**
- (iii) The hurdles of journalistic jargon can be dealt with successfully.**

In order to answer the questions of the study and verify hypotheses, a number of research tools were adopted. Discourse Completion Test was adopted where students were presented with a text and asked to complete

question based on their understanding of the said text. A questionnaire was also used namely with the tutors to help verify the hypotheses of the study. Another multiple choice discourse completion test was also used to further ascertain the validity of the experiment and the effectiveness of the tools of the investigation. The statistical packages of social sciences (SPSS) program version 20 was used for data analysis.

As many as 70 undergraduate students have participated in the study experiment, 50 teachers completed the questionnaires. The study found out that there are certain factors which can be used to maximize classroom interaction and hence improves the students' translation skills. The study further found that in the case of translation intensive practice is sole solution.

5.2 Recommendations

As regards the findings arrived at in this study, the following recommendations are formulated and forwarded:

1. Translation lecturers should understand how stressful is the translation of reports filled at the war zones as they may appear as news headlines or else.
2. Lecturers should provide students with adequate glossaries that are specialized in military language or jargon at war areas.
3. A good dose of military culture in general is required for such students to help narrow the gap for effective rendering.
4. A good syllabus of military jargon should be made accessible to students as well as good online glossaries and dictionaries.
5. Excessive practice on military jargon is required.

5.3 Suggestions for Further Studies

The following suggestions are forwarded by the present study:

1. A large scale study is required to substantiate the current one and hence assures the effectiveness of using military jargon glosses.
2. Encouraging the use of military electronic glosses and dictionaries to enhance the chance of good rendering in this highly problematic areas

3. In the current study glossaries and dictionaries are mainly viewed as effective tools for translation. They can be used with other skills particularly academic writing.
4. Students should be given assignments in listening to radio and TV stations and report military language
5. PowerPoint Presentations on military jargons are highly welcome and encouraged.

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