



UNIVERSITATEA DE STAT DIN MOLDOVA

Facultatea de Litere

**Departamentul Traducere, Interpretare
și Lingvistică Aplicată**

Ina SÎTNIC, Olesea BODEAN-VOZIAN

**INTRODUCTION INTO
TRANSLATION STUDIES**

Note de curs

*Aprobat de Consiliul
Calității al USM*

CHIȘINĂU, 2020
CEP USM

CZU 81'25(075.8)

S 61

*Recomandat de Departamentul Traducere,
Interpretare și Lingvistică Aplicată și de Facultatea de Litere*

Recenzenți: *Gabriela ȘAGANEAN, dr., conf. univ.*

Silviana CUPCIC, asist. univ.

Notele de curs sunt elaborate pentru studenții anului I, Licență care își fac studiile în cadrul Departamentului Traducere, Interpretare și Lingvistică Aplicată. Acestea sunt redactate conform cerințelor curriculare universitare pentru disciplina *Introducere în traductologie* și sunt formulate în corespundere cu obiectivele cursului: dobândirea cunoștințelor generale despre noțiuni și aspecte teoretice fundamentale discutate la curs, aplicarea în practica traducerii a subiectelor teoretice, formarea și dezvoltarea spiritului critic referitor la unele subiecte teoretice discutate la curs și seminar.

Lucrarea cuprinde o varietate de aspecte teoretice și practice, opinii ale diverșilor cercetători despre procesul și produsul traducerii și al interpretării. Notele de curs își propun să le ofere studenților o privire de ansamblu asupra evoluției traductologiei și a diferitelor teorii și abordări în traducere. Lucrarea este structurată în zece unități tematice, urmate de exerciții care vizează diverse fenomene lingvistice și de traducere și care sunt formulate pe nivelurile comprehensiune, aplicare și integrare. Aceasta conține și studii de caz care, împreună cu exercițiile propuse, au drept scop formarea și consolidarea competențelor profesionale ale studenților.

DESCRIEREA CIP A CAMEREI NAȚIONALE A CĂRȚII

Sîtnic, Ina.

Introduction into Translation Studies : Note de curs / Ina Sîtnic, Olesea Bodean-Vozian ; Univ. de Stat din Moldova, Fac. de Litere, Dep. Trad., Interpretare și Lingvistică Aplicată. – Chișinău : CEP USM, 2020. – 141 p.

Referințe bibliogr.: p. 137-140 (58 tit.). – 50 ex.

ISBN 978-9975-149-85-3.

81'25(075.8)

S 61

© Ina Sîtnic, Olesea Bodean-Vozian, 2020

© CEP USM, 2020

ISBN 978-9975-149-85-3

TABLE OF CONTENTS

INTRODUCTION	5
COURSE LOGISTICS	7
UNIT I. INTRODUCTION INTO TRANSLATION STUDIES. TRANSLATION VS INTERPRETATION	8
UNIT II. TRANSLATION TYPOLOGY. TRANSLATION STAGES	17
UNIT III. TRANSLATION UNITS. SEGMENTATION PROCEDURES	34
UNIT IV. A DIACHRONIC ANALYSIS OF TRANSLATION THEORIES.....	44
UNIT V. CONTEXT AND TYPES OF CONTEXT	56
UNIT VI. EQUIVALENCE IN TRANSLATION.....	66
UNIT VII. TRANSLATION METHODS AND TECHNIQUES ...	78
UNIT VIII. LANGUAGE INTERFERENCE AND FALSE FRIENDS	92
UNIT IX. LEXICAL, GRAMMATICAL AND SYNTACTIC TRANSLATION DIFFICULTIES	104
UNIT X. TRANSLATION QUALITY ASSESSMENT CRITERIA. QUALITY MANAGEMENT AND CONTROL	120
ADDENDUM	132
VIDEOS	132
CASE STUDIES.....	132
TOPICS FOR REPORTS	135
REFERENCES	137

INTRODUCTION

This course book is intended for first-year students studying Translation and Interpretation. It covers a wide range of issues and opinions in translation studies and aims at providing the students with an overview of the evolution of translation studies, different translation theories and various approaches to translating.

However, this course book does not only focus on translation theory, but also teaches students how to apply various methods and approaches to different texts. During this course, students will have the opportunity to discuss many themes that are important to both theory and practice: the translator's identity and its changing historical role, the translator's visibility, translation types and strategies, translator's tools and, some aspects related to ethics and professional translation quality.

Some translators claim that they do not need to know anything about translation studies or theories, just as one does not need to know anything about an engine to be able to drive a car. On the other hand, one might argue that if translators are more aware of the different choices they have when dealing with a variety of texts and speeches – they will be able to produce a better translation.

Quite often, upon enrolling at the university, many students at the Department ask one question: is translation theory relevant for future translators or interpreters? Throughout the years, we have noticed that usually, students think there will be only some weeks of theory, they will take up whatever needed to be admitted and get through exams and then, once passed, they start forgetting everything they learnt, because they assume they would learn by doing, i.e. while engaged in a job. Therefore, our intention is to guide the future translators and interpreters through this course, providing them with the necessary knowledge and tools, actively engaging them in the process of critical thinking and raising their awareness on the need and importance of the symbiosis between theory and practice of translation based on scientific evidence, our own experience and current labour market requirements and trends.

The times when teachers, professors and researchers, looked down on translators/interpreters because they were the ones in possession of knowledge and information are gone. The translation theory, as a subject, has tried to get rid of such an approach. Nowadays, the theorists shall be more empirical, more descriptive of what translators and interpreters do, considering that the job of a translator/interpreter is a very complex and challenging one.

Some theory is, indeed, pertinent and beneficial for those who intend to become interpreters or translators, since one cannot jump from university into a translation bureau or into a booth to perform an activity that entails 10% talent and 90% of hard, lifelong work.

Thus, this theoretical course book aims at providing the students, future professionals, with a series of conceptual tools. Experienced translators/interpreters use them routinely, without thinking of them, almost intuitively, although it is during university days that they study them and become aware of how to use them correctly and consciously.

The theory does not end up with the reading of this course book, the graduation of the present course or the university. Translators and interpreters are “doomed” to learn throughout their entire life. Otherwise, they lose their knowledge and their skills and end up with a poor performance or leave the profession. Hence, there are various Universities, Associations, Unions that provide continuing education worldwide, including in the Republic of Moldova, because that is required by the legal framework regulating this domain. Graduates can apply for traditional, as well as online (distance learning) courses. In the Republic of Moldova, for instance, that is a requirement of the Ministry of Justice, for authorized interpreters/translators working with law enforcement bodies and of the Association of Professional Translators for freelancers.

The authors are grateful to the reviewers, Şaganean Gabriela and Cupcic Silviana, for their careful reading and valuable recommendations that helped us to have an enhanced course book, as well as to the wonderful student that volunteered to customise our book cover – Nicoleta Curnic.

COURSE LOGISTICS

Course objectives:

To provide knowledge on the most relevant translation theories.
To develop the ability to critically think and discuss about the applied translation studies.
To practice the methods and techniques tackled during the course.

Timetable:

Second semester of the 1st year.

Minimum language requirements:

B2 level (CEFR).

Mode of instruction:

Lectures and seminars.

Language of instruction:

English.

Course load:

The course load of this course is 180 hours:
30 hours of lectures, 60 hours of seminars and 90 hours of individual work.

Attendance:

Attendance is compulsory. Unauthorised absences during the seminars mean that students will not be able to take the exam.

Assessment method:

Midterm tests, essays, reports and final examination.

UNIT I. INTRODUCTION INTO TRANSLATION STUDIES. TRANSLATION VS INTERPRETATION

Learning objectives:

1. Define the notion of “Translation Studies”;
2. Determine the object of study and the objectives of Translation Studies;
3. Determine the fundamental problems of Translation Studies;
4. Assess the interdisciplinary nature of Translation Studies;
5. Describe the socio-cultural nature of translation;
6. Bring arguments to support different views on the process and product of translation and interpretation.

CORE THEORY

We all are aware that people have translated for thousands of years and that nowadays half the planet is busy translating what the other half says. Today’s times are called many names; still, the best name could be, the “century of translation”: never before in the course of human history, have so many translated the words of so many (M. Garcia-Landa, 2000).

The concept “**translator**” emerged in the 2nd century BC, while the first mentioning of the word “**interpretation**” dates back to 1160 and “Dragoman” was the first word to denote an interpreter. A dragoman was an interpreter, translator, and official guide between Turkish, Arabic, and Persian-speaking countries and the political entities of the Middle East and European embassies, consulates, vice-consulates and trading posts. A dragoman had to have knowledge of Arabic, Persian, Turkish, and European languages. During the Middle Ages, the word entered the European languages, including Middle English (as *dragoman*).

Translation is an umbrella term, denoting both the written translation and the oral translation (interpretation). This general term encompasses three professions: that of an interpreter, literary translator and

technical translator. Despite its long history, the profession we know today, started developing only in the second half of the 20th century.

To many people, translation and interpretation represent a single concept and they don't realise the differences between them. Consequently, defining translation is a challenging task, because the concept can be regarded from different perspectives and contexts. The simplest definition is that translation refers to a process by which the meaning of a text or message is carried out from one language to another.

Different languages give different ways to look at the world, but translation provides us the opportunity to explore and interact with these different views of the world. Translation aims at allowing effective communication to take place by overcoming potential obstacles of a linguistic, symbolic, or physical nature: the language barrier, ignorance of a code system (pictograms) or physical impairments such as blindness or deafness (which is where sign language interpreting comes in because, contrary to popular belief, sign languages differ from one country to the next and have to be 'translated') and is vital for the dissemination of goods, products, services, concepts, ideas, values, etc.

Being a complex phenomenon dealing with languages and an operation performed on languages, it must be given a thorough consideration from the linguistic point of view. The definitions of the notion of translation that are often found in dictionaries typically provide a very narrow sense. For instance, according to "Concise Oxford English Dictionary" (2008) 'to translate' is to express the sense of words or texts in another language. In his "Introducing Translation Studies" (2001), and in the introduction to "The Routledge Companion to Translation Studies" (2009), Jeremy Munday acknowledges several meanings of the term 'translation'. It can refer to a **general subject field**, a **product** (the text that has been translated) or a **process** (the act of producing the translation, otherwise known as translating).

There are many more different and rather controversial definitions of translation suggested by the representatives of different schools of linguistics and translation. According to Noam Chomsky and Otto Kade, "translation is the substitution of elements or structures of one language by elements or structures of another language", while Eugene

Nida and Charles Russel Taber(1969) view translation process as “rendering in the TL of the closest equivalent of the initial message from the point of view of its meaning and style.” As stated by John Cunnison Catford “translation is an operation performed on languages: a process of substituting a text in one language for a text in another” (1965).

Regarding the interpretation, Robin Setton and Andrew Dawrant (p. xxi, p. 3) defined it as “an oral form of translation, a service that lets people communicate across language barriers, a social, interactive, contextualized activity performed in very specific conditions and environments.” Franz Pöchhacker (2004, p. 13) defines interpreting as “a form of translation in which a first and final rendition in another language is produced on the basis of a one-time presentation in a SL.” The *Standard Guide for Language Interpretation Services* of the American Society for Testing and Materials defines interpretation from the perspective of its mediating function: it is “the process of understanding and analysing a spoken or signed message and re-expressing that message faithfully, accurately and objectively in another language, taking the cultural and social context into account.”

The process of translation between two different languages involves a translator changing an original or source written text or speech (ST/S) in an original or source verbal language (SL) into a written target text or speech (TT/S) in a different, target verbal language (TL). Additionally, this process involves other players:

- the initiator: the company or individual who needs the translation (or interpretation);
- the commissioner: the individual who contacts the translator.
- the ST producer: the individual within the company who writes the ST (the speech, the discourse);
- the TT user: the person who uses the TT, for example as teaching material or as literature (the one who sells books) or the public;
- the TT receiver: the final recipient of the TT, for example the students or the clients reading the translated literature.

These players have their own specific primary and secondary goals. In the case of the professional translator or interpreter, the likely goals

are primarily to earn money, and secondarily – to fulfil the contract and to process the text or message. It is not mandatory for a translator to be an expert in a specific subject area. Extra input of subject-area knowledge would need to come from the ST writer or speaker or through careful research by the translator/interpreter.

Translation represents different things for different groups of people. For those who are not translators, it is primarily a text or a discourse; for people who are from this field, it is primarily an activity (a job). This is a view shared by Anthony Pym (1993), who considers translation as a text from the perspective of the “external knowledge”, and as an activity (aiming at the production of a text) from the perspective of the “internal knowledge”. A translator thinks and talks about translation from inside the process, knowing how it’s done, possessing a practical real-world sense of the problems involved, some solutions to those problems, and the limitations on those solutions (the translator knows, for example, that no translation will ever be a perfectly reliable guide to the original). Experienced translators and interpreters are fast in performing their tasks because they have translated so much that it often seems as if their “brain” isn’t doing the translating/interpreting, but their fingers or mouths are. When they carry out a written translation, they recognize familiar source-language structures and they barely pause before their fingers are racing across the keyboard, rendering them into well-worn target-language structural equivalents, fitted with lexical items that seem to come to them automatically, without conscious thought or logical analysis. In simultaneous translation, for instance, interpreters don’t seem to be thinking at all – “who”, the astonished observer wonders, “could possibly think that fast? No, it is impossible; the words must be coming to the interpreter from somewhere else, some subliminal or even mystical part of the brain that ordinary people lack...” (D. Robinson, 2007). A non-translator (especially a monolingual reader in the TL who directly or indirectly pays for the translation – a client, a book-buyer or a participant in a conference) thinks and talks about translation from outside the process, rarely knowing how it’s performed, but being aware of well-done translations when they see or listen to them.

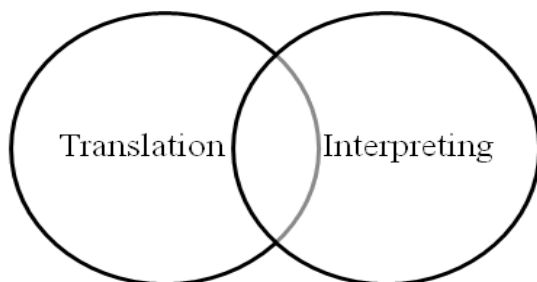
The subject matter that regards translation as an object of study (i.e. “Translation Studies”) emerged in the second half of the 20th century and focused on both theoretical and applied aspects of translation. The field of Translation Studies was thoroughly defined by James Holmes (1975) in the article entitled “The Name and Nature of Translation Studies” in which the author distinguishes two large branches: *theoretical translation studies* and *applied translation studies*. The former describes the translation phenomena, the definition of explanatory principles and the theorization of translation practices, while the latter aims at emphasizing the principles and the theories for the education of future translators, the development of translation tools and translation criticism. James Holmes also emphasizes the need to study both the product (the translated text or the interpreted discourse) and the process (the action) of translation. Another author, Susan Bassnett, proposes a descriptive rather than a prescriptive approach to the investigation of the process of translation. She thinks the purpose of the translation theory is “to reach understanding of the processes undertaken in the act of translation and not to provide a set of norms for effecting the perfect translation” (2002, p. 44-45). Therefore, theory of translation must be oriented towards the objective specification of the translator’s steps, stages through which the translator goes as the ST is transformed into the TT. Translation studies had to ‘fight’ in order to find the proper place among other disciplines that contended for its object of study. It was considered as a branch of contrastive linguistics, applied linguistics, textual linguistics, psycholinguistics as well as a form of multilingual or intercultural communication. Translation Studies was approached from multiple angles but none of the perspectives managed to satisfy and exhaust its scope and problems, that is why it evolved towards an autonomous discipline of interdisciplinary nature.

Today, Translation Studies forms an extended field of research with its own questions and concepts adapted to its multi-faceted object. The concepts and methodologies borrowed from other disciplines should not be regarded in contradiction but in complementarity because each aspect, eventually, brings to life a particular aspect of translation. As V.N. Komissarov remarked, the basis of translation theory is linguistics

in the broadest sense of the word with all its new branches, such as psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics, text linguistics, communicative linguistics, studying the language structure and its functioning in speech in their relationship to mind, culture and society.

PRACTICAL EXERCISES

Exercise 1. Complete the diagram below with the words and word-combinations that you associate with the notions of *translation* and *interpretation*. Determine the elements that are specific and common to both notions (embed them in the overlapping part). Use the words and the word-combinations from the diagram to define the notions of *translation* and *interpretation*. Comment on and compare your definitions with the ones suggested by your colleagues.



Exercise 2. Listen to the audio recording of the text below. Engage in active and concentrated listening. Reproduce all the ideas you remembered in English. Translate the text in written form in your mother tongue.

Beneficial Effects of Drinking Champagne

I am going to tell you about my favourite drink. This is champagne. Everybody who knows me, knows that I like champagne. It can be a birthday celebration, a Christmas celebration, perhaps a wedding or just any other day, champagne is always the right thing to drink. And so, I was happy to receive from a friend of mine an article just before

Christmas about the beneficial effects of drinking champagne. Just before Christmas of course it was perfectly timed.

It seems that scientists have found during their research the fact that a few glasses of champagne every day is good for you. Good for your heart, good for your blood circulation. And it cannot be champagne. It can be another variety of sparkling wine such as Cava, Prosecco or Sekt. The effects are the same. “What good news!”, I said to myself. And who carried out this research? It was a team in the United Kingdom, the University of Reading and another team in France. Joint research. The results were published in the British Journal of Nutrition where we learn that two to three glasses a day would have a very beneficial effect on the blood vessels, would help reduce heart disease and all together was a good thing.

Now we knew about red wine. Red wine, everybody knows, has very beneficial effects in small doses, of course because it contains polyphenols. Polyphenols, also, are contained in champagne, because it is a variety of black grape or a few varieties of black grapes that are used to produce champagne. Therefore, the effects are beneficial and if you keep to moderate drinking you are likely to do your heart a great deal of good. May I, therefore, recommend, that anytime is the right time for champagne and that we should all raise our glasses to the production and consumption of this most excellent, wonderful drink – my favourite tippel. Thank you!

(Transcript of “Beneficial effects of drinking champagne”, the audio recording is available on Speech Repository, Interpretation)

Exercise 3. Reflect critically and comment on the following statement made by the English professor of translation Peter Newmark in his *Textbook of Translation*. In your opinion, is translation a science, a skill, an art or a matter of taste?

“Translation has its own excitement, its own interest. A satisfactory translation is always possible, but a good translator is never satisfied with it. It can usually be improved. There is no such thing as a perfect, ideal or correct translation. A translator is always trying to extend his

knowledge and improve his means of expression; he is always pursuing facts and words. He works on four levels: translation is first a science, which entails the knowledge and verification of the facts and the language that describes them—here, what is wrong, mistakes of truth, can be identified; secondly, it is a skill, which calls for appropriate language and acceptable usage; thirdly, an art, which distinguishes good from undistinguished writing and is the creative, the intuitive, sometimes the inspired, level of the translation; lastly, a matter of taste, where argument ceases, preferences are expressed, and the variety of meritorious translations is the reflection of individual differences.” (Peter Newmark, “A Textbook of Translation”, p.6)

Exercise 4. Work in groups and debate on one of the following statements.

“Writers make national literature, while translators make universal literature.” (Jose Saramago)

“It takes more than knowing two languages to be a good translator and interpreter.” (Francois Grosjean)

“There can never be an absolutely final translation.” (Robert M. Grant)

“Translation is that which transforms everything so that nothing changes.” (Günter Grass)

“Words travel worlds. The translators do the driving.” (Anna Rusconi)

“God values the mother tongue, even for people who may know other languages.” (Harriet Hill)

Exercise 5. Based on an individual research, establish the relationship between Translation Studies and Linguistics, Literary studies and other fields.

Selected further reading:

Boase-Beier J. A Critical Introduction to Translation Studies. Continuum International Publishing Group. Part I. 2011.

Gambier Y. Handbook of Translation Studies. Amsterdam/Philadelphia, 2010.

- Gouadec D. Translation as a Profession. John Benjamins Publishing Company, 2007. 409 p.
- Hatim B. Communication Across Cultures. Translation Theory and Contrastive Text Linguistics / Basil Hatim. University of Exeter Press, 2006.
- Lathey G. The Translation of Children's Literature: A Reader. Multilingual Matters LTD. 2006.
- Munday J. Translation as Intervention. Continuum, 2007. 165 p.
- Newmark P. A Textbook of Translation. Prentice Hall. New York. 1988. 292 p.
- Olohan M. Scientific and Technical Translation. Routledge, 2016. 253 p.
- Snell-Hornby M. Translation Studies: An Integrated Approach. John Benjamins Publishing Company, 2006.
- Steiner G. After Babel. Aspects of Language and Translation. Oxford, 1998.
- Ehrensberger-Dow M., Göpferich S., O'Brien S. Interdisciplinarity in Translation and Interpreting Process Research, 2015. 159 p.

UNIT II. TRANSLATION TYPOLOGY. TRANSLATION STAGES

Learning objectives:

1. Establish the types of translation and interpretation;
2. Determine the characteristics of the types of translation and interpretation;
3. Enumerate the stages of translation and interpretation;
4. Describe the stages of translation and interpretation;
5. Assess the roles of each type of translation and interpretation;
6. Perform the translation of various types of texts, in line with the appropriate stages.

CORE THEORY

Translations can be categorised in different ways. The most common classification is by **subject matter** or **domain**. Accordingly, the following types can be distinguished: *literary translation, theatrical translation (stage drama), translation of poetry, translation of children's books, technical translation, medical translation, economic translation, financial translation, legal translation, translation of advertisements, translation of ICT documents, etc.*

According to the **type of document**, the translations fall into: *translation of insurance policies, translation of reports, translation of users' guide, translation of presentations, translation of e-learning courses, etc.*

According to their **end purpose** and **functions** there are: *judicial, medical, commercial, editorial, marketing translations, etc.*

According to **types of media** requiring the use of highly specific environments, tools and procedures there are the following categories of translation: *multimedia translation, audio-visual translation, and localisation.*

In his book "Le traducteur, la traduction et l'entreprise", Daniel Gouadec (1989, p.22-28) states that the types of translation depend on

the functions of the product of translation. Therefore, the author distinguishes between the following types:

Selective translation (part translation) – a translation in which only important information for the client’s purposes is kept. Relevance is usually determined with reference to one or more keys or ‘items’ that the client specifies.

Absolute translation – the ST is transferred into the TL with no alteration to the content or the form of the original document. There must be no technical or linguistic variation from the original text, and all terminology must be exactly as in the ST.

Abstract translation – a condensed translation of all the information in the ST is made in order to give the client rapid access to specific types of information.

Diagrammatic translation – the content of the ST is transferred to the TL by means of a diagram rather than by text.

Keyword translation – keywords in the ST are translated into the TL to determine whether or not the information contained in the ST requires fuller translation and, if so, how it should be translated. The keywords indicate the basic concepts of the ST, and by placing them in decreasing order of frequency in the ST the translator can indicate which concepts are the most important.

Translation with reconstructions – ST is translated in its entirety without regard to its form. The aim of such a translation is to communicate the content of the ST in the simplest possible way; all the information being immediately accessible to the TL reader.

Sight translation – term in general use which refers to the unprepared, oral translation of a written text. According to D. Gouadec, in sight translation a summary of the content of ST is provided on demand.

Translations can also be categorised according to the kind of platform, equipment, software and procedures required or used, with four broad types known as: *all-through human translation*, *memory-assisted translation*, *computer-assisted human translation*, *part/ full/ automatic translation* or *machine translation*. Many believe that computers are doing all the work nowadays, however, machine translation tools are still not advanced enough to replace the humans. They were designed

to make a translator's job easier and to be more efficient and the human intervention is inevitable. Human translators are still the ones who are doing most of the work and all the necessary corrections, ensuring that translation output is efficient, correct and ready to use.

The linguist Roman Jakobson (2000, p. 113-118) makes distinction between three types of translation:

Intralingual translation or rewording – an interpretation of verbal signs by means of other signs of the same language: *He is a famous writer = He is a renowned writer.*

Interlingual translation is an interpretation of verbal signs by means of some other language.

Intersemiotic translation or transmutation is an interpretation of verbal signs by means of signs of nonverbal sign systems. Using text and image in traffic signs or translating the news into the signed language are examples of intersemiotic translation.

In R. Jakobson's interpretation, only interlingual translation is deemed 'translation proper'.

The basic dividing line along which categories of translations are established runs between **general translation** and **specialised translation**.

While general translation refers to the translation of documents and materials that do not belong to any specific type or domain, do not entail specific translation processes or the use of equipment beyond an ordinary computer and word processor and covers a relatively wide range of materials (letters, biographies, monographs, treatises, recipe books, tourist brochures, tourist guides, press articles (in newspapers or magazines), post card legends, company presentations, user guides, etc), specialised translation can be defined as the translation of materials which refer to a highly specialised field or domain (e.g. law, finance, computer science, telecommunications, etc.), and/or are of a particular type, and/or are targeted at a particular audience or public through specific dissemination channels and/or are used by specialists in specific circumstances, and/or are embedded in a particular medium (e.g. multimedia technology, film, video, ICT, etc.) therefore calling for the use of special procedures, tools and protocols and leading to the emergence of new specialties or even jobs.

The process of translation is often described, for practical reasons, as a **three-stage pattern** (A. Schweitzer, p.49, G. Miram, p.57):

1. *S1 – R1*, communication between the original sender of information (SL sender – S1) and the translator (recipient of information – R1).
2. *code shifting*, transformations and finding equivalents, performed by a translator.
3. *S2 – R2*, communication between the translator (S2) and the final addressee (R2).

The activities involved in providing a translation service are organised into three phases: **pre-translation, translation, post-translation**. Translation itself is divided into three stages: **pre-transfer, transfer, post-transfer**.

1. *Pre-transfer* comprises all operations leading up to the actual ‘translating’, including preparation of the material, documentary searches, alignment, memory consolidation, terminology mining, deciding on options, etc.
2. *Transfer* is the core activity of shifting to another language-culture combination.
3. *Post-translation* covers all activities that follow delivery of the translated material. These include possible integration of the translated material (as in simulation of subtitles, layout prior to publishing, integration in a Web site or in an international soundtrack, etc.) but also, of course, all the “administrative” business of getting paid, setting up an archive of the project, consolidating the terminology for future uses, etc.

The entire process of written translation can be further divided into the following 12 sequential stages (D. Gouadec, p.13-14):

1. The translator receives the job subsequent to the stages of “inquiry”, “option”, “offer” and “contract conclusion”.
2. The translator receives the material to be translated (as a rule, via email), checks it and makes it fit and ready for translation (including, conversion from one format into another).
3. The translator analyses the material to be translated.
4. The translator looks for and processes any information required to help them get a full understanding of the material and clear up

any ambiguous points (searching for the relevant documentation available online or requesting further details from the client).

5. The translator assembles all the ‘raw materials’ required to carry out the job (relevant
6. terminology, phraseology, sentence structures or phrase templates, translation memories and dictionaries, previously translated material, etc.).
7. The translator sets up the version for translation/retranslation in the appropriate environment and uses available resources.
8. The translator translates the material which, also implies adapting, reorganising, and restructuring.
9. The translator (or reviser) checks and revises the draft translation.
10. Corrections or amendments are made.
11. The final version is validated.
12. The translated material is formatted according to specifications, integrated or embedded into whatever product or medium is applicable (video, sound track, printed page, etc.) before being transferred. This may be part of the translator’s job though it is usually taken care of by specialist operators.
13. The final version is delivered to the translator’s client.

The ability to translate and express the thoughts in clear, apt, and, when appropriate and needed, eloquent form, is a type of intelligence – the linguistic type of IQ. Therefore, a translated document shall not read as a translation and the person reading a translated document shall be left with the feeling that it was written from scratch. Anything which might alert the reader to the fact that it is a translated piece of text is a sign that the translator failed in some way to render their expression correctly. Hence, a good translator is the one who is creative and is able to write clearly, economically and resourcefully and can render a natural translation in their native language.

P. Newmark mentioned in his book “A Text Book of Translation” that a translator must have a sixth sense to be able to translate successfully. This sixth sense is about intuition, knowledge and having a real feel for language which will help deciding when one needs to translate literally or break the rules and depart from being faithful. This instinc-

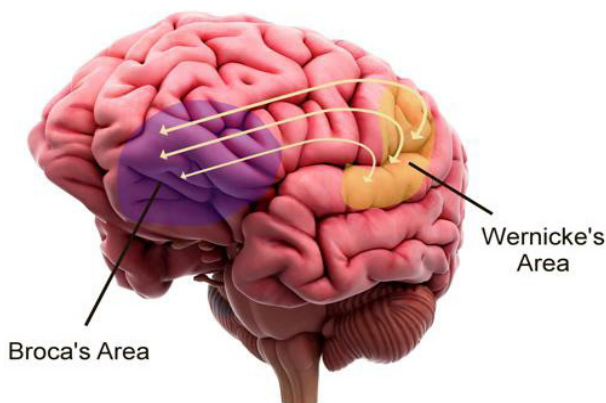
tive nature will mean that a translator can produce a piece of text which is rendering the meaning of the original into a different language for the use and readership that the author intended. But being faithful to a text doesn't necessarily mean that the result will be dreadful. The translator can remain faithful to the author's intentions, the purpose of the text and the intended effect on the chosen readership and still produce a translation which is beautiful because it is an accurate, cohesive and natural piece of writing.

When doing a final revision, the natural level comes into play – the translator must disengage themselves from the source text and read through their work and make it sound like no original existed. It is easy to spot translations done by non-native speakers of the language, as they simply don't have the same feel for idiom, metaphor, expressions, verbs, phrasal verbs etc. The translations will often reveal the interference from the translator's native language and/or the source text language if this is different.

As concerns oral translation, there are two types: oral translation of a written text (*sight translation*) and oral translation of an oral text (*interpreting*). Regarding interpreting, there are two modes: **consecutive** and **simultaneous**.

Using fMRI¹, researchers were able to watch the brain of the interpreters who perform specific tasks, thus revealing the network of brain areas that make the process possible. One of these is Broca's area, known for its role in language production and working memory, the function that allows us to maintain a grasp on what we are thinking and doing. The area is also linked with neighbouring regions that help control language production and comprehension. In interpretation, when a person hears something and has to translate and speak at the same time, there's very strong functional interplay between these regions. Interpretation goes one step beyond bilingualism, because the two languages are active simultaneously. And not just in one modality, because you have perception and production at the same time. So, the brain regions involved go to an extremely high level.

¹ Functional Magnetic Resonance Imaging measures brain activity by detecting changes associated with blood flow.



Wernicke's area helps in speech processing and understanding language
Broca's area helps in producing coherent speech

Consecutive interpreting (CI) is a process in which the interpreter listens to the speaker, waits for them to make a pause and then interprets what has been said. It is different from **simultaneous (SI)** in that the stages of *intake* and *deciphering* of the message do not coincide with the *delivery* of the meaning and the *reproduction* stages.

Consecutive interpreting is of two forms: short and long. The former involves rendering the original information on a sentence-by-sentence basis and without notes. The latter is usually referred to as the 'classic' CI and involves a constant use of notes (notes should be taken in the SL). CI constitutes 75% of the original speech.

At present, consecutive interpreting is used in bilingual round-table talks or small meetings, ceremonial occasions such as after-dinner speeches and guided tours and/or visits. It is characterised by a higher level of accuracy than simultaneous interpreting.

The CI translator ought to have a pleasant voice and good public speaking skills, but also appropriate verbal and non-verbal behaviour. Interpreters should speak clearly with a steady and well inflected voice at a normal presentation rate, have self-confidence and composure, and maintain good eye contact with the audience.

Simultaneous interpreting is a process where the interpreter delivers the message in another language while the speaker conveys the

message without interruption. Simultaneous interpreting is the most difficult type of translation. Very few translators can do it, and not even all interpreters can do it well (Z. Chen, X. Dong, 2010). Of all translators, 25% get to work in the booth. Researchers claim that simultaneous interpretation is not simultaneous at all, since the interpreter says not what they hear, but what they *have heard*.

SI was introduced shortly before World War II. With the use of Spanish, Chinese and Russian at the United Nations and the need to save the time demanded for a CI from one language into two or more languages, ‘experimenting’ with SI began because SI started to be seen as the solution to problems of interpreting. The universal publicity of the 1945-1946 Nuremberg Trials contributed to the popularity of SI, that being the first experience of SI on a large scale which helped establish the belief in the effectiveness of SI.

Whispering, also known by the French term ‘chuchotage’, is considered as a variation of SI, since the interpreter is actually doing SI but without being in a booth. Nowadays, whispering can be performed with the support of a mobile translation equipment.

There are situations when both consecutive and simultaneous interpreters translate reading from a source text that is in front of them. They interpret it in a manner in which the content of the document can be easily understood by the audience. This type of interpretation is known as **sight translation**. Sight translation is challenging and requires a different set of skills.

In the field of translation, languages are also divided. Thus, the **active languages** are languages into which the conference interpreter works and can be either one of these two:

A language(s) – mother tongue;

B language(s) – though not their mother tongue(s), the interpreter has a perfect command of it (bilinguals);

There are cases when the interpreter can fully understand a third language (“C”) and out of which they interpret into the active language(s).

We need to highlight that originally, interpreters worked in one direction at a time (always into the **mother tongue**), but with the globali-

sation, interpreters started working in two directions with each of the languages involved becoming interchangeably the SL and TL. When interpreters work in the **retour language** (into the foreign language), linguistic difficulties of expression are somewhat greater than when working into the mother tongue, therefore, interpreters should skip complex grammatical structures and use short and simple sentences to avoid making grammatical mistakes.

It is essential that interpreters have access to an advanced electronic equipment and sound quality. It goes without saying that if the quality of the sound transmitted to the interpreter is bad, the resulting end-product (the interpreter's output) will be of poor quality because bad sound quality makes it difficult, if not impossible at times, to understand the message. The technical equipment should therefore be designed in such a way that the interpreter *hears* the message, without being obliged to *listen*.

Additionally, the time also plays an essential role. The average duration of an international conference is about six hours. In view of the speed of the spoken language, an hour of SI is equivalent to about 9,000 words spoken by the interpreter at a pace dictated by the speaker. AIIC recommends that interpreters do not work individually for more than 40 minutes for a single speech or a short meeting and that they take turns every 30 minutes approximately when working all day. The decline of input happens after 30 minutes of work. The best performance is during the first 10 minutes of interpretation.

Various large and small scale empirical studies on interpreter stress and burnout based on surveys of staff and freelance conference interpreters and booth data collection confirmed that SI is a stressful task, and that the main stressors in the interpreters' job are: reading from texts, fast delivery, lack of background material (conference documentation), lack of preparation time, difficult accents of speakers, undisciplined speakers, unscheduled speakers, discomfort in the booth, various types of noises.

Interpreters worldwide suffer from depression, anxiety, chronic insomnia, nervousness, from trouble getting up in the morning, from nightmares, from weight loss, from rapid heartbeat. Researchers found

that the workload and demand for high quality performance may cause these health risk factor in interpreters.

Considering the above, one can only reiterate the numerous calls made by researchers and professionals in the field of conference interpreting for educating conference organisers, delegates, employers, etc. of the nature of the interpreting process and conference interpreters' needs to facilitate their task, which will in the end help interpreters to mediate effectively between languages and cultures.

Interpreting is an extremely important and very exacting profession. Any error can, quite literally, ruin somebody's life or career. However, various organisations have developed Standards of Practice for Interpreters in various fields and environments. Among other topics, the standards address the concept of accuracy and state that the interpreter corrects errors in interpretation. The fact that this is included in the standards is an acknowledgment that even the best professionals make mistakes when interpreting. It also requires that interpreters have awareness of their own performance and, it gives interpreters the right and responsibility to correct the error. So, actually, it encourages people to learn from their own mistakes.

Regardless of the type of translation they decide to work with, the translators and interpreters must be familiar with: encyclopaedias, monographs and technical and academic manuals, parallel texts, specialized and popularized periodicals, dictionaries, vocabularies, terminology, and linguistic databases, Internet sites of the best content providers in the area of specialization.

They also need to have competence of text reception, analysis; research, transfer, text production, of quality assessment, linguistic and cultural competence both on the source and the target side. Additionally, they need to be linguistically adept, cognitively able to manage several tasks at once, knowledgeable about both cultures and the content of the material, aware of the tools and methods to use in solving the linguistic problems that arise with every interpreting situation and have interpersonal skills that facilitate natural interaction among the participants in the communicative setting. Other useful attributes include good research skills and the ability to learn quickly in order to be

able to tackle documents in different areas and a good sense of humour and excellent communication skills also essential when dealing with clients who don't really understand the translation process.

Interpreting can be embarrassing, stressful, exciting, challenging and funny, but what matters most is the message conveyed: small mistakes, which are unavoidable when speaking one's second language, are acceptable as long as they don't detract from oral communication. Fluency of delivery, logical cohesion, meaning consistency, completeness of interpretation, correct grammatical practice and use of correct terminology are also likewise important.

Considering the above-mentioned aspects, an enemy and a friend for interpreters, especially simultaneous interpreters, is the speed. Prior preparation may address deficiencies in knowledge and terminology, and to some extent, alleviate the pressure of fast delivery. But if the speed is beyond a certain limit, no interpreter can transmit the message in full, even if the interpreter is an expert in the subject. This is even more so when the structures of the source and target languages differ substantially. The reason is simple. All interpreters have limited mental capacity. In simultaneous interpretation (SI), interpreters have to allocate attention among several tasks: listening and analysis, production, short term memory and coordination. When a speaker's delivery is rapid, listening and analysis alone will consume almost all the interpreter's energy. Little energy will be left for production, especially when production involves complicated language restructuring.

Fast speeches overload the brain with too much information within a specific time span, leaving no room for proper processing of information to produce a coherent translation. Delivering fast speeches in an international conference may lead to several problems: first, mistranslation and loss of information. There is a maximum output that an interpreter can produce within a given time interval; the greater the input, the greater the chance of error and omission. Secondly, fast delivery makes comprehension difficult even when the audience is listening to a native language. Thirdly, English is a non-native language to many, if not most international conference participants. Participants lose information when either the speaker or the interpreter speaks too fast.

When a speech is delivered too fast, “the ears” cannot catch up with “the mouth” and the listener has difficulty understanding the speaker. To ensure the proper functioning of the interpreter’s brain, the speaker must speak at an appropriate speed. Studies show that speech rate has a direct correlation with interpretation quality. Accuracy is reduced as the speech gets faster. Interpreters generally believe that, to ensure the quality of interpretation, a rate between 100 and 130 (English) words per minute (wpm) is optimal for speeches that are not read from a written text, although the figure may differ for different types of speech. M. Lederer suggested that for recited texts which are devoid of hesitation and redundancy that characterise official speeches, the maximum rate should be 100 wpm.

When speeches are delivered fast, they are causing breathing difficulties, and therefore, reception and comprehension will suffer. Therefore, interpreters have to find coping strategies to deal with speeches that are delivered faster than the optimal speed. Four strategies may be used:

Strategy one: request the speaker to slow down. This is the first possible tactic when a speaker is speaking too fast; however, one must remember that reminders seldom work, for speakers are either set in their speaking habits, or are always trying to cover too much within a limited time. After being reminded, a speaker will usually slow down for a sentence or two, before quickly forgetting the rules. Also, too-frequent reminders impede communication. A fast rate of speech is a universal challenge for interpreters. To ensure that speakers speak at a reasonable pace, the efforts of several players are indispensable: interpreters’ associations/societies, conference organisers, and individuals.

Nowadays, the European Commission Directorate General for Interpretation provides Tips for Speakers, giving speakers suggestions on how to deliver speeches when interpreters’ services are used. One of the tips is to “speak naturally, at a reasonable pace.” If speakers could observe the tips, interpretation quality would be greatly enhanced. In dealing with ad hoc users of interpretation services, interpreters should communicate with the conference organiser, requesting speakers to speak at a reasonable pace.

At small and more personal meetings, interpreters may communicate directly with the speakers. Most speakers are quite ready to cooperate, and would even request interpreters to raise their hands at any time when slowing down is needed. As a general rule, interpreters must make known their difficulties to conference organisers and speakers to ensure that they receive the required cooperation.

Strategy Two: the interpreter speeds up. If the speaker fails to cooperate, the interpreter will have to speed up. The constraint, however, is that speech rate cannot be increased indefinitely. And as mentioned earlier, if a speech is delivered too quickly, most of the interpreter's processing capacity will be devoted to comprehension, leaving little energy and time for translating and speaking the target language. The resulting utterance would be either incoherent or too fast for the audience's comprehension.

Strategy Three: summarisation. This is a tactic used when the interpreter cannot keep pace with the speaker even with increased speed. The best approach to interpreting speeches with redundant information (such as impromptu speeches) is to summarise. Summary interpretation will produce a more succinct speech than the original. However, any attempt at summarising will result in omissions or truncated logic, and the audience will find difficulty following the speaker, particularly when speakers read verbatim and rapidly from written text or in government jargon. Interpreters can only do their best, and translate as much as they are able within the limited time. Having said that, summarisation consumes a lot of energy and is not sustainable. Interpreters familiar with the subject-matter and who understand the audience's needs and the central message can respond faster by capturing essential information and discarding the trivial. In any case, no amount of familiarity with the subject-matter can compensate for a speech delivered too fast.

Strategy Four: termination of service. In the event that working conditions do not meet the interpreters' minimum requirements and as a result, interpretation quality is compromised, interpreters may terminate their services. Indeed, interpreters have rights, and are entitled to claim their rights. Unless the required working conditions are met, interpreters have the right to refuse to deliver service. Having said that,

interpreters who serve as the bridge between speakers and audience should refrain from turning off the microphone (despite it being one possible strategy) unless absolutely necessary. Turning off the microphone because of one speaker will attract the audience's attention to the interpreter. Secondly, many conferences provide SI services simply to raise the prestige of the meeting or as part of the complete language service offered at the conference. If the interpreter determines that this is indeed the case, i.e. meeting participants do not actually use the interpretation service, there is even less necessity to turn off the microphone and attract the organiser's attention to interpreters.

PRACTICAL EXERCISES

Exercise 1. Match each type of translation with its characteristics. This is an odd one out task.

- | | |
|---------------------------------------|--|
| <i>a. Translation</i> | i. the interpreter listens to the oral presentation of the original and translates it as an oral message in TL. |
| <i>b. Interpreting</i> | ii. the reading of a text by the interpreter from the SL into the TL, simultaneously, in a manner in which the content of the document can be easily understood by the audience. |
| <i>c. Literal translation</i> | iii. the ST is in written form, as is the TT. |
| <i>d. Consecutive interpretation</i> | iv. the interpreter is supposed to be able to give his translation while the speaker is uttering the original message. |
| <i>e. Simultaneous interpretation</i> | v. the communicative value of the text depends, first and foremost, on its artistic quality and the translator's primary task is to reproduce this quality in translation. |
| <i>f. Literary translation</i> | vi. the translation starts after the original speech or some part of it has been completed. |

- g. Informative translation* vii. the main purpose of which is to convey a certain amount of ideas, to inform the reader.
- h. At sight translation* viii. the translation of text from one language to another “word-for-word”, rather than giving the sense of the original.
- ix. the interpreter’s strategy and the final results depend, to a great extent, on the length of the segment to be translated.

Exercise 2. Talk to your teacher about the situations that would require *written translation, sight translation, consecutive interpretation, simultaneous interpretation, sign language interpretation, relay interpretation, whispered interpretation, ad hoc interpretation, retour interpretation, voiceover, dubbing, subtitling.*

Exercise 3. Read the text below. Determine the type of text, the aim and function(s) of the text, its linguistic peculiarities and the potential reader. Translate the text in written form, observing the stages of translation.

We may be able to learn vocabulary while sleeping

A new study shows that we could learn vocabulary while we are sleeping. This is great news for students struggling to learn a new language. It is also good for anyone who is trying to expand their knowledge of words. Researchers from the University of Bern in Switzerland have shown that it is possible to learn new information while we are sleeping deeply, and then recall this information when we need it after we wake up. This new information includes foreign language vocabulary. The researchers conducted tests on whether or not a person can remember new words and their translations while they were asleep. They said our sleeping brain is much more aware of the outside world than we thought.

Researcher Marc Züst said, “language areas of the brain and the hippocampus – the brain’s essential memory hub – were activated” after a person woke up. He said these areas of the brain allow us to remember vocabulary during deep sleep. The researchers said that dur-

ing deep sleep, our brain cells are active for a short period of time – about half a second. The cells then enter into a period of inactivity – again, about half a second. The active state is called “up-state” and the inactive state is called “down-state.” The “up-state” period is the time when our brain could learn new vocabulary. The researchers say more research is needed to be 100 per cent sure that we can learn vocabulary while asleep.

(Source: Breaking News English, 6th February 2019)

Exercise 4. Perform the intralingual translation of the fragment below. Use contextual synonymy, antonymic substitution, deletion, conversion, syntactic reorganisation.

In prehistoric times, the physical changes in response to stress were an essential adaptation for meeting natural threats. Even in the modern world, the stress response can be an asset for raising levels of performance during critical events such as sports activities, important meetings, or situations of actual danger or crisis. If stress becomes persistent and low-level, however, all parts of the body’s stress apparatus (the brain, heart, lungs, vessels and muscles) become chronically over- or under-activated. This may produce physical or psychological damage over time. Acute stress can also be harmful in certain situations.

Studies suggest that the inability to deal with stress is associated with the onset of depression or anxiety. In one study, two-thirds of subjects who experienced a stressful situation had nearly six times the risk of developing depression within a month. Some evidence suggests that repeated release of stress hormones disrupt normal levels of serotonin, the nerve chemical that is critical for feelings of well-being.

Certainly, on a more obvious level, stress diminishes the quality of life by reducing feelings of pleasure and accomplishment, and relationships are often threatened.

Nevertheless, some stress may be beneficial. For example, although some research has suggested that stress may be a risk factor for suicide, those with moderate stress levels had the lowest risk.

(Fragment from “The causes, diagnosis and prevention of stress”)

Exercise 5. Improvise a one-minute speech in your mother-tongue on a topic at your choice (*politics, environmental protection, education, migration, employment, etc*). Present your speech and then ask a colleague to summarise the information in English.

Exercise 6. Choose a one-minute clip with subtitles from your favourite youtuber and translate it. YouTube is a valuable linguistic source to increase your knowledge in domains that are important to you and to allow you to develop a lexicon that will help prepare you to work as a translator.

Selected further reading:

Gambier Y., van Doorslaer, L. Handbook of Translation Studies. John Benjamins Publishing Company, Vol 1, 2010. 458 p.

Gambier Y., van Doorslaer, L. Handbook of Translation Studies. John Benjamins Publishing Company, Vol 2, 2011. 197 p.

Gambier Y., van Doorslaer, L. Handbook of Translation Studies. John Benjamins Publishing Company, Vol 3, 2012. 220 p.

House J. Translation. The Basics. Routledge, 2018, 210 p.

Malmkjær K. The Routledge Handbook of Translation Studies and Linguistics. Routledge, 2018. 449 p.

UNIT III. TRANSLATION UNITS. SEGMENTATION PROCEDURES

Learning objectives:

1. Define the notion of unit of translation;
2. Determine different types of units of translation;
3. Identify the best unit of translation depending on the situation of translation;
4. Establish the procedures of text segmentation;
5. Analyse the quality of translation according to different types of units of translation.

CORE THEORY

The ‘unit of translation’ (UT) has been a subject of debate for more than forty years. Professional translators instinctively think in terms of **translation units** when they want to assess or describe their work and it proves to be equally necessary and useful to theoreticians when they want to analyse the translator’s work.

Generically, a ‘unit of translation’ is the smallest portion of a sentence whose words cannot be translated separately without resulting in nonsense or mistranslation. The concept has been an object of discussion since its introduction by Jean-Paul Vinay and Jean Darbelnet in their “*Stylistique comparée du français et de l’anglais*” (1958). J.P. Vinay and J. Darbelnet defined it as a “unit of thought” linguistically materialised as “the smallest segment of the utterance, where the cohesion of the signs is such that they must not be translated separately.”

Units of translation may be lexical, based on words or expressions which cannot be found in a good dictionary, however, general expressions which are standard and idiomatic in the language also constitute units of translation. They involve, for instance, a verb and a direct object (*to draw a comparison, to make a profit, to raise an objection, to meet an obligation*) or a nominal group (*life saver, circumstances beyond one’s control*), or even a group adjective-noun (*reasonable doubt, a severe injury, a bad cold*). Verbs whose construction requires that

they be followed by a special preposition before a noun or another verb constitute units of translation (*to depend on, to laugh at, to stop by, to keep up*). Sometimes the prepositions coincide in the two languages; but other times can be different as well, or there can be a preposition in one language and none in the other.

Units of translation are not necessarily limited to phrases, small groups or words, or different grammatical structures: they can encompass entire sentences or even entire messages. Idioms and slang, greetings and reflex formulas, clichés, proverbs and sayings, public signs and regulations, all constitute units of translation whose elements cannot be translated separately (*one-way ticket, suit yourself, here we go again, on cloud nine, add insult to injury, stop thinking too much*).

There are various categories of translation units:

Lexical translation units (words/groups of words forming a semantic unit and their TL equivalents as found in dictionaries):

e.g. *conductor* – *dirijor*
to speed – *a accelera*

Grammatical translation units (grammatical structures that are different between SL and TL):

e.g. *to laugh at* – *a râde de*
a paperbag – *un sac de hârtie/o pungă de hârtie*

Message translation units (sentences, paragraphs):

e.g. *keep off the grass!* – *e interzisă plimbarea pe iarbă!*

In the specialized literature, the size of UT fluctuates between a phoneme or grapheme and an entire text. These are described below, in ascending order: *phoneme or grapheme, morpheme, word, phrase, sentence, paragraph and text*.

a) Phoneme or grapheme as UT

Phonemes and graphemes are purely functional entities devoid of any semantic meaning. Using a phoneme or grapheme for translating is possible for a limited number of very specific items. These are proper names², geographical names, cultural words and some terms.

² According to literature data, the surname of the English writer J. Galsworthy has 144 Russian equivalents, among which, Галсворти, Гелсуэрси, Голсуорси.

e.g. *Gorbachev/ Gorbachoff (en) / Gorbaciov (ro) / Горбачёв (ru)*
Kolkhoz / colhoz / колхоз
Zorbing / zorbing / зорбинг

b) Morpheme as UT

e.g. *Birdie / păsărică / птичка*

c) Word as UT

It is the situation when the translator can successfully convey the message to the reader through one word in TT, as in the following cases:

e.g. *Heavens! / Dumnezeule! / Боже мой!*

d) Phrase as UT

A phrase is considered as two or more words that function together as a group and it conveys a detailed message:

e.g. *What's up?/ Cum îți merge? / Как дела?*

e) Sentence as UT

A sentence is the largest unit of grammatical organization within which parts of speech (e.g. nouns, verbs, adverbs) and grammatical classes (e.g. word, phrase) function.

e.g. *Andrew took the letter and he left / A luat scrisoarea și a plecat / Он взял письмо и ушел.*

f) Paragraph as UT

e.g. *The Government of the Italian Republic shall remit to the Governments of the Republic of Bulgaria and Romania a certified copy of the Treaty establishing a Constitution for Europe in all the languages referred to in the first paragraph.*

Guvernul Republicii Italiene remite guvernelor Republicii Bulgaria și România câte o copie certificată pentru conformitate a Tratatului de instituire a unei Constituții pentru Europa în toate limbile prevăzute la primul paragraf.

g) Text as UT

e.g. *Bounty—the taste of Paradise / Баунти—райское наслаждение.*

A successful translation greatly depends on the capability to correctly identify the UT, which implies being familiar with the process of text segmentation. Text segmentation is the task of dividing a text/message into portions or segments based on its semantic structure. These portions can be words, groups of words or even sentences. The need for

segmentation arises from limitations related to the attention span and the working memory. Segmentation occurs in the translator's mind and it is therefore not directly observable.

Knowing how to delineate units of translation is good practice for the student translator, who can make a semiological analysis of the text, by cutting out and pairing the words which constitute single concepts in order to translate them with their proper counterparts. Experienced translators will automatically do a quick mental delineation of units of translation before a translation, and after some practice this procedure should become habit. More recently, pause data obtained by means of keystroke logging has been used to explore the way translators are segmenting or chunking their processing, the assumption being that distributions of pauses in the translation processing stream would give an indication of 'how much is being processed at any one time.' R. Jakobsen found that expert translators work with longer segments than translation students.

Improper delineation of translation units leads to standard translation mistakes such as **overtranslation** and **undertranslation**, first identified by P. Newmark in 1976. The former occurs when there is unjustified explicitation of ST elements that should remain implicit in the TT, while the latter happens in case of an omission in the TT of any compensation, amplification or explicitation required in order to obtain an idiomatic translation that conforms to the presumed sense of the ST (J. Delisle, 1999).

The main purpose behind the delineation of a text into *units of translation* is to remind students and young translators to work with concepts rather than words. They must rise to the message behind the signs in order to avoid error, nonsense or just plain unidiomatic translation.

Segmenting a SL text into units of translation is a complicated procedure that comprises the following stages:

1) segmenting a text, depending on one's knowledge of the language, into minimal units of sense (meaningful language units) or minimal units of outer expression (phonemes or graphemes) which cannot be further segmented into smaller parts without detriment to either sense or form:

e.g. *This is a new building* vs. *I'm fond of new potatoes.*

For translation purposes, “new” should be singled out on a word-level in the first sentence (nouă / новое) and a word-group-level in the second case (cartofi noi / молодой картофель);

2) considering all situational and background factors which determine particular uses of the established units:

e.g. *I made out your voucher. (W. Saroyan) – Я выписал тебе расчёт. – Ți-am scris cecul.*

3) enlarging, diminishing or dropping selected units of translation under the influence of translation norms as a verification of their correct choice in a given context:

e.g. *In a panic he shovelled hay over the puppy with his fingers. (J. Steinbeck) – В испуге он быстро зарыл щенка в сено. – Cuprins de panică, el aruncă un pumn de fân peste câțel.*

4) applying the principle of interchangeability:

e.g. *Don't turn over – Не кантовать. – Cu această parte în sus.*

5) taking into account the addressee factor:

e.g. *recycling – reclare/prelucrarea deșeurilor – рециклирование/ вторичная переработка;*

6) choosing a proper translation strategy

e.g. *Lasă-i în plata Domnului! / Бог с ниму! – God with them!*
(word-for-word translation)

God is with them! (literal translation)

Never mind about them! (adequate translation).

PRACTICAL EXERCISES

Exercise 1. Fill in the gaps with the correct words in italics to make up true definitions: *source-text/target-language/hierarchy/product-oriented/clause/word/individually/source-textunit/target-text unit/process-oriented/smallest segment/attention/paragraph.*

P. Newmark assumes the main translation units to be a _____ : text, _____, sentence, _____, group, _____ and morpheme. Considered from a _____ point of view, the unit of translation is the stretch of _____ on which the translator focus-

es _____ in order to represent it as a whole in the _____.
(M. Baker) According to M. Baker, the term “unit of translation” considered from a _____ approach is defined as “the _____ that can be mapped onto a _____.” According to J. P. Vinay and J. Darbelnet, the unit of translation is “the _____ of the utterance whose signs are linked in such a way that they should not be translated _____.”

Exercise 2. Consider the *concepts* rather than *words* to segment the text below into units of translation. Translate the text sentence by sentence, taking into account the stages in the text-segmentation procedure.

Light pollution is taking away night’s darkness

The amount and brightness of light from towns and cities around the world is at such a high level that it is reducing the darkness of night. Once upon a time, when night-time fell, we were plunged into darkness. Things are different, and brighter today. A study published in the journal *Science Advances* reports that artificial light at night is increasing in most countries worldwide. Scientists say it grew by 2.2 per cent a year between 2012 and 2016. The intrusion of artificial light into our night-time is causing us many problems. The International Dark-Sky Association says it, “is not only impairing our view of the universe, it is adversely affecting our environment, our safety, our energy consumption and our health.” Study co-author Franz Holker said artificial light is a threat to our natural environment. He said: “Artificial light is an environmental pollutant that threatens nocturnal animals and affects plants and microorganisms.” He added: “[It] has ecological and evolutionary implications for many organisms from bacteria to mammals, including us humans, and may reshape entire social ecological systems.” Many environmentalists thought the introduction of LED lights would help the planet. However, cities are using more LED lights because they are cheaper, which is adding to the light pollution. Night-time light decreased in 16 countries, including war-torn nations such as Yemen and Syria.

(Source: Breaking News English)

Exercise 3. Translate paying attention to the meaningful language units:

1. Some people in their autumn years of life may have some regrets. Nearly everyone has a few what-ifs and should-haves.
2. “We like explosion that leave you feeling good. We like ideas that change the world for good.”
3. I am nervous before speaking in public. I have butterflies.
4. In soap operas, the human stories that play out are extreme. The characters and situations of the shows are over-the-top!
5. Look. Designing software is my bread-and-butter. And don’t forget – I’m the breadwinner for my mom and two brothers.
6. In the school of hard knocks, you learn something as a result of difficult or unpleasant experiences.
7. I have some new dishes to serve at my big dinner party! But I’ve never made them before. What if they don’t taste good? How about if you come over this weekend and you can cook them for me? You can be my guinea pig!
8. Some people might be ahead of the pack and are more forward thinking. They do not want to go along with what everyone else is doing.
9. Is that all you’re wearing? You need to bundle up or Jack Frost will be nipping at more than your nose!
10. There are actors who are on standby, waiting in the wings for their turn.
11. Franklin once flew a kite in a lightning storm. He had hoped that lightning would strike the kite as it flew high in the sky. He thought the electricity would travel down the string to a metal key at the bottom. Then the plan was to catch the electricity in a glass jar.
12. Athletes and non-athletes alike can be snakebit. And some people just seem to be snakebit all the time. You could say, they are born under a bad sign.
13. Well, today we celebrate our shared Mother Earth with a show about earth expressions. To which, you might say, “What on earth took you so long?!”

14. The calm before the storm can happen anytime. It is the time before something bad happens. But after the storm begins and you find yourself in the middle of it, you are in the eye of the storm.
15. It is April Fool's Day so someone might play a practical joke on you – a harmless trick for fun.

(Source: Words and their stories)

Exercise 5. Read the transcript of the speech below, paying attention to the syntactic pauses represented by punctuation marks. Use a device to record you reading the text. Listen to your recording and compare it against the original in terms of logical pauses made by the speaker. In case of inconsistencies, record again.

**Environmental speech delivered by Leonardo DiCaprio
at the United Nations Climate Summit**

“Thank you, Mr Secretary General, your excellencies, ladies and gentleman, and distinguished guests. I’m honoured to be here today, I stand before you not as an expert but as a concerned citizen, one of the 400,000 people who marched in the streets of New York on Sunday, and the billions of others around the world who want to solve our climate crisis.

As an actor I pretend for a living. I play fictitious characters often solving fictitious problems. I believe humankind has looked at climate change in that same way: as if it were a fiction, happening to someone else’s planet, as if pretending that climate change wasn’t real would somehow make it go away.

But I think we know better than that. Every week, we’re seeing new and undeniable climate events, evidence that accelerated climate change is here now. We know that droughts are intensifying, our oceans are warming and acidifying, with methane plumes rising up from beneath the ocean floor. We are seeing extreme weather events, increased temperatures, and the West Antarctic and Greenland ice-sheets melting at unprecedented rates, decades ahead of scientific projections.

None of this is rhetoric, and none of it is hysteria. It is fact. The scientific community knows it, Industry and governments know it, even the United States military knows it. The chief of the US navy’s Pacific

command, admiral Samuel Locklear, recently said that climate change is our single greatest security threat.

My Friends, this body – perhaps more than any other gathering in human history – now faces that difficult task. You can make history ... or be vilified by it.

To be clear, this is not about just telling people to change their light bulbs or to buy a hybrid car. This disaster has grown beyond the choices that individuals make. This is now about our industries, and governments around the world taking decisive, large-scale action.

I am not a scientist, but I don't need to be. Because the world's scientific community has spoken, and they have given us our prognosis, if we do not act together, we will surely perish. Now is our moment for action.

We need to put a price-tag on carbon emissions, and eliminate government subsidies for coal, gas, and oil companies. We need to end the free ride that industrial polluters have been given in the name of a free-market economy, they don't deserve our tax dollars, they deserve our scrutiny. For the economy itself will die if our ecosystems collapse.

The good news is that renewable energy is not only achievable but good economic policy. New research shows that by 2050 clean, renewable energy could supply 100% of the world's energy needs using existing technologies, and it would create millions of jobs.

This is not a partisan debate; it is a human one. Clean air and water, and a livable climate are inalienable human rights. And solving this crisis is not a question of politics. It is our moral obligation – if, admittedly, a daunting one.

We only get one planet. Humankind must become accountable on a massive scale for the wanton destruction of our collective home. Protecting our future on this planet depends on the conscious evolution of our species. This is the most urgent of times, and the most urgent of messages.

Honoured delegates, leaders of the world, I pretend for a living. But you do not. The people made their voices heard on Sunday around the world and the momentum will not stop. And now it's your turn, the

time to answer the greatest challenge of our existence on this planet ... is now. I beg you to face it with courage. And honesty. Thank you.”

(Source: <https://www.leonardodicaprio.org/>)

Selected further reading:

Bell R. Translation and Translating: Theory and Practice. Longman, 1991. 297 p.

Gouadec D. Translation as a Profession. John Benjamins, 2007. 396 p.

Hatim B., Munday J. Translation. An Advanced Resource Book. Routledge Applied Linguistics. London and New York, 2004. 373 p.

Nord C. Functional Translation Units. In: A. Mauranen and T. Puurtinen. Translation - Acquisition - Use. Publications de l'Association Finlandaise de Linguistique Appliquée 55. Jyväskylä, 1997, pp. 41-50.

Snell-Hornby M. Translation Studies: An Integrated Approach. John Benjamins. 1988/1995. 180 p.

UNIT IV. A DIACHRONIC ANALYSIS OF TRANSLATION THEORIES

Learning objectives:

1. Determine different translation theories;
2. Describe the peculiarities of translation theories;
3. Compare various translation theories;
4. Determine the relation between the theory and practice of translation;
5. Bring arguments to support different views related to translation research.

CORE THEORY

In view of the fact that one can translate without knowing anything about linguistics, even as one can speak a language without being a student of the science of language, many people have concluded that translation is scarcely even an aspect of applied linguistics. Rather, it has often been regarded only as a more complicated form of talking or writing, in which one decodes from one language and encodes into another.

Translation had been thought of as a purely literary and secondary activity which was undertaken by scholars who had bilingual, if not multilingual, capabilities. It was not thought of as a science at all and least of all was it thought to have a theoretical foundation. Yet many have affirmed the need for a close relationship of the translation practice with the theory of translation.

The first theoretical contributions were made by the most prominent translators-practitioners. The expansion of the translation practice raised the awareness about the need to systematically study the process of translation from the theoretical and practical viewpoints. Thus, translation studies emerged within the framework of linguistic paradigm and the first theories on translation were developed in the '50s.

All translators theorize, not just the ones who can express their theories in technical terms. In fact, as it is stated in J. House's book "Translation Quality Assessment. Past and Present", untrained translators may

work faster and more efficiently because they know less about complex theories – they have fewer doubts and do not waste time reflecting on the obvious. On the other hand, awareness of different theories might be of practical benefit when confronting problems for which there are no established solutions, where significant creativity is required.

Discussions about theories of translation are too often concerned with distinctions between literary and non-literary texts, between prose and poetry, or between technical articles on physics and run-of-the-mill commercial correspondence. In order to understand the nature of translation, the focus should not be on different types of discourse but, as Roger Bell (1987) puts it, on the processes and procedures involved in any and all kinds of interlingual communication.

Until the second half of the 20th century, translation theory seemed locked in what George Steiner (1998, p. 319) calls a ‘sterile’ debate over the triad of ‘literal’, ‘free’ and ‘faithful’ translation. The distinction between ‘word-for-word’ (‘literal’) and ‘sense-for-sense’ (‘free’) translation goes back to Cicero and St. Jerome and forms the basis of key writings on translation in centuries nearer to our own.

Since the 1970s, translation had been seen as ‘vital to the interaction between cultures’, and researchers suggested that there was a need to study translation, not just to train translators, but precisely to study cultural interaction – a comparison of the original and the translated text will not only show the strategies employed by translators at certain moments, but will also reveal the different status of the two texts in their several literary systems. More broadly, it will expose the relationship between the two cultural systems in which those texts are embedded.

The Interpretive Theory of Translation was introduced into the Translation Studies in the 1970s by Danica Seleskovitch, a French translation scholar and former Head of the Paris School of Interpreters and Translators and Marianne Lederer, a researcher at the Paris School of Interpreters and Translators. Their theory was built upon four pillars:

1st pillar – command of the native language: everyone would agree that translators and interpreters must be able to use their mother tongue in all its nuances and subtleties.

2nd pillar – command of the target language: the phonological and grammatical systems have to be mastered, while the limitless range of lexical items is subject to a lifelong and open-ended learning process.

3rd pillar – command of relevant world and background knowledge: the world and background knowledge are not static. Rather, the knowledge is the result of a continuous, dynamic process of acquisition (learning).

4th pillar – command of interpreting methodology: in this regard, the Interpretive Theory specifies that the process of translating requires an understanding of sense and a formulation of the translation by complying with the usage and customs of the target language.

A free approach to translation is from the English poet and translator, John Dryden, whose description of the translation process has an enormous impact on subsequent translation theory and practice. In the preface to his translation of Ovid's Epistles in 1680, John Dryden (1680/1992, p. 17) reduces the entire translation to three categories:

‘metaphrase’ – word by word and line by line translation which corresponds to literal translation;

‘paraphrase’ – translation where the author is kept in view by the translator, so as never to be lost, but his words are not so strictly followed as his sense; this involves changing whole phrases and more or less corresponds to faithful or sense-for-sense translation;

‘imitation’ – forsaking both words and sense; this corresponds to very free translation and is more or less adaptation.

J. Dryden and others writing on translation at the time are very prescriptive, setting out what has to be done to successfully translate. In his 1540 manuscript “La maniere de bien traduire d’une langue en autre” (‘The way of translating well from one language into another’) Etienne Dolet set out main five principles:

1. The translator must perfectly understand the sense and material of the original author, although they should feel free to clarify obscurities.
2. The translator should have a perfect knowledge of both SL and TL, so as not to lessen the majesty of the language.

3. The translator should avoid word-for-word renderings.
4. The translator should avoid Latinate and unusual forms.
5. The translator should assemble and liaise words eloquently to avoid clumsiness.

A. F. Tytler (p.9) put forward three laws of translation:

1. The translation should give a complete transcript of the ideas of the original work.
2. The style and manner of writing should be of the same character with that of the original.
3. The translation should have all the ease of the original composition.

The 1970s and 1980s saw a move away from the static linguistic typologies of translation shifts and the emergence and flourishing in Germany of a functionalist and communicative approach to the analysis of translation (p.73):

1. Katharina Reiss's early work on text type and language function;
2. Justa Holz-Mänttari's theory of translational action;
3. Hans J. Vermeer's Skopos theory which focused on the purpose of the TT;
4. Christiane Nord's more detailed text-analysis model continued the functionalist tradition in the 1990s.

Katharina Reiss's work in the 1970s builds on the concept of equivalence. She views the text, rather than the word or sentence, as the level at which communication is achieved and at which equivalence must be sought.

J. Holz-Mänttari holds that the purpose of translational action is for translators to transfer messages across cultural and linguistic barriers. She places special emphasis on the actional quality of translation, and on the vocational status of the translators (experts), by means of analysing the roles of the participants (including the initiator, the commissioner, the source text producer, the translator, the target text user, and the target text receiver) and the situational conditions in which their activities take place (Nord, 1992).

One of the most important concepts in modern translation work is encapsulated in the Skopos Theory, which states that translation is not

simply an act of linguistic transference, but rather an application of *purpose*, i.e. the Skopos theory views translation as an action with purpose.

This theory, put forward by Hans J. Vermeer, was a new perspective of looking at translation, which was no longer limited by conventional source-text oriented views. Vermeer finds that, according to action theory, every action has a purpose, and, since translation is an action, it must have a purpose too. However, in her book, “Translating as a Purposeful Activity” (1997), Christiane Nord points out some shortcomings of the Skopos theory, among which, the idea that because of the differences in TT expectations, it is impossible for the translation purpose to satisfy all target readers. Nord subsequently, introduces the loyalty principle. Loyalty refers to the interpersonal relationship between the translator, the source-text sender, and the target-text addressees.

C. Nord proposed the Translation-Oriented Text Analysis which encompasses ‘three approaches that are particularly useful in translator training’ and these are:

- (1) the importance of the translation brief;
- (2) the role of ST analysis;
- (3) the functional hierarchy of translation problems.

The translation brief should give the following information for both texts: the intended text functions; the addressees (sender and recipient); the time and place of text reception; the medium (speech and writing); the motive (why the ST was written and why it is being translated).

Once the above ST–TT profiles have been compared, the ST can be analysed to decide on the translation strategy. Nord lists the following elements to be taken into account at this stage: the subject matter; the content; the composition: including microstructure and macrostructure; the illustrations, words in italics; the dialect, register and specific terminology; the stylistics.

Nord establishes a hierarchy when undertaking a translation: the intended function of the translation should be decided (documentary [the TT allows the TT receiver access to the ideas of the ST, the local colour of the ST] or instrumental [the TT receivers read the TT as though it were a ST written in their own language]); the functional elements that will need to be adapted to the TT addressees’ situation have

to be determined; the translation type decides the translation style; the problems of the text can then be tackled at a lower linguistic level.

Juliane House (2014) enunciates three basic criteria with which to systematize the overview of different approaches: the relationship between the original text and its translation; the relationship between the original text (or features of it) and how it is perceived by the author, the translator and the recipient(s); the consequences which views about these relationships have when one wants to distinguish a translation from other types of multilingual text production.

In general, translation theories were approached from three perspectives, depending on the process or result of translation:

a) The theory that looks at *translation as a process*, i.e. study the information processing and such topics as perception (our ability to capture, process, and actively make sense of the information that our senses receive [for example, visual and auditory perception]), memory (primary/secondary or short/long term) and decoding and encoding the message and draws heavily on psychology and psycholinguistics.

It had been shown that simultaneous interpreters are capable of performing such complicated operations as monitoring, storing and possibly decoding while engaged in the encoding of previously received sequences into the target language. It was then suggested that the acts being performed simultaneously would be monitoring and decoding and encoding would represent a second phase.

b) The theory that perceives *translation as product*, i.e. a theory of translated text which requires the study of text by the traditional levels of linguistic analysis (syntax and semantics) and also, by making use of stylistics and recent advances in text-linguistics and discourse analysis.

c) The theory that perceives *translation as both process and product* – a theory of translating and translation, which would require the integrated study of both and such a theory is the long-term goal for the translation studies.

PRACTICAL EXERCISES

Exercise 1. Considering that the notion of ‘translation’ is multivalent, R. Bell envisages three possible theories depending on the focus of the investigation, the *process* or the *product*. Explain what is understood by:

1. translation as *process*...
2. translation as *product*...
3. translation as *both process and product*...

Exercise 2. Determine the knowledge and skills translators and interpreters have to possess in order to translate and interpret competently.

Exercise 3. Translate the instruction text below, considering that the target-text should be an adaptation for kids’ cooking recipe.

Teriyaki salmon parcels

Prep: 15 mins. Cook: 20 mins

Ingredients:

2 tbsp low-salt soy sauce, 1 tbsp clear honey, 1 garlic clove, finely chopped, 1 tbsp mirin (optional), a little sunflower oil, 300g Tenderstem broccoli, 4 x 100g salmon fillets, 1 small piece of ginger, cut into matchsticks, a little sesame oil (optional), sliced spring onions, toasted sesame seeds and cooked rice, to serve

Method

1. *Make the sauce and marinade. In a small bowl, whisk together the soy, honey, garlic and mirin and set aside.*
2. *Cut out some squares of foil. Using scissors cut out 4 squares of foil, each about 30cm square. Brush each piece of foil with a little oil and bring the edges of the foil up a little.*
3. *Fill your parcels. Place a couple of broccoli stems on each one, then sit a salmon fillet on top and scatter over the ginger.*
4. *Spoon over the sauce. Spoon the sauce over each salmon fillet and drizzle with a little sesame oil, if you like.*

5. *Close the parcels. Fold over the edges of the foil together to seal and place the parcels on a baking sheet. Can be prepared up to 1 day ahead.*
6. *Cook the parcels. Heat oven to 200°C/180°C fan/gas 6. Get your child to place the parcels in the oven for 15-20 mins, but ensure an adult removes them, and then leave to stand for a few mins. Serve each parcel on a plate and let each person open it themselves. Serve with spring onions and sesame seeds for scattering over, and some rice on the side.*

Exercise 4. The text below is an article published by World Health Organization on its website to inform international travelers about an outbreak of pneumonic plague in Madagascar. The article also informs about the risks, symptoms and measures to be taken in case of infection. Provide two translation versions of the text: one which requires very accurate and exact translation for the official website of the WHO Country Office in the Republic of Moldova and a selective translation version for an online publication that targets the broad audience.

Plague – Madagascar

Situation

An outbreak of pneumonic plague is ongoing in Madagascar since August 2017. As of 30 September 2017, 73 cases (suspected, probable and confirmed) of pneumonic plague were reported by the country, 17 of whom have died. In addition, 58 cases of bubonic plague, including seven deaths, have been reported throughout the country. Most affected districts and cities include: Antananarivo (the capital city and its suburbs), Toamasina, and the rural district of Faratsiho. Cases were reported also from: Ambatondrazaka, Ambohidratrimo, Andramasina, Ankazobe, AnosibeAn'ala, Anta-Atsimondrano, Anta-Avaradrano, Anta-Renivohitra, Arivonimamo, Faratsiho, Maevatanana, Mahajanga I, Miarinarivo, Moramanga, Toamasina I, Toamasina II, Tsiroanomandidy, Vohémar, and Ambalavao. Plague is an endemic disease in Madagascar, with cases of bubonic plague being reported nearly every year, particularly during the epidemic season between September and April.

However, the ongoing pneumonic plague remains an unusual and serious event, particularly since it is occurring in densely populated coastal cities.

Advice for international travellers

Based on the available information to date, the risk of international spread of plague appears very low. The WHO advises against any restriction on travel or trade on Madagascar based on the available information. International travellers should be informed about the current plague outbreak, the fact that plague is endemic in Madagascar, and should receive advice on prevention, post exposure chemoprophylaxis, and where to seek medical treatment should they develop plague related symptoms.

Travellers should also be aware that Madagascar is endemic for malaria and should consider the antimalarial prophylaxis recommended by WHO when travelling to Madagascar.

The risk of infection with *Yersinia pestis* for international travellers to Madagascar is generally low. However, travellers in rural areas of plague-endemic regions may be at risk, particularly if camping or hunting or if contact with rodents takes place. In addition, travellers to previously non-endemic regions from where cases of pneumonic plague have been recently reported should avoid crowded areas, avoid contact with dead animals, infected tissues or materials, and avoid close contact with patients with pneumonic plague. Travellers can protect against flea bites using repellent products for personal protection against mosquitoes, which may equally be protective against fleas and other blood-sucking insects. Formulations (lotions or sprays) based on the following active ingredients are recommended by the WHO Pesticides Evaluation Scheme: DEET, IR3535, Icaridin (KBR3023) or Picaridin. WHO guidance for control of rodent fleas that transmit bubonic plague can be found below:

Pesticides and their application: for the control of vectors and pests of public health importance. In case of sudden symptoms of fever, chills, painful and inflamed lymph nodes, or shortness of breath with coughing and/or blood-tainted sputum, travellers should immediately contact a medical service. Prophylactic treatment is only recommended for per-

sons who have been in close contact with plague cases, or with other high-risk exposures (such as bites from infected fleas or direct contact with body fluids or tissues of infected animals). Travellers should immediately notify health care personnel or authority in case of contact and potential exposure to pneumonic plague patients or other high-risk exposures and seek medical advice regarding chemoprophylaxis. Travellers should avoid self-administration with antibiotics as prophylaxis, unless recommended by medical professionals. Upon return from travel to Madagascar, travellers should be on alert for the above symptoms, and if symptoms appear, they should seek medical care and inform their physician about their travel history to Madagascar.

Exercise 5. Translate the text into your mother-tongue in accordance with its type, linguistic peculiarities, purpose and addressee.

I'm sorry, but I don't want to be an emperor. That's not my business. I don't want to rule or conquer anyone. I should like to help everyone – if possible – Jew, Gentile – black man – white. We all want to help one another. Human beings are like that. We want to live by each other's happiness – not by each other's misery. We don't want to hate and despise one another. In this world there is room for everyone. And the good earth is rich and can provide for everyone. The way of life can be free and beautiful, but we have lost the way.

Greed has poisoned men's souls, has barricaded the world with hate, has goose-stepped us into misery and bloodshed. We have developed speed, but we have shut ourselves in. Machinery that gives abundance has left us in want. Our knowledge has made us cynical. Our cleverness, hard and unkind. We think too much and feel too little. More than machinery we need humanity. More than cleverness we need kindness and gentleness. Without these qualities, life will be violent and all will be lost....

The aeroplane and the radio have brought us closer together. The very nature of these inventions cries out for the goodness in men – cries out for universal brotherhood – for the unity of us all. Even now my voice is reaching millions throughout the world – millions of despairing

men, women, and little children – victims of a system that makes men torture and imprison innocent people.

To those who can hear me, I say – do not despair. The misery that is now upon us is but the passing of greed - the bitterness of men who fear the way of human progress. The hate of men will pass, and dictators die, and the power they took from the people will return to the people. And so long as men die, liberty will never perish.

Soldiers! don't give yourselves to brutes – men who despise you – enslave you – who regiment your lives – tell you what to do – what to think and what to feel! Who drill you – diet you – treat you like cattle, use you as cannon fodder. Don't give yourselves to these unnatural men – machine men with machine minds and machine hearts! You are not machines! You are not cattle! You are men! You have the love of humanity in your hearts! You don't hate! Only the unloved hate – the unloved and the unnatural! Soldiers! Don't fight for slavery! Fight for liberty!

In the 17th Chapter of St Luke it is written: “the Kingdom of God is within man” – not one man nor a group of men, but in all men! In you! You, the people have the power – the power to create machines. The power to create happiness! You, the people, have the power to make this life free and beautiful, to make this life a wonderful adventure.

Then - in the name of democracy – let us use that power - let us all unite. Let us fight for a new world – a decent world that will give men a chance to work – that will give youth a future and old age a security. By the promise of these things, brutes have risen to power. But they lie! They do not fulfil that promise. They never will!

Dictators free themselves but they enslave the people! Now let us fight to fulfil that promise! Let us fight to free the world – to do away with national barriers – to do away with greed, with hate and intolerance. Let us fight for a world of reason, a world where science and progress will lead to all men's happiness. Soldiers, in the name of democracy, let us all unite!

(Final Speech from “The Great Dictator”)

Exercise 6. Write the translation brief for a project (book, article, report, website, etc.). Describe the translation project in

terms of topic, subject area, source and target languages, document format. Establish the source and target-text intention and communicative purposes. Determine the recipient (audience) both of the source-text and the target-text, as well as the desired reader response. Establish a prospective budget for the translation project and a deadline.

Selected further reading:

Bell R. Translation and Translating: Theory and Practice. Longman. London and New York. 1991. 298 p.

Dimitriu R. Theories and Practice of Translation. Iasi: Institutul European. 2002.

Nida E. Theories of Translation. TTR: traduction, terminologie, rédaction. 1991, vol. 4, no.1, pp.19-32.

Pym A. Exploring Translation Theories. Routledge. London, New York. 2014. 178 p.

Pym A. Translation Theory as Historical Problem-Solving. Based on a Public Lecture in 2010 hosted by the Rikkyo Graduate School of Intercultural Communication. 2010.

UNIT V. CONTEXT AND TYPES OF CONTEXT

Learning objectives:

1. Define the notion of “context”;
2. Determine different types of context;
3. Establish the importance of context in translation;
4. Analyse the (extra-)linguistic context for appropriate translation versions;
5. Recommend suitable translation versions depending on the contextual meaning.

CORE THEORY

Translation is understood as an act of carrying the meaning of a text from one language to another. This process involves interpretation of meaning of the ST and producing the same meaning in another language. For a successful conveyance of any text into the TL, however, it is very important to be aware of the context in which the text is situated. No matter if we talk about document translation, e-learning materials or movie subtitling, a proper understanding of the context is of vital importance.

Context means the entire environment in which the word or sentence is expressed or stated. So, when it comes to communication in any language, context is really central, since it influences the meaning of a phrase or sentence. a translator has to go into the background of the text to understand it. In translation, the context is very important as well, since one word may mean a different thing, depending on the context in which it is used. Thus, the translator first de-contextualizes the original text and re-contextualizes it for the target text. This forms a good contextualized translation.

The traditional notion of context is mainly static and cannot reflect the dynamic properties of communication. S.C. Levinson (2001, p. 23) notes that the scope of context should embrace “the social and psychological world in which the language user operates at any time” and that “context includes minimally language user’s beliefs and assumptions about temporal, spatial and social settings; prior, ongoing, and future

actions (verbal, non-verbal), and the state of knowledge and attractiveness of those participated in the social interaction in hand". J. R. Firth emphasizes the abstract nature of context in situation, noting that the context of situation is not merely a setting background for the words at a particular moment, but rather includes the entire cultural setting of speech and the personal history of the participants.

According to Dan Sperber and Deidre Wilson, context is a set of assumptions derived from the communicator's cognitive environment, including not only the co-text of an utterance but also the contextual factors such as the immediate physical environment, the participants' background knowledge like all the known facts, assumptions, beliefs, and cognitive abilities. The forming of a context is a dynamic process, and the conclusion of the preceding utterance can be the context of the next utterance. In verbal communication, significant to the interpretation of the utterance is not the immediate concrete environment but a series of assumptions that make up of the cognitive contexts.

In Eugene Nida's view, "contexts represent the principal means by which most people learn the meanings of at least 95% of their active and passive vocabulary". This is why dictionaries – bilingual ones, in particular – are regarded as unsatisfactory for professional translators, in spite of clear efforts, with more recently published dictionaries, to provide more context for each lexical entry. One famous set of examples through which E. Nida demonstrates how context disambiguates meaning concerns the verb to run, which includes among others, utterances such as: the boy is running; the horse is running; the snake is running on the lawn; the clock is running; his heart is running; the car is running – if we were to refer only to one basic meaning of this verb, that of 'rapid movement,' to which many others could be added.

At word level, a number of scholars like Peter Newmark (1991), claimed that "some words are more context-dependent or bound than others", the least context-bound being specialized terms for which a one-to-one term-concept relationship is established.

Beyond the word level of translation and the context(s) it triggers, in linguistic approaches, the sentence has also been regarded as a satisfactory level for completing meaning and transferring it into another

language. While seeking the context of a text there may be two categories of factors that may influence the meaning of the text: **linguistic context** and **situational context**.

Linguistic context cites the linguistic factors influencing the meaning of the text. Any word in the text is not present in isolation but interacts with other words in the text and with the whole text at large. This interaction among words determines their meaning rather than its isolated meaning. For example, see the use of word ‘twist’ in these sentences.

- 1) to *twist* someone’s arm,
- 2) to *twist one’s* ankle,
- 3) a *twist* in the story,
- 4) a *twist* in the path.

Linguistic context can either be *immediate* or *remote*. *Immediate* context refers to the words or sentences that make the context evident through the whole text. *Remote* context pertains to the existence of word or sentence *in another time or place for specific reasons*. It may refer to author using the word somewhere else or there may be special reasons to use that word or phrase.

In relation to this concept one can delimitate:

The **narrow context** (or microcontext) – the context of the sentence. There are two subtypes:

- a) the syntactic context (syntactic constructions);
- b) the lexical context (lexical units, phrases).

The **broad context** (macrocontext) – beyond the sentence (a group of sentences, a paragraph, a chapter).

N. S. Dash (2005) classifies context into four broad types: (1) Local Context, (2) Sentential Context, (3) Topical Context, and (4) Global Context. The local context refers to one or two words immediately before and after the key word under investigation, the sentential context refers to the next circle immediately beyond the local context, the topical context refers to the wider circle beyond the sentence level and to the topic of the text where the key word has been used, the global context refers to the world at large. Although such a stratified layering of the contexts is not always explicit in a piece of text, it helps to visual-

ize how the contexts should be interpreted for understanding the actual contextual meaning of a word.

Situational context is a much broader concept than the linguistic context and sometimes can be interpreted differently by different people. It refers to the factors of situation and circumstances influencing the meaning of a text. These factors are little harder to be recognized than linguistic ones. The situational factors may pertain to the facial expressions, gestures and stances at micro level and the social, political and economic milieu and the culture at large. Context, for the purposes of practical translation in the commercial and government sectors, consists of the following five factors relevant to the understanding of source text and the production of target text: *co-text*, *rel-text*, *chron-text*, *bi-text*, and *non-text*.

The aspects of context (environment, setting) that are most significant for the purposes of translation are concerned with the features of context that influence meaning. Professional translators do not limit their contextual focus to the text surrounding a word or phrase. When assigning meaning to a source text, one must not limit one's focus to only those aspects of the situation that are linguistic in nature.

Many non-linguistic variables can help determine the meaning of source materials, including who wrote the material, what situation that person was in, and surrounding cultural events that may clarify the intentions of the writer.

The category of text can be subdivided into the *text at hand* (the *source text*) and *other text*. Often translators are only provided with the source text, even when understanding other texts could be essential to providing an acceptable translation. Such other texts could include other works in the same field that explain the meanings of technical terms or could include other works by the same author that help explain how certain passages should be understood. Within the category of other text there are: *monolingual documents* relevant to understanding the source material and producing the target text and *bi-lingual documents*, e.g. texts and their translations, side by side. Both mono-lingual and bi-lingual resources can be especially relevant to creating translations that are both accurate and consistent with other translations of similar

documents. Mono-lingual resources of various kinds are called *rel-text*, and bilingual texts and information derived from them are called *bi-text*. The source text is the most commonly utilized form of context. A phrase is usually understood in light of the text that surrounds it. This surrounding text is often called *co-text* or *verbal context*.

Equally important to producing the best translation are earlier and later versions of the same source-text document. When available, these other versions shed light on how a text reached its current version and, therefore, can elucidate the intended meanings of the text at hand. These other versions can be called *chron-text*.

Language should be considered a part of culture and understood in its context. The translator must be giving over the top stress to understand the context so as to produce a good contextualized translation. B. Malinowski points out that to understand the meaning of what is said, one should not only consider the particular context of utterance but also take into account the cultural characteristics of the society as reflected in the context of situation in which particular types of utterances are typically produced and which are themselves regarded as embedded in the context of culture.

Context plays a vital role in selecting the right meaning of a word with multiple meanings. In such cases, machine translation will not be such a good idea, as machines will not distinguish between the two settings and the translation can be misleading or even completely inaccurate. It is omnipresent, but relative. It affects technical terms and neologisms less than general words; it permeates a structured text and touches disjointed texts rather lightly. Where a writer deliberately innovates, the translator has to follow him, and blow the context.

Translation Studies scholars might consider doing research in the area of translation errors (by machine translation systems and by humans) in order to categorize errors that are context-based, as opposed to errors that have nothing to do with context. Such studies may provide evidence for relative importance of the five types of context, at least for a particular set of project specifications.

Translation teachers can also contribute to a long-term solution by providing needed context to translation students, and helping the stu-

dents to find a way to particular translation problems. In an article on contexts in translation, A. Melby and C. Foster (2010) aptly notice that trainee translators/interpreters should study context in translation either for the purpose of analysing existing translations or for the purpose of improving the production of new translations.

PRACTICAL EXERCISES

Exercise 1. Decide whether the following statements about the notion of *context* are True or False. Correct the false statements:

1. Professional translators do not limit their contextual focus to the text surrounding a word or phrase, i.e. to the linguistic context.
2. Verbal context refers to surrounding text or talk of an expression.
3. Besides the immediate linguistic environment (words, clauses, sentences) in which a word appears, the linguistic context includes the physical situation, which includes time, place, the people and even the whole cultural background.
4. The topical context refers to the immediate circle of the keyword as it can provide the most vital information regarding the contextual meaning of a word.
5. Situational context refers to every non-linguistic factor that affects the meaning of a phrase.

Exercise 2. Translate the following context-free language structures.

Middle Ages, the Isle of Man, Newfoundland, Holy See, Dead Sea, Golden Stag, Hanging Gardens of Babylon, hung parliament, Beauty of Bath, B.C. roll, Wellington boots, Act of God, Green Jack-ets, Baked Alaska, House of Commons, the common sandfish, white tie, white collars, Ashdown Foresters, wishing well, wishful thinking, power nap, weathercock, the Roma community, eye socket, dry cleaning, Coat of arms, coat of mail, drumstick, Nice biscuit, Eton mess, chair-person, Organ Hall, pot luck, Dover sole, cloud-computing, Armenian

apple, Dutch baby, Swiss cheese, soap opera, communicable diseases, communicable ideas.

Exercise 3. Translate the following sentences with careful attention to the linguistic context of the words in *italics*:

I. 1. The tea kettle *whistled* on the stove. 2. The bullet *whistled* past his head. 3. Wind *whistled* through the cracks in the windows. 4. I *whistled* down a cab. 5. The referee *whistled* that the play was dead. 6. Jo immediately sat up, put her hands in her pockets, and began to *whistle*. 7. He is the attorney who blew the *whistle* on governmental corruption. 8. Andy shrugged his shoulders, and gave an acquiescent *whistle*. 9. The boy walked down the path *whistling* a happy tune. 10. There is no whine of the panther, no *whistle* of the catbird, nor any invention of the devilish Mingoos, that can cheat me. (James Fenimore Cooper)

II. 1. Yes, he and Eradicate were having an argument about who should *move* a heavy casting from one of the shops. (Victor Appleton). 2. After waiting for an hour, we decided it was time to *move*. 3. “Speak to him, ladies, see if you can *move* him” (Shakespeare). 3. After he was laid off, he *moved* on and started looking for another job. 4. We have just *moved* house and are planning to paint some of the rooms. 5. The cut in interest rates was a wise *move*. 6. A week before the deal, they made a *move* to pull out. 7. A few amber clouds floated in the sky, without a breath of air to *move* them. (Washington Irving, The Legend of Sleepy Hollow). 8. Anger seized me, my fingers refused to *move*, I sat rigid for one long moment, the blood throbbing in my temples, and all the hatred that a child can feel concentrated in my heart. (Helen Keller). 9. Now, let’s *move* on to the political factors that will cause war to cease. 10. Financially, they think it’s a sound *move* to have four people share the rent.

III. 1. The image *flashed* onto the screen. 2. I was dragged to my feet from behind by my captor as police burst through the door and the room ignited with the blinding glow of several *flash* lights. 3. She suddenly *flashed* back to the moment when the car hit her. 4. In the second chapter, the book *flashes* back to the protagonist’s childhood. 5. His anger really flashes out at times. 6. The answer came to him in a *flash*. 7. They’re rich but they don’t *flash* their money around. 8. Did you hear the *flash* about

the king's death? 9. She made no mention of her encounter with death and her *flash* of terror, except to say to her husband, "I thought I should have perished out there alone". (Kate Chopin, *The Awakening and Selected Short Stories*). 10. He *flashed* a card and was allowed to pass.

Exercise 4. Substitute the *italicized* words in the sentences below with words that best suit the context. Translate the sentences:

1. It's a good idea for married couples to discuss their plans in case of each other's *demise*. For example, do they wish to be buried or cremated?

a. *death* c. *desire to divorce* b. *success* d. *concern*

2. The press *assailed* the mayor for giving large city construction jobs to his brother-in-law's firm.

a. *searched for* c. *attacked* b. *paid* d. *fined*

3. One *tenet* of Islam is that its followers should not drink alcohol.

a. *answer* c. *teaching* b. *prediction* d. *guarantee*

4. Toddlers are naturally *inquisitive*. Because they are so interested in their surroundings, they are eager to explore everything.

a. *unreliable* c. *curious* b. *clumsy* d. *tired*

5. After x-rays were discovered in 1895, there were some *preposterous* reactions. For example, London merchants sold x-ray proof underwear.

a. *logical* c. *dangerous* b. *ridiculous* d. *delayed*

6. The foolish defendant *waived* his right to an attorney and instead spoke for himself in court.

a. *depended upon* c. *wrote* b. *greeted* d. *gave up*

7. Sexual standards in England during the 1800s were so strict that it was considered *sordid* for women to reveal their legs in public.

a. *proper* c. *popular* b. *impossible* d. *indecent*

8. Young children believe their parents are perfect, until they become teenagers, when their parents suddenly become quite *fallible*.

a. *unhealthy* c. *imperfect* b. *dangerous* d. *skilled*

9. America has often been called a "melting pot" into which people of many different cultures *assimilate*.

a. *learn* c. *avoid each other* b. *leave* d. *blend*

10. The Englishman John Merrick's illness gave him such a *grotesque* appearance that he was called "the Elephant Man." Despite people's reactions to his abnormally large head and twisted body, Merrick remained affectionate and gentle.

a. *strong* c. *grey* b. *deformed* d. *childlike*

Exercise 5. Translate the sentences into English paying attention to the contextual meaning of the *italicized* words.

1. Am zărit-o azi în *carne* și oase. / Vegetarienii nu mănâncă niciun fel de *carne*.

2. Copilul s-a speriat de propria *umbră*. / Ieri au fost 30 de grade la *umbră*.

3. Din fericire *s-a aflat* acolo la momentul potrivit. / *S-a aflat* de faptul că ai încercat să dai mită.

4. Zăpada încă nu *s-a topit* în această zonă. / *S-a topit* când a auzit dedicația de ziua ei.

5. Zahărul și mierea sunt *dulci*. / Este un copil *dulce* și mi-e foarte drag să petrec timpul cu el.

6. Emisiunea care te interesează va fi difuzată la *prânz*. / *Prânzul* de astăzi constă dintr-o supă de legume și salată cu pui.

7. *Creșterea* economică va atrage după sine încrederea altor investitori. / *Creșterea* aluatului este o etapă importantă în producerea unei pâini bune.

8. Nu putea clipi pentru că îi intrase ceva în *ochi*. / Fiind în grabă, a uitat un *ochi* de la aragaz aprins.

9. Nu-i mai tace *gura*. / Cu un astfel de comportament a intrat în *gura* lumii.

10. Au lăsat în urmă un *uriaș* morman de gunoi. / Un nume *uriaș* al *literaturii* a încetat din viață.

Exercise 6. Determine the contextual meaning of the words in *italics*. Explain what clues in the sentence helped you determine the word meaning. Translate the sentences:

1. John could not focus on the assignment with the *incessant* chatting that was occurring all around him.

2. When John received the job offer, he was so overcome with *felicity* that he could barely find the words to accept it.

3. After being bitten by snake, the cowboy *writhed* in pain on the ground.

4. Stanley tried to determine the meaning of the vocabulary word, but there were so few clues in the sentence all he could do was hopelessly *conjecture* as to what the word might mean.

5. John gave me two tickets to the basketball game, but I have an *aversion* to going to crowded places like sports arenas, so would you like to have them?

6. The principal concluded his speech, “Now that I have introduced the new program, I will answer a few questions, so long as they are *pertinent* to the matter at hand.”

7. This magical sword is called Everest-Tooth because it was forged on the mountain from which its name is *derived*.

8. Ronald hated the detention room because it was absolutely devoid of warmth and *cheer*.

9. The *magnanimous* judge released the young offender who had been caught stealing bread by saying, “Everybody has to eat,” and slamming down his gavel.

10. My daughter would never have behaved in this way had she not been *actuated* by her feelings for that no-good Larry.

Selected further reading:

Baker M. In Other Words – a Course Book on Translation. Beijing: Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press, 2000.

Dimitriu R. The Many Contexts of Translation (Studies). In: Linguaculture. 2015, pp. 5-23.

Halliday M.A.K. The notion of Context in Language education. In Text and Context in Functional Linguistics. Philadelphia: John Benjamins Publishing Company, 1999.

Hatim B., Munday J. Translation. An Advanced Resource Book. Routledge Applied Linguistics. London and New York, 2004. 373 p.

UNIT VI. EQUIVALENCE IN TRANSLATION

Learning objectives:

1. Define the notion of “equivalence” in translation;
2. Determine different types of equivalence and their characteristics;
3. Establish the role of fidelity in translation;
4. Recommend translation versions, preserving the form, message and functions of the source-text;
5. Justify the type of equivalence used in translation.

CORE THEORY

Equivalence is a key concept in the process of translation. In fact, one cannot think of translation without taking equivalence into consideration. J. C. Catford’s definition of translation equivalence (1965): “translation equivalence occurs when an SL and a TL text or item are relatable to (at least some of) the same features of substance” was the foundation for G. Toury’s (1980): “translation equivalence occurs when a SL and a TL text (or item) are relatable to (at least some of) the same relevant features.”

In general, there are three types of equivalence: *formal*, *functional* and *ideational* equivalence.

Formal equivalence (also *structural equivalence*, *linguistic equivalence* or *textual equivalence*) seeks to capture the form (image employed in the SL expression) of the SL expression, while *functional equivalence* seeks to capture the function of the SL expression independently of the image. It translates the SL expression into a TL expression that performs the same function. It is used in opposition to literal translation.

Ideational equivalence aims at conveying the communicative sense of the SL expression independently of function and form. That is to say, the translator seeks to relay the meaning of the SL expression regardless of functional and formal equivalence.

J. C. Catford looks at equivalence from the perspective of the ability of the translator to maintain at least some of the same features of

substance indicated in the original text. Therefore, the translator's task is to ensure that all the relevant features of the SL message are reflected in the TL text. Consequently, J. C. Catford distinguishes between two types of equivalence: *formal equivalence*, which is the occupation of the same place as in the SL text and *textual equivalence*, which can give a probable indication of meaning. J. C. Catford groups the instances where no corresponding formal features or cultural elements occur under the "untranslatability" type. They are instances where the translator should only transfer but not translate.

More communicatively oriented, E. Nida speaks of formal equivalence with attention to the message both in form and content and *dynamic equivalence* which is seeking the closest natural equivalence to the SL message. The concept of '*closest natural equivalent*' is explained by E. Nida (1964, p. 166) as follows: *equivalent*, which points towards the SL message; *natural*, which points towards the TL; *closest*, which binds the two orientations together on the basis of the highest degree of approximation.

In discussing the fate of the concept of equivalence, O. Kade (1968) proposes four types of translation equivalence between ST and TT:

– *total (one-to-one) equivalence* (e.g. proper names) is when one SL item corresponds to one TL item. Good examples are technical terms like the names of chemical elements.

– *facultative equivalence (one-to-several or several-to-one)*, where there are many different correspondences at the level of expression but a one to one correspondence at the level of content (e.g. German *schreien*; English 'shout, scream'). An item in one language corresponds to several in the other language. There are two ways to understand this. For example, the English word '*key*' corresponds to '*cheie*, '*cod*, '*tastă*', '*dezlegare*' in Romanian. When used in a context, however, the translator will usually know what kind of '*key*' is being referred to and will have few real choices to make. A different example would be the Spanish term '*competencia*' (domain of activity exclusive to a governmental or administrative organism), which could be rendered by *responsibility*, *mandate*, *domain*, *competence*, etc. Unless a one to one equivalent has been established in a certain situation (e.g.

competencia = competence), the translator will have to choose between the alternatives. The result will be choice-based equivalence.

– *approximate equivalence (one-to-part)* refers to one to one correspondence on the expressive level and partial correspondence on the content level (e.g. English ‘*turtle, tortoise*’; German ‘*Schildkröte*’). Only partial equivalents are available. For example, the English term ‘*brother*’ has no full equivalent in Chinese, Japanese, or Korean, since the corresponding terms have to specify whether the brother is older or younger. Whichever choice is made, the equivalence will only be “approximate”.

– *zero equivalence (one-to-none)*, where there is a one to zero correspondence at both the level of expression and the level of content (e.g. ‘*Sashimi*’) No equivalent is available in the TL. For example, most languages did not have a term for a computer a century ago. When that term had to be translated, the translators could use a circumlocution (a phrase to describe the object), they could generate a term from within the TL (e.g. French *ordinateur* and Iberian Spanish *ordenador*), or they could borrow the form of the English term (e.g. German *Computer*, Danish *computer*, Russian *компьютер*, or Latin American Spanish *computadora*). Some cultures prefer to import or represent foreign terms; others prefer to generate new terms from their own existing resources.

V. Gak and B. Grigoriev (2000) distinguish the following types of equivalents:

formal equivalence (similarity of words and forms):

The sun disappeared behind a cloud – Soarele s-a ascuns după un nor.

The sun disappeared behind a cloud – Солнце скрылось за тучей.

semantic equivalence – exists when the same meanings are expressed in the two languages in a way.

Troops were airlifted to the battlefield – Trupele au fost dislocate pe câmpul de luptă pe calea aerului.

Troops were airlifted to the battlefield – Войска были переброшены по воздуху на поле.

situational equivalence – description of the same situation in SL/TL.

I meant no harm – Scuze, nu am vrut să vă supăr/ să fac rău/ să deranjez.

Простите, я нечаянно.

Y. Retsker (2007) differentiates among the following types:

absolute equivalents – this is a case when a source language word is semantically, stylistically and emotionally synonymous to a target language word (*geographical names, proper names, technical terms*).

partial equivalents: the range of meaning does not coincide in two languages.

Browse in English – to access a network by means of a browser.

Browse in French – *naviguer* (surf) and *fureter* (unauthorized browsing).

formal correspondent – any TL category, which may be said to occupy, as nearly as possible, the ‘same’ place in the system hierarchy of the TL as the given SL category occupies in the SL (unit, class, structure).

Window (en), *fereastră* (ro), *окно* (ru)

textual equivalence – any TL form (text/portion of text) which is observed to be equivalent of a given SL form (text/portion of text). The main criterion for text equivalence is the **identity of contextually relevant features**: cohesion, coherence.

I have arrived. – Am sosit.

O. Kade suggested four types of equivalence:

total equivalence: a SL unit has a permanent equivalent in the TL (terms, institutional names),

optional equivalence: a given SL unit has several equivalents in the target language (in German: *Spannung*, in English: *voltage, tension, stress*)

approximate equivalence: the meaning of a SL unit is divided between two TL equivalents Romanian: *rai/ cer*; English: *heaven/sky*,

zero equivalence: the SL unit does not have a TL equivalent (re-alia).

M. Baker identified three categories:

referential equivalence: the TL text should refer to the same segment of reality, to the same facts, events and phenomena as the SL text.

contextual equivalence: individual sentences should occupy the same position in the whole of the TL text as their correspondents in the whole of the SL text.

functional equivalence: the TL text should play the same role in the community of TL readers as the SL text in the community of SL readers (this role may involve transfer of information, provoking certain emotions, appeal, etc.).

Many translation scholars today agree that equivalence is to be understood as an approximate concept – necessarily so because of the enormous complexity of the translational act. Translation is always subject to grammatical, lexical-semantic, terminological-phraseological and genre- and register-related constraints as well as extra-textual, contextual and situational constraints. A consideration of equivalence stems from A. Pym (2010). A. Pym suggested the existence of two basic types of equivalence: **natural equivalence**, existing independently of the translator's actions, and **directional equivalence**, i.e. equivalence from the SL to the TL.

In conclusion, we could highlight a few important aspects:

Non-equivalence happens when a few or none of the important aspects of the source and target language coincide.

Non-equivalence happens when there is no functional equivalent in the target language for a specific SL terminology. It is the translator's challenge to descriptively paraphrase the term or phrase followed by the original in parenthesis. This particular translating situation requires the translator to be closely familiar with the source and target language/culture, so that the paraphrased term is appropriate.

What is requested from a translation is that it has the same function, that the entire content is rendered. There should be the same text-type and structure, style, minimal implicit source-text revision, good native, an invisible, professional and individual translator. Also, there should not be special space constraints. The same type, medium and adequate time is required. A careless translation might suggest translation was made in an unusual hurry.

P. Fawcett (1997) suggests an important equivalence “check-list”, which includes five frames of reference constituting word and text meaning:

- Denotation meaning/referential meaning/ the object or concept referred to.
- Connotational meaning. This includes nine subcategories: language level/elevated, poetic, formal, normal, familiar, colloquial, slang, vulgar, sociolect/ the jargon of different social groups such as students, dialect/ the language of particular region, medium/ written or spoken, style/ old-fashioned, trendy, etc., frequency/ common versus rare words, domain/ normal, scientific, technical, value/positive versus negative and emotional tone/ neutral, cold, warm, etc.
- Textual norms/ the kind of language typical of such things as legal texts or instructions for use, etc.
- Pragmatic meaning/ reader expectations.
- Linguistic form/ rhyme, rhythm, metaphor, etc.

In the following pages, a few strategies are suggested to cope with equivalence:

Addition of information. Information which is not present in the SLT may be added to the TLT. Additional information may be put in the text (in brackets) or out of the text (using a footnote). Such additional information is regarded as an extra explanation of culture-specific concepts and is obligatory specification for comprehension purposes. According to P. Newmark, information added to the translation is normally cultural, technical or linguistic. The technique serves stylistic as well as strategic purposes. The technique needs to be used in order to compensate for the linguistic (structural, stylistic and rhetorical) differences that exist between any two languages.

The policeman waved me on – Polițistul mi-a făcut semn că pot pleca.

Fuel tax protests – протесты, связанные с повышением налога на топливо.

Deletion of information. If the meaning conveyed by a particular item or expression is not vital enough to the development of the text, translators can and often do simply omit translating the word or expression in question. There are cases where omission is required to avoid redundancy and awkwardness and this strategy is particularly

applied if the SL tends to be a redundant language. If the meaning conveyed by a particular item or expression is not vital enough to the development of the text, translators can and often do simply omit translating the word or expression in question. There are cases where omission is required to avoid redundancy and awkwardness and this strategy is particularly applied if the SL tends to be a redundant language. The interpreter might omit, without noticing, because they did not have enough processing capacity for the Listening and Analysis Effort when the speech was uttered. The interpreter can omit because it disappears from the short-term memory. The interpreter/translator decides deliberately not to render the whole message in the TT when this information has little value or there might be a risk of high saturation. The interpreter/translator can omit the information that might be offensive, culturally inappropriate.

*Summer rains in Florida may be violent, **while they last** – Летом во Флориде бывают сильные ливни.*

*Protejarea integrității datelor **aferente** tranzacțiilor de e-banking – To protect the data integrity of e-banking transactions.*

Structural adjustment also called **shift** (J.C. Catford) or **transposition** (J.P. Vinay and J. Darbelnet) or **alteration** (P. Newmark) and refers to a change in the grammar from SL to TL. The **alteration of form** may mean changes of categories, word classes, and word orders.

She looked awkward. She would be easy to catch – Părea dezorientată. O pradă ușoară.

The trees were dark in colour, and mournful in form and attitude – Темные деревья склонялись как бы под гнетом скорби.

Loan-words are used to imitate the form of the SL word or word combination in TL, *as often as* not such occasional formations are adopted by the members of the TL community and get the status of regular equivalents.

impeachment – impeachment / impiciment; impeachment – импичмент

Approximate substitutes – TL words with similar meaning which is extended to convey additional information.

Drugstore – farmacie / Drugstore – аптека

Explanations or describing the meaning of the SL words through several words in lieu of translating it.

Sometimes interpreters use this technique when they forget the TL equivalents or don't know them.

Brinkmanship – politica de tip „totul sau nimic”/ Brinkmanship – доведение опасной ситуации до предела.

PRACTICAL EXERCISES

Exercise 1. Provide examples for the following types of equivalence.

Total equivalence (e.g. ‘white collars’ – ‘gulere albe’, ‘белые воротнички’).

Partial equivalence (e.g. ‘all sugar and honey’ – ‘numai lapte și miere’, ‘сахар-медович’).

Zero equivalence (e.g. ‘to kick the bucket’ – ‘a da ortul popii’, ‘сыграть в ящик’).

Exercise 2. Determine the equivalents of the words in italics in the given word combinations.

A) 1. *Flying* saucer, *flying* weather, *flying* apparatus, *flying* Dutchman; 2. A *bad* wound, a *bad* debt, *bad* language, a *bad* mistake, *bad* cold, *bad* light, a *bad* name; 3. *Hard* currency, *hard* life, a *hard* line, *hard* drugs, *hard* sell, a *hard* drinker; 4. A *regular* visitor, a *regular* pulse, *regular* features, a *regular* procedure, *regular* army; 5. A *strong* wind, *strong* language, *strong* walls, a *strong* supporter, *strong* faith, *strong* drink, *strong* evidence, *strong* measures.

B) 1. To *deliver* a speech, to *deliver* a verdict, to *deliver* a blow, to *deliver* a parcel; 2. To *draw* the curtains, to *draw* breath, to *draw* a conclusion, to *draw* inspiration, to *draw* a line; 3. To *make* sense, to *make* a film, to *make* an impression, to *make* notes, to *make* a list, to *make* a scene, to *make* one's living; 4. To *keep* promise, to *keep* an appointment, to *keep* rules, to *keep* a family, to *keep* a diary, to *keep* one's distance; 5. To *launch* a rocket/missile, to *launch* a ship, to *launch* an offensive, to *launch* a new company, to *launch* a new book.

Exercise 3. Establish the equivalents of the proverbs in your mother tongue. Determine the type of equivalence that applies in each case.

1. A drowning man clutches at a straw. 2. All that glitters is not gold. 3. Necessity is the mother of invention. 4. There is an exception to every rule. 5. Strike while the iron is hot. 6. There is no smoke without a fire. 7. The end justifies the means. 8. A man is known by the company he keeps. 9. A miss is as good as a mile. 10. A stitch in time saves nine. 11. All's fair in love and war. 12. An apple a day keeps the doctor away. 13. Don't throw pearls to swine. 14. Every man for himself, and the Devil take the hindmost. 15. God helps those who help themselves.

Exercise 4. Determine the ideational equivalents (colloquial expressions are possible) of the English expressions in italics.

1. Zack *turned a deaf ear* to his father's suggestion.
2. My brother *stuck to his guns* despite all my endeavours.
3. My friend is going *to move heaven and earth* in order to get the new job.
4. I want you to tell me the story *from A to Z*.
5. All of us hate Mona because she's *an apple polisher*.
6. We should be patient with Ramsy because he's still *wet behind the ears*.
7. Mary knows how *to seize opportunities*.

Exercise 5. Provide the literal translation and the free translation of the following sentences. Make your own conclusions based on the quality of the translation.

1. *After years of slowly moving up the ranks, Joe finally became king of the hill in his office.*
2. *Jason sent Phillip a fax before Monday's show, with the greeting: 'Break a leg and enjoy yourself'.*
3. *We wanted to have a barbecue this weekend, but it's been raining cats and dogs since Friday evening.*
4. *Everyone had their money on the reigning champion, but he was beaten six ways to Sunday by the newcomer.*

5. *Jenny: “The experiment might work better if you actually knew what you were supposed to be mixing together.” Steve: “You know what, Jenny? Why don’t you go fly a kite?”*

6. *Many restaurants were charging an arm and a leg for poor quality food.*

7. *We have been working round the clock to solve this issue with your security system, but it’s going to take us another 24 hours to get it back online.*

8. *Practicing meditation has helped me to be as cool as a cucumber in times of trouble.*

9. He thought that the police would never find him but when he saw the officer coming towards him, he realised that his goose was finally cooked.

10. Our latest software update is nearly finished we just need to iron out a few wrinkles before it’s ready for release.

Exercise 6. Read a literary work (novel, short-story, poem, play) in English and its translation version(s) in Romanian/Russian. Compare the translation version(s) with the original in terms of lexical accuracy, semantic fidelity and preservation of the stylistic effect(s) in translation.

Exercise 7. Read the essay on how to succeed in today’s challenging economic environment. Identify and explain the idiomatic expressions in context. Translate the essay into your mother tongue and mention the strategies you used to achieve equivalence.

The Road to Success

The road to success is paved with failures. That’s a hard truth, but one that needs to be faced when considering how you are going to make a go of it in life. It’s quite simple, to come out ahead we need to find careers that we can do with all our heart and soul, but that also allows us to come out ahead at the end of the day. Unfortunately, we can’t live off the fat of the land although indigenous people did so for thousands of years. We now live in an era that is highly structured and requires us all to make sacrifices as we jockey for a position in life.

Let's call a spade a spade: It's dog eats dog out there in the real world! There are so many stumbling blocks for young adults these days. From high unemployment to the high price of higher education — not to mention all the red tape we have to deal with — it's hard to succeed!

However, with dedication, it's possible to succeed in the long run. In fact, with dedication, we can find something that appeals to us. Once we find our special talent, we can carry the torch of the tradition we have chosen. This might be in education, health care, having your own business, or even in politics!

Each of us is capable of doing something that takes everyone's breath away if only for a moment. Getting there might mean that we have to fly by the seat of our pants from time to time, but, as they say, necessity is the mother of invention. Along the way, we'll need to figure out how to foot the bill, but on the horizon, we'll have the hope of doing something more purposeful with our time.

(Source: ThoughtCo, Idioms in context)

Exercise 8. Translate at sight the following sentences:

The *school* was built in 1932.

What will you do when you finish *school*?

He was a member of the Venetian *school* of painting.

A *school* of small glittering fish swam by.

The *school* keeps parents informed.

He never missed a single day of *school*.

Selected further reading:

Basil H. Teaching and Researching Translation. Routledge, 2014. 326 p.

Catford J. C. A Linguistic Theory of Translation. London: Oxford University Press, 1965. 103p.

House J. Translation Quality Assessment. Past and Present. Routledge, 2014. 160 p.

Krein-Kühle M. Translation and Equivalence. In: J. House (ed.) Translation: a Multidisciplinary Approach. Palgrave Macmillan, 2014, pp. 15-36.

Leal A. Equivalence. In: Y. Gambier (ed.) Handbook of Translation Studies. Vol 3. John Benjamins Publishing Company, 2012, pp. 39-46.

Munday J. *Introducing Translation Studies Theories and Applications*. London and New York: Routledge, 2001. 222 p.

Nida E. *Toward a Science of Translating*. Leiden: E. J. Brill, 1964. 331p.

Pym A. *Translation and Text Transfer. An Essay on the Principles of Intercultural Communication*. Tarragona: Intercultural Studies Group, 2010. 215 p.

UNIT VII. TRANSLATION METHODS AND TECHNIQUES

Learning Objectives:

1. Distinguish between “translation method” and “translation technique”;
2. Determine various types of translation methods and techniques;
3. Describe the peculiarities of the translation methods and techniques;
4. Apply different methods and techniques in translation;
5. Assess the appropriateness of the techniques used in the translation versions.

CORE THEORY

The translation process has always been related to such concepts as “translation mechanism,” “translation stages,” “intellectual operations,” “selection process,” ‘strategies’, ‘methods’, ‘procedures’, ‘techniques’ “creativity”, and “assessment”. Without the knowledge of these concepts which contemporary linguistics have put within the translator’s reach, the empirical translator will continue to be embroiled in continued puzzles which will take up precious time and, most important of all, they will be condemned to using literalisms which are the universal cause of all manner of mistakes. There is no single effective approach to translation, and over time, the translators develop personal techniques that enhance the quality and the speed of their translation. Only systematic practice can provide translators with mastery over these procedures with which they can achieve certainty, ease and speed.

The following key concepts shall be considered when tackling the topic of translation:

Translation strategies are the procedures used to solve translation problems;

Translation methods relate to whole texts;

Translation procedures are used in relation to sentences;

Translation techniques refer to the micro-unit of the translated text.

A. Chesterman (1997) proposed a classification of translation strategies into:

Syntactic strategies that fall into:

Literal translation: It means the translator follows the source text form as closely as possible without following the source language structure.

Loan translation: refers to the borrowing of single terms and following the structure of the source text which is foreign to the target reader.

Transposition: that refers to any change in word class, for example, adjectives translated into nouns.

Clause structure change: refers to a strategy in which the changes affect the organization of the constituent phrases or clauses (changes from active to passive).

Sentence structure change: means a change in the relationship between main clauses and subordinate ones.

Cohesion change: refers to intra-textual cohesion. This strategy mainly takes place in the form of reference by pronouns, ellipsis, substitution or repetition.

Semantic strategies:

Synonymy– out of a multitude of synonyms, the translator selects the closest synonym, which is not the first literal translation of the source text word or phrase (e.g. procure – *a face rost, aobține, a cumpăra, a achiziționa, a procura*).

Hyponymy – it means using a member of larger category (*rose* is a hyponym in relation to *flower*).

Converses – it refers to pairs of opposites expressing similar semantic relationships from the opposite perspectives (*husband and wife, east and west, employer and employee*).

Abstraction change – concerns shifting either from more abstract terms to more concrete ones or vice versa (*five vs five horses /building vs Mary's house*).

Paraphrase strategy – creates a liberal approximate translation, some lexical items may be ignored in this sort of strategy.

Pragmatic strategies:

Cultural filtering – it may be described as the concrete realization, at the level of language, of the universal strategy of domestication or target culture-oriented translation. This strategy is generally used while translating culture-bound items.

Explicitness change – a situation when some information of the source text maybe added or deleted to make the text more or less explicit.

Interpersonal change – used to affect the whole style of the text to make it more or less informed, technical.

Visibility change – a strategy that increases the “presence” of either the author of the source text or its translator (e.g. footnotes that are added by the translator).

Coherence change – concerns a higher textual level (i.e. combining different paragraphs to each other in a way different from the source text).

Partial translation – refers to translating a part of a text, not the entire text.

M. Baker lists several strategies which are used by professional translators, to cope with the problematic issues while doing a translation task.

Translation by a more general word –this is one of the most common strategies to deal with many types of non-equivalence. As Baker believes, it works appropriately in most, if not all, languages, because in the semantic field, meaning is not language dependent.

To shampoo one's hair = a se spăla pe cap

Translation by a more neutral/ less expressive word –this is another strategy in the semantic field of structure.

They jumped over the fence = Au trecut gardul

Translation by cultural substitution – this strategy involves replacing a culture-specific item or expression with a target language item considering its impact on the target reader. This strategy makes the translated text more natural, more understandable and more familiar to the target reader.

Морозко = Father Frost

Translation using a loan word or loan word plus explanation –this strategy is usually used in dealing with culture-specific items, modern concepts, and buzz words. Using the loan word with an explanation is very useful when a word is repeated several times in the text. At the first time the word is mentioned by the explanation and in the next times the word can be used by its own. It needs to be explained the first time it is used in a text/message and then, the loan word is used without the lengthy explanations.

Little boy – малыш (кодовое название одной из атомных бомб, сброшенных США на Японию) / băiețelul/(numele de cod al bombei atomice lansate deasupra orașului Hiroshima)

Translation by paraphrase using a related word –this strategy is used when the source item is lexicalized in the target language but in a different form, and when the frequency with which a certain form is used in the source text is obviously higher than it would be natural in the target language.

Beautiful terraced gardens = grădini frumoase create pe terasă

Translation by omission –this may be a drastic kind of strategy, but in fact it may be even useful to omit translating a word or expression in some contexts. If the meaning conveyed by a particular item or expression is not necessary to mention in the understanding of the translation, translators use this strategy to avoid lengthy explanations.

An old man was driving it all alone =De data asta, pe capră se afla un singur căruțaș bătrân.

Each theorist offers their own strategies according to their perspective; however, Baker's (1992) taxonomy of translation strategies include the most applicable set of strategies, because it shows the strategies which are used by professional translators.

The Croatian linguist Vladimir Ivir (1987) distinguished seven strategies: borrowing (*pub*), definition (*common law*), literal translation (*kindergarten*), substitution (*mile – kilometre*), lexical creation (*surgical strike = bombardament chirurgical*), omission and addition.

There are strategies for interpretation as well:

Task-related strategies

Off-line strategies have to do with creating and consulting sources for specific knowledge acquisition (glossaries, reference documents, ency-

clopaedias, etc.) and preparing for interpreting assignments by highlighting specific terms, names, numbers or segments when written material is available in the booth, archiving and indexing documents for future use.

On-line strategies – note-taking in CI, using the help of the booth mate, asking the speaker for help in CI, consulting written material in the booth.

Processing strategies

The strategy of waiting – when faced with temporarily vague strings of meaning, interpreters may wait for a few seconds until further constituents contribute to the disambiguation of the incoming message.

The strategy of stalling – using neutral expressions or hesitation fillers when searching for or trying to remember a missing item, word or even a sentence structure.

The segmentation strategy – the segmentation of input is based on units of meaning. SL pauses assist interpreters in segmenting the SL message. In 90% of the cases interpreters have been more inclined to ignore the SL chunking and impose their own segmentation of the input (exception – German).

The anticipation strategy – all researchers distinguish between two types of anticipation: linguistic/syntactic (syntactic structure of the SL, formulas and collocations) and extralinguistic anticipation (verbal, situational and cognitive contexts and world /encyclopaedic knowledge).

Communicating content strategies

Reductive strategies – lexical or syntactic compression/reduction of words/redundancy/.

Adaptive strategies – TL conventions of expression, in particular cultural adaptations which interpreters may apply to bridge gaps brought about by differences between the SL and TL cultures or when the SL discourse contains facts or events known to the SL audience but not necessarily known to the TL audience.

P. Newmark stated that translation procedures are used for sentences and the smaller units of language. A translation procedure is also known as the local translation strategy applied in the translation of individual expressions in the ST, such as *words, grammatical constructions, idioms* etc.

The translating procedures, as depicted by E. Nida (1964) are the following

Technical procedures: analysis of the source and target languages; a thorough study of the source language text before making attempts to translate it; making judgments of the semantic and syntactic approximations.

Organizational procedures: constant re-evaluation of the attempt made; contrasting it with the existing available translations of the same text done by other translators; checking the text's communicative effectiveness

The translation procedures that P. Newmark (1988b) proposed are:

Transference: it is the process of transferring an SL word to a TL text. It includes transliteration and is the same as what Harvey (2000:5) named "transcription."

Naturalization: it adapts the SL word first to the normal pronunciation, then to the normal morphology of the TL [*music* = *musik*].

Cultural equivalent: it means replacing a cultural word in the SL with a TL one. however, "they are not accurate" (Newmark, 1988b:83) [e.g. *salted fish* = *ikanasin* (Indonesian food)].

Functional equivalent: it requires the use of a culture-neutral word. (Newmark, 1988b:83). To neutralise or generalise a SL cultural word by using a culture-free word [*baccalauréat* = *French secondary school leaving exam*].

Descriptive equivalent: in this procedure the meaning of the CBT is explained in several words [*Samurai* = *Japanese aristocracy from the eleventh to the nineteenth century*].

Synonymy: it is a "near TL equivalent." Here economy trumps accuracy (Newmark, 1988b:84) [*hot pants* = *женские облегающие шорты*].

Through-translation: it is the literal translation of common colloquations, names of organizations and components of compounds. It can also be called: calque or loan translation [*marriage de convenance* = *marriage of convenience*].

Shifts or transpositions: it involves a change in the grammar from SL to TL, for instance, (i) change from singular to plural, (ii) the change required when a specific SL structure does not exist in the TL,

(iii) change of an SL verb to a TL word, change of an SL noun group to a TL noun and so forth [*a pair of shoes = o pereche de pantofi*].

Modulation: it occurs when the translator reproduces the message of the original text in the TL text in conformity with the current norms of the TL, since the SL and the TL may appear dissimilar in terms of perspective [*here we go = погнали!*].

Recognized translation: it occurs when the translator normally uses the official or the generally accepted translation of any institutional term [*General Assembly = Adunarea Generală*].

Compensation: it occurs when loss of meaning in one part of a sentence is compensated in another part [Tu/Dvs. = You].

Paraphrase: in this procedure the meaning of the CBT is explained. Here the explanation is much more detailed than that of *descriptive equivalent* [*Emma burst into tears and he tried to comfort her = Emma a început a plânge și el a încercat să o consoleze.*].

Couplets: it occurs when the translator combines two different procedures [*матрешка = a matryoshka doll (a Russian doll)*].

P. Fawcett stated that basically, a translator has two options for translating. There are several translation techniques available under each option.

Direct translation techniques

a) Borrowing: *sputnik, sushi*

Borrowing basically means that the translator makes a conscious choice to use the same word in the TT as it is found in the ST. This is usually the case when there is no equivalent term in the TL. This technique allows the translator to place a text clearly within a particular cultural context through the register of the vocabulary it uses. Being one of the most used translation techniques, borrowing is used mainly out of necessity, due to the fact that a certain word does not exist in the target language. A lot of borrowed words are used in the spoken language every day and most of the borrowed words come from English and they are usually technical terms.

b) Calque: *marché aux puces – flea market*

A *calque* is a word or phrase borrowed from another language by literal, word-for-word translation. Calques are often encountered in

specialized or internationalized fields. Some calques can become widely accepted in the TL.

c) Literal translation: *The team is working to finish the report – echipa lucrează ca să finalizeze raportul.*

Literal translation, also called “formal equivalence” by E. Nida, is a translation that follows closely the form of the SL. It is also known as word-for-word translation. Although literal translation might work just fine for technical texts such as instruction leaflets and manuals, it has a big flaw when it comes to everyday expressions. In this case, translating word for word generates a nonsensical text that sounds awkward and not fluent.

Indirect translation technique

a) Transposition: *după moartea sa = after she died*

changing the sequence of parts of speech; for example, rendering a noun in Romanian with an English verb.

b) Modulation: *ultimul etaj = top floor*

using a phrase that is different in the source and target languages to convey the same idea.

c) Reformulation or equivalence: *don't put all your eggs in one basket = не клади все деньги в один карман.*

expressing something in a completely different way, as is common, for example, when translating idioms or proverbs that do not have direct equivalents in other languages

d) Adaptation: *Being on a sticky wicket = в щекотливой ситуации*

expressing something specific to the source language culture in a totally different way that is more familiar in or appropriate to the target language culture.

e) Compensation: *Quai D'Orsay = French Foreign Ministry*

expressing somewhere else in the target text something that cannot be translated and whose meaning would be lost in the immediate translation.

PRACTICAL EXERCISES

Exercise 1. Match each notion on the left with its correct definition on the right. This is an odd one out task.

- | | | |
|-------------------------------------|-------|--|
| <i>a. Translation technique</i> | i. | relates to whole texts. |
| <i>b. Word-for-word translation</i> | ii. | attempts to produce the precise contextual meaning of the original within the constraints of the TL grammatical structures. |
| <i>c. Literal translation</i> | iii. | 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. |
| <i>d. Translation procedure</i> | iv. | is the procedure for solving translation problems. |
| <i>e. Faithful translation</i> | v. | the SL word order is preserved and the words translated singly by their most common meanings, out of context. |
| <i>f. Translation method</i> | vi. | refers to the micro-unit of the translated text. |
| <i>g. Semantic translation</i> | vii. | involves a change in the grammar from SL to TL. |
| <i>h. Adaptation</i> | viii. | the SL grammatical constructions are converted to their nearest TL equivalents, but the lexical words are again translated singly, out of context |
| <i>i. Translation strategy</i> | ix. | is used for sentences and the smaller units of language. |
| <i>j. Free translation</i> | x. | 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. |

- k. Idiomatic translation* xi. differs from ‘faithful translation’ only in as far as it must take more account of the aesthetic value of the SL text.
- l. Communicative translation* xii. it produces the TL text without the style, form, or content of the original.
- xiii. 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.

Exercise 2. Translate the sentences using the techniques in brackets.

1. In August 1989, Hungarian border guards for the first time allowed people from East Germany to cross freely into Austria, paving the way for the fall of the Berlin Wall three months later and with it the end of the Iron Curtain. (Sentence fragmentation)

2. Avoid extreme temperatures by maintaining a constant, comfortable climate between 50- and 90-degrees Fahrenheit. (Adaptation)

3. Let’s take my new ride out for a spin. (Modulation)

4. Labour isn’t just the party of equality. It is also, crucially, the party of solidarity. (Sentence integration)

5. But when it finds a host, a virus can multiply and spread rapidly. (Transposition)

6. When board members are confronted with active and vocal shareholders rather than the silent majority, it’s as the adage goes: the squeaky wheel gets the grease. (Equivalence)

7. The studies suggest engineers failed to anticipate the impact of water shortages on the dam. (Modulation)

8. We believe that the problems we face on the climate crisis are systemic and that fundamental societal change is needed. (Transposition)

9. Having a déjà vu can be a happy as well as a shocking experience, depending on the stimuli that may have been fed into your subconscious over a period of time. (Borrowing)

10. Our independence means we can interrogate inaction by those in power. (Paraphrase)

11. He also organises field trips to the Hexagon with his high school every three years. (Modulation)

12. Cities are testing new systems to reduce the pollution and congestion. (Modulation)

13. There have been a lot of crazy rumours flying around for the last few days, so I'd like to set the record straight once and for all. (Equivalence)

14. The sports of hockey, curling and ice skating are loved by Canadians in particular. (Modulation)

15. My role in the campaign is to play devil's advocate to each new policy before it's introduced to the public. (Calque)

Exercise 3. Identify the idioms and translate the sentences using the appropriate techniques.

1. The government is blaming the immigrants for the banking crisis, but they're barking up the wrong tree there.

2. The weather's lovely, let's have our lunch al fresco on the terrace.

3. I'm going to get to Cornwall by nightfall, come hell or high water.

4. Just be careful to keep your purse safe when you go down to the market – there are plenty of tea leaves ready to steal it.

5. I'd love to join the choir but my audition was a disaster. The conductor said I had Van Gogh's ear for music.

6. Joseph Swan had the first working lightbulb but Edison filed the first patent and effectively stole Swan's thunder.

7. Two bottles of wine at home and then four pints in the pub - he was totally Brahms by ten-o'clock.

8. Only the staff in the security department knew the safe's combination and it wasn't forced open. It had to be an inside job.

9. The company has gone belly up - they had millions in debts and their only customer went elsewhere.

10. She's always ready to be a backseat driver and tell people what to do but she never does anything herself.

Exercise 4. Translate the text. Name the translation method and the techniques you used in the process of translation.

Long-term memory is what most people think of as memory. It contains our factual knowledge - Rome is the capital of Europe - as well as recollections of our experiences - a fishing trip last July. Long-term memory, unlike short-term memory, can file away a virtually unlimited amount of information. Even though much information eventually gets lost or distorted, long-term memory can retain a considerable amount of data for decades.

If *short-time memory* is the mind's desktop, then long-term memory is its filing cabinet. Scientists are just beginning to understand the sophisticated system of storage and retrieval that keeps back of long-term memory's voluminous contents. One characteristic of this system is that it tends to file similar memories together...

Memory researchers classify long-term memories into three general types based on the kind of information they hold. These types are *semantic* (our memory for facts, word meanings, and other information we can rapidly recall), *episodic* (our memory for special events), and *procedural* (our memory for skills) ...

We think of memory as holding the past, but it also enables us to make plans for the future. When we need to remember to pick up the groceries or keep an appointment, we are using another type of long-type memory called *prospective memory*. Lapses in prospective memory are some of the most common kinds of everyday memory failures.

(From *Why Do We Forget? What Can We Do about It?*

Source: *Year Book*, 1991)

Exercise 5. Translate the following sentences into your mother tongue, avoiding literal translation.

1. She was very house-proud. There wasn't a speck of dirt in her kitchen.

2. Unfortunately Mary is not usually asked to dance by anyone. She's a wall-flower.

3. We both appear 20 years younger on screen. Being a couple of vain old-timers, we're happy with that.

4. Some journalists are perfectly honest and well-meaning but she just makes a profit from gossip and rumour. Sally's a cheap scandal-monger.

5. A small accident like that won't appear in the papers. It isn't newsworthy enough.

6. There are a lot of stones and rocks in my garden. I want to free-up an area for roses.

7. It was drizzling. As people rushed along, they began opening umbrellas over their heads, and all at once the streets were crowded, too.

8. She detested the trams constantly packed with people pushing into one another's hate-filled embraces, stepping on one another's feet, tearing one another's coat buttons, and shouting insults.

9. The most important thing to know about prehistoric humans is that they were insignificant animals with no more impact on their environment than gorillas, fireflies or jellyfish.

10. The scientists are calling for a worldwide ban on the sparkly, shiny pieces of plastic that decorate everything from eyelids to greetings cards to furniture.

Exercise 6. Translate the text, avoiding word for word translation and resorting, instead, to paraphrasing, reformulation, and restructuring of the source text.

The story of the Bicycle

As people try to use less energy, and find alternatives to cars, more and more people are buying, and riding, bicycles. But where did the bicycle come from? Who invented this "velocipede"?

You may be surprised to learn that the humble bicycle was invented several years later than the railway locomotive! But the two-wheeler has come a long way since the day it was invented by a Scottish blacksmith, Kirkpatrick MacMillan, back (it is said) in 1839.

MacMillan developed his bike from an older wheeled vehicle, called a "hobby horse". This was a wooden horse with two wheels. The rider sat on the horse, and pushed the vehicle along with his feet. It was not a very fast or safe vehicle, since it had no steering and no brakes.

MacMillan, nicknamed Mad Pate, modified the hobby horse, by adding a system of articulated bars. The rider could push the bars back and forwards with his feet, and make the back wheel go round. He could also steer the bike, as the front wheel could be turned.

To demonstrate his invention, he cycled 60 miles to Glasgow! It must have been a terrible journey, on the roads of the day! Pate's bike did not have rubber tyres or springs.

Mad Pate was not recognised in his time, but other people became interested in bicycles. Twenty-five years later, a Frenchman called Pierre Lallemand designed and patented the first bicycle with rotary pedals; and in 1876, H. J. Lawson added another basic feature, "chain-drive".

Other features, such as rubber tyres and gears, have appeared since then; but the basic bicycle has not changed.

Since then the bicycle has had a magnificent fortune. Today, it is probably the most common form of transport in the world, especially in the Third World; and non-polluting and easy to ride, it has a big future as the town vehicle of tomorrow. Thanks Pate!

(Source: Linguapress.com)

Selected further reading:

Chesterman A. Memes of Translation. The Spread of Ideas in Translation Theory. John Benjamins Publishing Company, 1997. 219 p.

Hatim B., Munday J. Translation. An Advanced Resource Book. Routledge Applied Linguistics. London and New York, 2004. 373 p.

Munday J. Introducing Translation Studies Theories and Applications. Routledge, London and New York, 2001. 222 p.

Newmark P. Approaches to Translation. New York: prentice Hall, 1988. 200 p.

UNIT VIII. LANGUAGE INTERFERENCE AND FALSE FRIENDS

Learning objectives:

1. Define the notion of translator's "false friends";
2. Establish the sources of linguistic confusion;
3. Determine various types of language interference;
4. Assess the impact of false analogies on the quality of translation;
5. Employ different means to avoid language interference.

CORE THEORY

There are words in the SL and the TL that are more or less similar in form. Such words are of great interest to the translator since they are naturally inclined to take the formal similarity for the semantic proximity and to consider the words that look alike as permanent equivalents. The formal similarity is usually the result of the two words having the common origin, mainly derived from either Greek or Latin. Since such words can be found in a number of languages, they are referred to as "international".

The concept of *false friends* (FF) was born bearing precisely the idea that the English word seems to be "friendly" to the student-translator. Being very similar in form (either graphic or phonetic) to some notions already known by the speaker from their language, the English word helps them to produce communication in English too, relatively easier than when using totally new and unknown words. Still, these helping "friends" turn out to have very different meanings from those believed on the basis of the similarity with the mother tongue, being deceptive and tricky. Thus, they finally prove to be "false", pretended, and very much less friendly than expected.

The term 'translator's false friend' is a calque of the French 'les faux amis du traducteur' — an expression which refers to the phenomenon introduced into linguistic literature in 1928. The expression was coined by the French linguists Maxim Koessler and Jules Derecquigny.

False friends, also called *deceptive cognates*, pose numerous problems both to those who have only just begun learning foreign languages and experienced translators. In social context, improper use of some words may cause a burst of laughter or result in awkward silence for a while. As regards specialist translations, however, such a seemingly trivial error in translation may have serious consequences.

The following sources of confusion can be identified in translating false friends: sources related to *behavioural aspects of the speaker* (wrong choice of words due to directness and spontaneity of conversations) and sources concerning *the linguistic approach*.

As far as the human element is regarded, it happens because of the normal tendency to use the most familiar words that come to one's mind when talking, as an unconscious and uncontrolled means of producing fluent and higher speed communication. This comes naturally and unnoticed because of the similarity with the mother tongue of the speaker. It should be noted that this is true for the mistakes that are not very dangerous, neither creating too much confusion nor hindering the real comprehension of the general facts communicated. Of the same category of behavioural aspects, laziness is another cause for the production of false friends.

In what the linguistic issue is implied, etymology is the first responsible. These words may have a common root, from an original language that both languages derive from or have borrowed and assimilated the particular word from. Some similar meanings can be preserved, more or less, in both languages, as main senses or, on the contrary, as figurative or secondary. But new meanings can develop and there are restricted or enlarged senses that influence the future development of the word in one language as distinct from the other. Distinct changes of meanings, the development of a polysemy, in certain circumstances, or of a simply different particularization would bring about such confusions with these words. There might appear situations when there is no connection between the two words, but a misunderstanding will still occur because of a chance similitude in form or pronunciation.

Here are some examples of words that look similar in two languages, but have quite different meanings. For instance, '*gift*' is another

word for present, but in German, 'gift' means 'poison'. The English word 'actual' resembles the Romanian 'actual', the French 'actuel (*lament*)' or the German 'aktuell'. In reality, though, it translates as 'de fait', 'eigentlich, wirklich', 'vraiment'.

False friends are also called *interlanguage synonyms*, *homonyms* and *paronyms*.

Interlanguage synonyms are words that coincide in one or more meanings. Beside similar meanings, they have some special meanings. For example, both words 'concert' – 'концерт' have the meaning of 'a musical performance', but the English word has the second meaning: 'agreement in purpose, feeling, or action'. The Russian word has acquired a generic meaning of 'any performance (reciting, drama extracts, etc.)'. Thus, they can be equivalents in only the first meaning and somewhat erroneous in their second meaning.

Interlanguage homonyms are words that have no common meanings, like 'accord' – 'аккорд'. The English word means 'agreement, harmony; a settlement or compromise of conflicting opinions; a settlement of points at issue between the nations.' The Russian word is more specific, meaning 'musical chord'.

Interlanguage paronyms represent words with similar but not identical sound, and with different meanings. For instance, the Russian word 'экземпляр' denotes 'a copy', whereas the English 'example' indicates 'a representative of a group as a whole; a case serving as a model or precedent for another that is the same or similar'.

Along with the notion of false friends, the term *interference* is also encountered in many books of translation, foreign language learning and linguistics and is predominantly related to lexemes and semantics. The classic definition of interference was offered by Uriel Weinreich: "those instances of deviation from the norms of either language which occur in the speech of bilinguals as a result of their familiarity with more than one language" (p.1). Another definition is provided by P. Newmark in "A Textbook of Translation": "literal translation from SL or third language that does not give the right or required sense". (p.283) Javier Franco Aixelà defines interference as "the importation into the target text of lexical, syntactic, cultural or structural items typical of

a different semiotic system and unusual or non-existent in the target context.” (p.75)

Andrejs Veisbergs (p.33-45) distinguishes among the following types of interference:

Orthographic and phonetic interference is frequently unavoidable and natural and, when proper names are to be transferred, the prototype naturally conditions the reproduction. Phonological interference can be observed in the anglicized pronunciation of some abbreviations and initialisms.

Morphological interference can be seen in the change of morphemes under the influence of the SL.

Lexical interference may be the result of deliberate decision as well as carelessness. For a translator, not knowing or finding a corresponding equivalent, an occasional loan is the easy solution. Frequently, there is no lexical equivalent in the TL. Cultural realia are frequently loaned in this form – the TL element may seem better, more precise, better sounding, more fashionable. Lexical interference and borrowing can, in the long run, occasionally lead to the replacement of the old word or term by the new one from the dominant contact language.

Semantic interference is caused by an overlap of meanings between the source lexical units and the target lexical units, which are only partial equivalents. Semantic interference can take a variety of forms, the simplest being importation of a new meaning, but there is frequently an extension or narrowing of meaning, or connotative change. Full substitution of meaning is rare.

Idiomatic, phrasal interference includes the deliberate use of a ST idiom, usually a loan translation which is frequently used in translation. It may also occur in incorrect translation of idioms which the translator or speaker either does not recognize or misinterprets. This interference usually takes the form of direct translation of idioms and, sometimes, collocations. Most phraseological interference is deliberate in order to retain original SL metaphors, style, peculiarities and often because there is no equivalent or analogue and the phrase is incomprehensible.

Syntactic interference. Simple grammatical interference should definitely not appear in professional translations, as it indicates poor

TT quality. Compared to other forms, grammatical interference mostly does not cause misunderstanding of the original meaning, but it frequently reveals that the text is a translation. A problem in syntactic interference is, for example, the different frequency of the syntactic patterns in the language pair.

Cultural interference occurs in cases where the translator has been unable to deal with a cultural difference between the SL culture and the TL culture. It is usually lexical, phraseological or semantic in form. It often involves the names of local institutions, historical personal names, period terms, historical events, customs, works of art, street names that are unfamiliar in the target culture and language.

Textual, pragmatic, discourse conventions interference implies bringing new conventions, text type peculiarities and word-formation patterns into the TL.

It is important to bear in mind that false friends vary depending on language variety and language pairs. Although they can be tricky and annoying, they can be interesting as well. Given the fact that such words are tricky, students need to become aware of the danger of words sounding familiar. This is easiest to be done when the task to do is translation, as then it can be clearly mentioned that there is a certain number of words that are “false friends” and that have to be identified and the mistakes can be thus avoided by use of synonyms. Nevertheless, direct, live translation or face to face conversations are much more difficult to consciously and permanently control so deeply as to be capable of instantly recognizing and quickly finding a replacement for a word that might be problematical. Such an endeavour, however, not only impedes fluency and clarity of communication unless the person talking is a very skilful speaker of his/her English as a foreign language, but it proves very difficult for the ordinary speakers and learners.

Linguists have provided various classifications for false friends.

The classification by Vladimir Ivir (1987) includes:

Internationalisms

True pairs with the same meanings – examples of true pairs with same meanings, same usage and same collocational potential are very rare and mostly include scientific terms (*molecule/ moleculă*).

False friends with completely different meanings (*actual/actual*).

False friends with a partial overlap in meanings (*administration – administrație, guvern, autorități*).

Made up pairs (*supraproducție – hyperproduction* [correct: *over-production*]).

False friends without similarity in form

This category is similar to the false friends with partial overlap in meaning, but in this case, there is no counterpart that is similar in form. An example is *a deschide* which can be translated as *discover, uncover, unveil, reveal* and *disclose* depending on the context.

Collocations

An example of this type is *sare de bucătărie* which in English is *table salt*, but is frequently wrongly translated as *kitchen salt* as the result of literal translation of the Romanian term.

Classification proposed by Andrejs Veiseberg (1996)

Proper false friends

Absolute – pairs of words in the respective languages which are monosemantic in both or one language and this meaning differs from that of its counterpart.

Partial – pairs of words in the respective languages where the L1 word is more polysemantic than L2 word, i.e. in one or several meanings the words are identical but in some meaning different.

Nuance differentiated word pairs – have the same denotative meaning, yet have slight semantic, usually connotative differences. The difference can have a variety of reasons and features (register, use).

Accidental or occasional false friends are pairs of collocations, which do not have any common etymology and comprise pairs by coincidence, since they “belong to a different logico-subject group”.

Pseudo false friends

These word pairs are considered as new and very creative expressions that actually do not exist in the target language (TL). The resemblance of L1 and L2 causes that people use a word from their L1 in the L2. They believe that the word must exist in the TL as well. For instance, the Russian word *narcoman* might be used in English on the presumption that it is originally taken from English. Pseudo-anglicisms

are invented by learners of other languages than English, who assume such words to be loan words of English.

P.J. Chamizo-Dominguez (2008, p. 4) distinguishes between:

Chance false friends

These are words that are similar or equivalent (graphically and/or phonetically) in two or more given languages, but without there being any semantic or etymological reason for this overlap: *burro* (Spanish – donkey) vs *burro* (Italian – butter).

Semantic false friends

These are pairs of words that are the same or similar (concerning spelling and/or phonetics) in two or more given languages and which are etymologically related: *actual* (English – existing in fact) vs *actuel* (French – current).

To overcome the issue of false friends, linguists and translators developed several types of dictionaries.

The basic FFs dictionary

It aims at drawing the user's attention to the diversity of meaning of the formally similar word pairs, offering, however, no explanation. The shortcoming of this dictionary type is that it can practically be used only in conjunction with another dictionary, as it offers neither explanation of the FF meaning in the L2, nor the correct variant for L1 word. Thus, the only function of this dictionary is that of awareness raising (informing the reader of the of the danger). This sort of dictionary normally covers only the subtype of complete false friends proper.

More expanded FFs dictionary

This one gives at least the main meanings of both FFs thus offering the users the possibility of judging for themselves the real difference in meanings and providing the correct variant. Some of these dictionaries also offer examples or/and translations of limited scope.

A detailed FFs dictionary

The third is going into in-depth analysis of the word pairs, often presenting excerpts from original texts, translations, covering all meanings of the entries, sometimes pointing out examples of wrong use. An academic dictionary of this type has a certainly smaller number of users as neither learners nor most of the advanced users would have time,

interest or ability to read the lengthy semantic analysis. Yet linguists or perfectionist users and translators may find this sophisticated approach of interest. Dictionaries of this type often present also confusable words and rather far-fetched cases.

Learner's dictionary of FFs

The fourth focuses on the most typical and frequent FFs pairs, analysing them and supplying a variety of exercises aimed at recognition and training of the right use. The learner's dictionary may sometimes be more like a textbook.

PRACTICAL EXERCISES

Exercise 1. Determine the consequences of different types of language interference. Enumerate the means translators and interpreters can use in order to avoid the negative impact of false friends.

Exercise 2. Translate the given words considering the possible language interference they can pose.

Library, soda, spectacles, auctioneer, camera, actual, agreement, consistent, support, decade, lecture, magazine, novel, pregnant, resume, sensible, terminate, appropriate, brilliant, prospect, parcel, gymnasium, data, resin, clay, insult, talon, carton, chef, concourse, injury, abort, cabinet, accolade, angina, accurate, operator, focus, academic, patron, principal, student, realise, family, anecdote, jar, accent, smoking, far, ballot, comma, ham, topic, physique, repetition.

Exercise 3. Considering the information below, provide examples of intralingual false friends and examples of false friends that affect non-verbal communication.

“False friends can be found also within one language, e.g. English. For an American person the word *suspender* means “braces”, whereas for a British person it means a “garter belt”. False friends may also affect non-verbal communication. The most common mistake made by Poles spending their holidays in Bulgaria is the wrong interpretation of

non-verbal confirmation or negation. In the culture of people living in the Black Sea region, a single nod of one's head up means "no" while turning it from the left to the right means "yes".

Exercise 4. Translate the text in written form. Pay special attention to the words *model, condition, collection, aspects*.

Illness

Illness and sickness are generally used as synonyms for disease. However, this term is occasionally used to refer specifically to the patient's personal experience of his or her disease. In this model, it is possible for a person to be diseased without being ill, (to have an objectively definable, but asymptomatic, medical condition), and to be ill without being diseased (such as when a person perceives a normal experience as a medical condition, or medicalizes a non-disease situation in his or her life). Illness is often not due to infection but a collection of evolved responses, sickness behaviour, by the body aids the clearing of infection. Such aspects of illness can include lethargy, depression, anorexia, sleepiness, hyperalgesia, and inability to concentrate.

Exercise 5. Replace the false friends in brackets with correct words to suit the context. Translate the sentences into your mother tongue:

1. I couldn't agree more. That's a (sensible) idea.
2. This brilliant writer started by writing (novels), then he focused on longer pieces of writing.
3. He loves (hazard). Whenever he gets some money he drives to Las Vegas and loses everything playing roulette.
4. She has a very good (gust) in clothes. Everything she buys is very fashionable and suits her very well too.
5. The national (hymn) of the United Kingdom is 'God Save the Queen'.
6. Milan and Paris are European capitals of (mode).
7. (Lunatics) walk while they are asleep and then they don't remember anything.
8. (Actually) vegetables are too expensive, even on the market!

9. Goods cannot be exchanged unless a sales (recipe) can be shown.
10. You should always be (sympathetic) to children.

Exercise 6. Determine what could be the false analogies of the following words: *silicon, particular, emits, tribute, exhibition, tariffs, counterpart, prejudice, patronizes, preservatives, policy, malice, physician, figure, fabric*. Fill in the gaps with the correct word. Translate the sentences:

1. On his burial, they paid _____ to him by singing his favourite song.

2. The _____ of car crashes has constantly been decreasing since 2004.

3. Measures were taken in order to improve the social _____.

4. Black people still have to face _____ in their everyday life.

5. I eat organic food because I think that _____ are unhealthy.

6. I am waiting for the _____ on Picasso.

7. The American worker works more than his French _____.

8. A 300 Bhp car _____ much more polluted gas than a city car.

9. He was convicted of murder with _____ aforethought.

10. The _____ of containment aimed at struggling against the development of communism.

11. I need to go and see my _____ because I suffer from Asthma.

12. _____ chips were a real revolution in the 1970's.

13. Importing an American car is very expensive because of the heavy _____.

14. I can't stand him, he always _____ me.

15. I am very _____ about the quality of my food.

Exercise 7. Identify the false friends in the sentences below. Look them up in the dictionary, state their true meaning. Substitute the false friends with correct contextual words and translate the sentences into your mother tongue:

1. They have to close down the plastic fabric because it has gone bankrupt.
2. Abel Korzeniowski is a Polish compositor of film and theatre scores.
3. Snowboarding has become one of the winter Olympics concurrences a few years ago.
4. If one wants to be successful in life one should be persistent and consequent.
5. Her brother plays the faggot in the National Philharmonic Orchestra.
6. Classroom assistance is to provide teachers with constructive critical feedback aimed at improving their classroom management and instructional techniques.
7. A new survey revealed that at least 89 per cent parents feel that Mathematics is the toughest object their kids study.
8. Publicly educated in the US means going to a school open to the children of anyone who chooses to pay the fees.
9. Before picking a bucket to send, look up its meaning on a site like About Flowers.
10. The frequency at the referendum must be at least 50% for the result to be binding.

Exercise 8. Translate the following sentences:

1. We need to accommodate our users to the realities of today's marketplace.
2. Salt has been used for centuries as a preservative.
3. The estimate was much less than the actual cost.
4. The eventual aim is reunification.
5. He became editor of the legendary Irish journal 'The Bell'.
6. I don't have much sympathy for her.
7. The council has decided that the local public libraries will close on Mondays.

Selected further reading:

Granger S., Swallow H. False Friends: A Kaleidoscope of Translation Difficulties. In: Langage et l'Homme, 1988, vol. 3, pp. 108-120.

Han O. False Friends: Among the Nightmares of a Translator or How to Befriend False Friends. pp.192-195. Available: <http://www.diacronia.ro/ro/indexing/details/A25199/pdf>

Havlásková Z. Interference in Students' Translations. Masaryk University, 2010. 113 p.

Hopkinson Ch. Factors in Linguistic Interference: A Case study in Translation. In: SKASE: Journal of Translation and Interpretation, 2 (1), Ostrava, 2007.

Leech G. Semantics. The Study of Meaning. Penguin Books, 1981. 383p.

Saganean G. Grammar Interference in Translating Socio-Political Texts from English into Romanian. In: Studia Universitatis Moldaviae, 2014, no. 10(80), . pp.139-142.

Veisbergs A. Translationese, Translatorese, Interference. In: L. Ilynska, M. Platonovaeds. Meaning in Translation: Illusion of Precision. Cambridge Scholars Publishing, 2016, pp. 25-51.

UNIT IX. LEXICAL, GRAMMATICAL AND SYNTACTIC TRANSLATION DIFFICULTIES

Learning objectives:

1. Identify the types of relations between the source-language system and the target-language system;
2. Analyse (non-)equivalent linguistic structures;
3. Determine the sources of translation difficulties;
4. Establish appropriate translation techniques to overcome lexical, grammatical and stylistic translation difficulties;
5. Apply lexical, grammatical and stylistic transformations in translating appropriately.

CORE THEORY

Since translation is a process of constant search for the transfer of a message from the Source Language (SL) into the Target Language (TL), it is often overwhelmed with many problems and difficulties that may be a result of the differences in both languages or differences in the cultures represented by them.

Among the linguistic problems touched upon in this chapter are some of the semantic, phonological, grammatical and stylistic challenges that any translator of any text could confront with.

We will also attempt to shed light on some cultural problems that may be more likely to be encountered in the translation process.

Translation difficulties arise from poor **ST comprehension, lexis and semantics, morphosyntax, writing style and register, spelling and punctuation, transfer and re-wording, cohesion and coherence.**

English, Romanian and Russian are typologically different languages. That is why no translation can be successful without major changes in lexical and grammatical structures of the TL text or message. As a rule, the object of translation is not a list of separate lexical units but a coherent text in which the SL words make up an integral whole. Although each word in the language has its own meaning, the

actual information it conveys in a text depends, to a great extent, on its contextual environment. The nature of words in context often causes ambiguity, which occurs when a sentence or an expression has more than one meaning. If the ambiguity is in a single word it is called lexical ambiguity; if it is in a sentence or clause, then it is grammatical or structural ambiguity. Lexical ambiguity is concerned with multiple interpretations of lexemes and can often be caused by the existence of homonymy and polysemy in the sentence.

A word is ambiguous if it involves two lexical items that have identical forms, but have distinct meanings. The most classical example of lexical ambiguity is the word *'bank'*, which may either denote an organisation providing financial services, or the side of a river. Further examples of lexical ambiguity are: *'bright'* – a bright (intelligent) person versus *'bright'* (sunny) weather, *'file'* – arranged collection of papers versus metal tool.

Grammaticality is an important feature of speech units. Words in a text are used in a particular grammatical form and all of them are arranged in sentences in a particular syntactic order. The syntactic structuring of the text is an important characteristic identifying either the genre of the text or its author's style. Though the bulk of the information in the original text is conveyed by its lexical elements, the semantic role of grammatical forms and structures should not be overlooked by the translator. It is known that languages differ in their grammatical structure. Apart from having different grammatical categories they differ in the use of those categories that seem to be similar. This naturally results in the necessity to introduce some grammatical changes in the translated version of any text. These changes depend on the character of correlation between the grammatical norms of SL and TL. Various as they are, all the possible changes may be classed under four main types: *transpositions, replacements, additions, and omissions.*

Transposition (changing the word order in the sentence) – very often the syntactic structure of the sentence undergoes changes during the process of translation. One of the most frequent transformations is transposition (change of word order). The English sentence is characterized by a very strict word order *subject + predicate + object +*

adverbial modifier. In Romanian, the word order is not that strict. In both languages the logical centre of the sentence (what's new in the sentence) is at the end of the sentence. However, there are frequent cases when the logical centre of the English sentence is at the beginning and in these cases, transposition is used in order to translate them.

In the process of translation grammatical units can be *substituted* by other grammatical units in the TL. The category of number exists both in English and in Romanian. As a rule, when translated, the nouns are used in the same number as in the original. *Replacement of parts of speech* or *conversion* (*verb for the noun, adverb for adjective, etc.*) is another case of grammatical substitution.

Addition means expanding the original text, which is caused by the necessity to fully depict its meaning, as well as by the differences in the grammatical structures of the SL and TL.

Omission, as a type of translation transformation, is the opposite of addition. It implies text compression in comparison with the original. Omission can be explained by the differences in the grammatical systems of the SL and TL.

In various communicative situations the language users select words of different stylistic status. There are stylistically neutral words that are suitable for any situation, and there are literary (bookish) words and colloquial words which satisfy the demands of official, poetic messages and unofficial everyday communication respectively. SL and TL words of similar semantics may have either identical or dissimilar stylistic connotation. The translator tries to preserve the stylistic status of the original text, by using the equivalents of the same style or by opting for stylistically neutral units. The principal stylistic effect of the text is created, however, with the help of special stylistic devices as well as by the interworking of the meanings of the words in a particular context. The speaker may qualify every object he mentions in his own way thus giving his utterance a specific stylistic turn. Such stylistic phrasing gives much trouble to the translator since the meaning is often subjective and elusive. Some phrases become fixed through repeated use and they may have permanent equivalents in TL, e.g. 'true love' – '*dragoste adevărată*'/ '*истинная любовь*', 'dead silence' — '*liniște mortală*'/

'мертвая тишина'. In most cases, however, the translator has to look for an occasional substitute, which often requires an in-depth study of the broad context.

The translation of metaphors, epithets, metonymies, similes, allusions forces many translators to perform their work very carefully. One of the most interesting aspects of the theory of translation is the problem of transfer of stylistic devices.

A translator uses techniques of transmitting certain stylistic devices used in the original in order to make the text brighter and more expressive. At all times, the translators had a dilemma: either to try to copy the original device, or, if the first variant is not possible, to create an original stylistic device in translation, that would have similar emotional artistic effect. The newbie translator should remember that the form is not as important as the function of a stylistic device in the text. Omitting a stylistic phenomenon, that is not expressible in the TL, the translator will repay "a debt" to the text, creating another image in a different place of the text – where it is most convenient, but with a similar stylistic orientation.

M. Baker proposes the following strategies for translating idioms or fixed expressions (p.71-78):

1) *Using an idiom of similar meaning and form.* This strategy involves using an idiom in the TL which conveys roughly the same meaning as that of the SL idiom and, in addition, consists of equivalent lexical items.

2) *Using an idiom of similar meaning but dissimilar form.* It is often possible to find an idiom or fixed expression in the target language which has a meaning similar to that of the source idiom or expression, but which consists of different lexical items. For example, the English expression *'One good turn deserves another'* and the French expression *'À beau jeu, beau retour'* (*'a handsome action deserves a handsome return'*) use different lexical items to express more or less the same idea.

3) *Translation by paraphrase.* This is the most common way of translating idioms when a match cannot be found in the TL or when it seems inappropriate to use idiomatic language in the TT because of differences in stylistic preferences of the SL and the TL.

4) *Translation by omission*. Sometimes idioms may be omitted in the TT because they have no close match in the TL, its meaning cannot be easily paraphrased, or for stylistic reasons.

5) *Compensation* is a strategy which is not restricted to idiomaticity or fixed expressions. It may be used to make up for any loss of meaning, emotional force, or stylistic effect which may not be possible to reproduce directly at a given point in the TT.

P. Newmark suggests the following procedures for translating metaphor, in order of preference:

1) *Reproducing the same image in the TL*. This procedure is employed if the image has comparable frequency and similar associations in the appropriate register. For example, *ray of hope/rază de speranță/луч надежды*. But associations may differ from language to language, becoming tricky for translation.

2) *Replacing the image in the SL with a standard TL image*. This procedure is frequent in translating similes: *‘ноги как ватные’ – ‘legs like jelly’, ‘to make mountains out of molehills’ – ‘a face din țăntar armăsar’*.

3) *Translating metaphor with a simile, retaining the image*. *‘Books are mirrors.’ – ‘Cărțile sunt ca oglinda’/ ‘Книги как зеркало’*. This transformation is used if there is risk that a simple transfer of metaphor will not be understood by most readers.

4) *Converting metaphor to sense, that is explanatory translation*: *‘She’ll come back, and we can turn the clock back.’ – Ea se va întoarce și totul va fi ca mai înainte’/ ‘Она вернется и все будет как прежде’*. This procedure is justified only in case of a dead metaphor. In other cases, the expressiveness of the metaphor should be compensated in a nearby part of the text.

5) *Deletion, or reduction* is employed only if the metaphor is redundant. A deletion of metaphor can be justified only on the ground that the metaphor’s function is being fulfilled somewhere else in the text.

6) *Using the same metaphor combined with sense*. Calque translation of metaphor supported by explanation is recommended only if the translator lacks confidence in the metaphor’s power and clarity.

Using the typical phraseology of the TL, its natural collocations, its own fixed and semi-fixed expressions, the right level of idiomaticity,

etc. will improve the readability of translation. Making the necessary transformations and using the appropriate strategies will make the TT feel more natural and even pass for an original.

Another more elaborate type of problems that is always there in translation concerns cultural problems. So many people think that translation is only a linguistic process, not paying attention to the fact that culture is so related to language that both can never be separated in general and in translation in particular.

In fact, E. Nida mentioned that culture causes many more severe complications for the translator than do differences in language structure. As some linguistic problems of translation arise from the differences between the SL and the TL, cultural problems also occur as a result of the differences between the Source Culture (SC) and the Target Culture (TC).

The greater the differences between the SC and the TC, the greater the difficulties in translation; and the less differences between them, the less the difficulties in translation. This can be clear in translating, for example, from German into English. Both English and German belong to the same language family and have greatly similar cultures, which facilitates translation from and into both of them.

However, translating from Arabic into English, for instance, might turn to be a difficult task. This is due to the differences in the origins of both Arabic and the extremely different cultures represented by them.

As a translator should be well versed in both the SL and the TL, they should be of vast knowledge of both the SC and the TC. Therefore, a translator must be “bilingual and bicultural, if not multicultural.” The translator’s knowledge of culture helps them produce the most precise expression which sometimes depends on culture.

PRACTICAL EXERCISES

Exercise 1. Translate the sentences into your mother tongue, paying special attention to homonyms and polysemantic words:

I. 1) The classes are typically inexpensive and often held during the evening or weekend hours to *accommodate* the schedules of busy working adults. 2) The arena can *accommodate* in excess of 7,500 seated spectators, with provisions for the disabled. 3) The lawyer tried hard to *accommodate* his statements to the facts. 4) The passengers soon learned to *accommodate* themselves to their new circumstances, and life in the ship became nearly as systematically monotonous as the routine of a barrack. 5) Should universities change teaching to *accommodate* a generation raised on mobile technology? 6) Given that retail is a constantly evolving area, it is imperative that any system can flexibly *accommodate* changes to strategy and measures. 7) The large portions served are sure to *accommodate* even those with hearty appetites, as all meals are served with bread and side items that are made from scratch.

II. 1) The conversation turned on the contemporary gossip about those in *power*, in which most people see the chief interest of home politics. 2) But think about how it could play out: If energy truly were free and unlimited, you could, for instance, *power* tractors everywhere in the world. 3) *Power*, from the standpoint of experience, is merely the relation that exists between the expression of someone's will and the execution of that will by others. 4) Tools used to make marks in the glass include diamond point scribes, a flexible shaft *power* tool with a diamond bit and a sandblaster. 5) The Legislator should grant the Commission the *power* to adopt implementing acts in accordance with Article 291 of the Treaty. 6) The dairy company failed to recognize the threat posed by loss of *power* at a refrigeration unit. 7) Burning certain kinds of household rubbish in *power* stations is preferable to burying it underground.

III. 1) The Government must *commit* itself to traffic reduction targets. 2) White teenage males are more likely to *commit* suicide than other ethnic groups, but as of the early 2000s teenage suicide among blacks is

also increasing. 3) Since identity theft is a complicated crime and can also be used to *commit* other crimes along with it, it can be hard to tell what the penalties are. 4) NATO member states have refused to *commit* more troops to Afghanistan despite appeals from the organization's leaders for 2500 extra troops to fight Taliban insurgents. 5) The teachers asked me to research the chances of lost eyesight before they would *commit* to teaching Braille. 6) Mr Aldis counselled him not to learn his speeches, but to write out and *commit* to memory certain passages and the peroration. 7) Rycroft tells People magazine that the relationship never seemed to work out, and that they couldn't *commit* to each other 100 percent.

IV 1) He *stalks* his victims like a hunter after a deer. 2) Once the *stalks* of the plants are harvested in order to be put in arrangements, they stop growing. 3) This page gives an overview of all articles in the 1911 Britannica which are alphabetized under Gre to Gri. 4) He was introduced to the court as a *page* by his uncle Pedro de Luna, archbishop of Toledo, in 1410. 5) They had their own publishing *house*, and it came to be indelibly associated with this kind of literature. 6) The building will *house* a collection of motorcycles and cars. 7) All those *fall* afternoons were the same, but I never got used to them. 8) A Study of History is an exploration of the rise and *fall* of 28 different civilisations. 9) He spoke of the birds as his little brothers of the air, and he could never *bear* to see them harmed. 10) It wasn't the first time she had seen a *bear* track, but it was the first time she had seen one that fresh. 11) The building the restaurant now occupies was once a printing press, so the ceilings are high and the dining area is bricked lined. 12) The matter temporarily dropped, but certain Liberal members of parliament continued to press for the withdrawal of Great Britain from the convention. 13) The TV Channel licence is expected to be awarded in early November and be on air at the latest in 2020. 14) It was frosty and the air was sharp, but toward evening the sky became overcast and it began to thaw.

Exercise 2. Read the passage below and select, from the alternatives that follow, the word that most appropriately completes each sentence then interpret the text into your mother tongue. Account for the difficulties you encountered in the process.

The Paris Metro

In extending into the inner and outer suburbs, the metro and RER have today (1) . . . the historical gap between Paris and its suburbs, a gap that the metro of the Belle Epoque had helped to accentuate. In 1950, domicile-work trips represented more than 80% of RATP traffic. At the present time, this percentage is about 50%. By the year 2000, it will probably (2) . . . about 40%. In future years, journeys for ‘personal reasons’, as statisticians call them, will develop rapidly. When people take the metro to go shopping, to go to the cinema, to see friends, to visit an art exhibition or simply (3) . . . about the Flea Market or the Forum des Hailes, they (4) . . . However, the environment of the metro was for a long time (5) . . . , designed to (6) . . . Only the frameworks of glass and cast iron (7) . . . by Hector Guimard for the decoration of metro entrances can be considered as exceptions to this rule. (8) . . . the time spent in this cold and impersonal world of the metro was considered lost time, a temporal gap which people tried, as best they could, to fill by reading a book or scanning a newspaper. To create a warmer atmosphere, (9) . . . to renovate the stations (9) . . . More than 100 stations were totally rebuilt. Several of them now bear witness to the past, to the riches and (10) . . . of the neighbourhood they serve. For example, the Louvre station has become a showcase of the famous museum, and the Hotel-de-Ville station recounts the history of the Paris Town Hall.

(Michel Rousselot: ‘Le Metro français et la ville’,
in Air France *Atlas*.)

- (1) a) bridged b) eradicated c) removed d) closed;
(2) a) be as low as b) have dropped to c) have descended to;
(3) a) for the purpose of strolling b) to stroll c) stroll;
(4) a) are in a mood to appreciate the attractiveness of their surroundings b) feel more open to the impressions around them c) find themselves in a mood of the greatest receptivity to environmental influences;
(5) a) little more than the outer casing of a giant machine b) only a simple packaging of a great technological machine c) merely a functional ‘dressing’ for this mechanical marvel;

(6) a) ensure Parisians journey in the best conditions of rapidity and security b) transport passengers as swiftly and safely as possible c) provide Paris with safe, rapid public transport;

(7) a) imagined b) created c) conceived d) designed;

(8) a) Consequently, b) Understandably, c) Result;

(9) a) every effort was made (to renovate the stations.) b) an important effort (to renovate the stations) was undertaken c) the RATP launched a scheme (to renovate the stations.);

(10) a) originality b) the individual character c) unique features.

Exercise 3. Translate the comments below preserving the meaning, intention and effect of the original.

1) A serious writer is not to be confounded with a solemn writer. (Ernest Hemingway) 2) Everybody complains of his memory, but nobody of his judgement. (La Rochefoucauld) 3) No man is a hypocrite in his pleasures. (Dr Johnson) 4) At a dinner party one should eat wisely but not too well, and talk well but not too wisely. (Somerset Maugham) 5) A critic is a man who knows the way, but can't drive a car. (Kenneth Tynan) 6) Asking a working writer what he thinks about critics is like asking a lamp-post how it feels about dogs. (Christopher Hampton) 7) A bore is a person who talks when you wish him to listen. (Ambrose Bierce) 8) There is a great difference between a man who does not want to sin and one who does not know how to. (Seneca) 9) The lack of money is the root of all evil. (George Bernard Shaw) 10) Money is the root of all evil, and man needs roots. (John Peers) 11) Dr Johnson (to the Abbess of a convent): 'Madam, you are not here for the love of virtue, but the fear of vice.' (Boswell) 12) In the case of good books, the point is not to see how many of them you can get through, but how many can get through you. Mortimer Adler

Exercise 4. Translate the text into your target-language. Analyse the differences between the source and target versions in terms of grammatical meaning, paying particular attention to the use of passive structures.

How Towns Have Arisen

Most villages and towns on the British Isles came into being because of their favourable situation for trade. Rather more than a hundred years ago, a great change came over the land. Many machines were invented about that time. Spinning and weaving, for example, which had previously been done by hand, were done by machinery that were driven by water or steam-power.

The work which usually was done in the houses of the people began to be carried on in large mills or factories, and workers found it convenient to live near them. More and more factories were built and men and women left the country districts in great numbers and crowded into towns.

Since then the movement of people into towns has been going on until now. England is dotted with great cities. All over Britain, and especially in those parts where the coal needed for power is to be found, there are mining and manufacturing areas, such as the Lancashire cotton district, the Black country of Midland, and others. A great many towns are found close together in those districts, and a great many people live within a small area, so that the population is very dense.

("The British Isles, Their Life and Work"
by S. Bryson and Maxton)

Exercise 5. Make a list of English phrases which you believe would be difficult to translate into your mother tongue, for example because they relate to specific English habits or social customs. Paraphrase each expression twice in the target language: the first time as briefly as possible so that it can be inserted in a text, and the second time more elaborately so that it can be included as a footnote to a text.

Exercise 6. Translate the sentences into your mother tongue, making the necessary syntactic transformations using transposition and replacement.

1) Few, if any, Americans grasped the significance of what had been accomplished. 2) There are four main causes of alcohol-related

death. Injury from car accidents or violence is one. Diseases like cirrhosis of the liver, cancer, heart and blood system diseases are the others. 3) The newspaper boy delivers newspapers no matter what the weather is like. 4) I looked around and noticed that mine was the only car on the road. 5) We apologize for the interruption. Normal transmission will be resumed as soon as possible. 6) The most famous landmarks in my country are the pyramids. 7) I think it's unlikely that aliens similar to what we see in the movies have ever visited our planet. 8) Opponents say genetically engineered crops can cross-pollinate and damage other crops. 9) Light showers may be expected in the early afternoon. In the north-east, these may develop into thunderstorms, possibly accompanied by hail. 10) Greater demand for high-quality coffee has helped drive coffee prices higher. 11) Notice: Bathing and fishing strictly prohibited. 12) What I don't understand is why the children aren't being allowed to play outside on such a nice day. 13) "Top-down economics never works," said Obama. "The country does not succeed when just those at the very top are doing well. We succeed when the middle class gets bigger, when it feels greater security." 14) When I have migraines, aspirin doesn't alleviate the pain for me. 15) When using this product, care must be taken to avoid all contact with the skin. 16) The company presented him with a gold watch on the day he retired. 17) Trespassers will be prosecuted. 18) In another six months you will be able to speak German fluently. 19) I was going to run over the notes one last time, but there wasn't time. 20) All complaints should be addressed in writing to the manager. 21) Tom closed his diary after writing about that day's events. 22) Rain, possibly turning to sleet or snow, is expected in the late afternoon.

Exercise 7. Translate the sentences into your mother tongue, resorting to addition or omission to obtain natural and adequate translation versions.

1) Food prices are at their highest level since the United Nations Food and Agriculture Organization began keeping records in 1990. 2) How many times a day do you look at yourself in the mirror? 3) The newspaper boy delivers newspapers no matter what the weather is like.

4) Electric power companies are seeking to reduce their use of coal. 5) The girl in the picture is wearing a crown not of gold but of flowers. 5) Five tremors in excess of magnitude 5.0 on the Richter scale have shaken Japan just this week, but scientists are warning that the largest expected aftershock has yet to hit. 7) All things considered, it's set up so it isn't possible to win. 8) I hope spring sticks around just a little bit longer. I hate summers. 9) He received a large sum of money in compensation for his injury. 10) The travel company furnished us with all the details of the tour. 11) The company's insolvency forced it to file for bankruptcy. 12) The president was sitting in the chair with his back to the window. 13) The reason Tom is fat is because he eats too much and doesn't get enough exercise. 14) Never put off until tomorrow what you can do the day after tomorrow. 15) The most dangerous thing Tom ever wanted to try to do was to hold a poisonous snake. 16) The program does not allow for changes at this point in time. 17) He wondered how many times the sun would rise before his salary would. 18) There is a limit of two pieces of luggage for each passenger. 19) I could clearly see that the hard work had begun to tell on his health. 20) Other scientists are debating his theory about the disappearance of dinosaurs. 21) I don't like sand. It's coarse and rough and irritating and it gets everywhere. 22) The United States has almost a fourth of the world's prison population.

Exercise 8. Translate the sentences. Use appropriate strategies to overcome the grammatical difficulties.

1) In this the committee enjoys the powerful, if unspoken, support of the vast bulk of the population. 2) If anything, it will be in their interests to follow this course. 3) It was Richard III who went over to George's camp and talked George into alliance again. 4) Four men claiming to be police drove up to a home in the middle of the night and forced a young man from the household into their unmarked car. 5) Christine realized suddenly how very tired she was. 6) Think of something not quite so expensive. 7) The harder he laboured, the less he was fatigued. 8) Nelly's family hadn't liked our marriage any more than mine, but at least they had acted like human beings. 9) It was not

unfair to claim that the conference demonstrated an indestructible unity. 10) News about Japan reached Russia relatively late. Not until the 17th century do we find mention of Japan in Russian sources. 11) The older I grow, the more I believe that old Count Tolstoy was in the right of it. 12) She hadn't thanked me for my suggestions, much less commented upon them. 13) It is true that his guests were chosen for their social importance, rather than because they were good companions. 14) The opposition voted the government out of office. 15) He failed to cheat him out of his money. 16) Interviewing this writer, I found a man eager to speak out on any more issues than the fearful H-bomb menace that first angered him into activity. 17) Ironically, the senator was run over by his own car. 18) Whatever their efforts, the advocates of the war against Iraq can never be successful in misleading public opinion. 19) It is not an unfavourable moment to abolish all military pacts. 20) That translation no longer enjoys anything like the status in foreign language teaching which it once did must be clear to anyone. 21) Small as she was, she made quite a good horsewoman. 22) A new election must be called to fill the vacancy unless the unexpired term is less than one year.

Exercise 9. Translate the sentences focusing on *metaphors, epithets, metonymies, personifications and similes*. Comment on the translation techniques you used in order to render the figures of speech.

1) They tried to dig up something from his past to spoil his chances of being elected. 2) Heaven only knew what Whitehall and Downing Street would say. 3) They did not find the trail again for an agonising ten minutes. 4) "Rain, somebody said, is like confetti from heaven. So even the heavens are celebrating this morning, joining the rest of us at this wonderful commencement ceremony." (Justice John Roberts) 5) "The woods are getting ready to sleep – they are not yet asleep but they are disrobing and are having all sorts of little bed-time conferences and whisperings and good-nights." (L.M. Montgomery) 6) The government will plough ahead with tests this year, despite a boycott from teachers. 7) The whole town turned out to watch the procession.

8) “Go and never come back!” he said, pointing a dramatic finger to the door. 9) “The glacier knocks in the cupboard, / The desert sighs in the bed, / And the crack in the tea-cup opens / A lane to the land of the dead.” (W.H. Auden) 10) Toby manipulated the people in his life as though they were chess pieces. 11) It is seriously a mystery how time flies and that we have all become graduates today. 12) She could tear someone to pieces in three minutes with her sharp tongue. 13) The worsening weather conditions made the traffic crawl along. 14) Rivers of raindrops created the illusion that all the faces were melting, were weeping. 15) He raised a supercilious eyebrow when he observed that I took it with calm. 16) The government should not waste money supporting lame ducks. 17) Then like a cold wave on a shore, comes silence and she sings no more. (Paul Laurence Dunbar) 18) Address your question to the chair, please. 19) I couldn’t imagine her as a mother – rug-rats had never been her cup of tea. 20) He would argue, cajole, lose his temper, start for the door in frowning anger.

Exercise 10. Correct where appropriate:

1. Palestinian President Mahmoud Abbas and Prime Minister Salam Fayyad have been supported by the EU and endorsed by various international actors.
2. This appropriation is based on the actual regulations and on the probable adjustments.
3. The list of specific recommendations from the Commission with the aim to reduce the administrative burden.
4. The representatives of the Commission assist at the meetings of the Committee.
5. This Directive fully respects the competences of Member States.
6. Each State has to introduce a demand to be granted funding.
7. How could the results of the work of the Agency be best valorised?

Exercise 11. Translate at sight:

1. Prime Minister Tony Blair was hit by a tomato.

2. They passed a resolution calling for a world disarmament conference.
3. The grass is greener where you water it.
4. Don't forget you're human.
5. Learn from yesterday.
6. You can't cross the sea merely by standing and staring at the water.
7. The crown is in Scotland.
8. The Prince is hated by his own blood.
9. I packed my two Gladstones and left for the Bahamas.
10. Wall Street will not respond well to this new legislation.
11. I can't wait to read the seven-hundred-page report.
12. A journey of a thousand miles begins with a single step.
13. A leopard never changes its spots.

Selected further reading:

Kusmaul P. Training the Translator. John Benjamins Publishing Company, 1995. 176 p.

Márquez M. F. Working with Words: An Introduction to English Linguistics. 2008. 400 p.

Schäffner C. Metaphor and translation: some implications of a cognitive approach, 2004, vol. 36 (7), pp. 1253-1269.

Steen G. J. Metaphor in usage. 2010, pp. 757-788.

Виноградов В. С. Введение в переводоведение (общие и лексические вопросы). Москва: Издательство института общего среднего образования РАО, 2001. 224 с.

UNIT X. TRANSLATION QUALITY ASSESSMENT CRITERIA. QUALITY MANAGEMENT AND CONTROL

Learning objectives:

1. Establish the translator's skills in the context of translation quality assessment;
2. Determine the typology translation errors;
3. Determine the criteria for an appropriate translation version;
4. Develop abilities for a critical analysis of the quality of translation;
5. Assess the quality of translation.

CORE THEORY

The concept of quality is defined as a measure of excellence or a state of being free from defects, deficiencies and significant variations. It is brought about by strict and consistent commitment to certain standards that achieve uniformity of a product in order to satisfy specific customer or user requirements. In the field of translation, quality can be assessed in relation to:

- translations by professionals (professional practice).
- translations by students (translation training).

The quality of a translation depends on the translator and their personal knowledge, intuitions and artistic competence. The translation can be evaluated based on the way the translated text or interpreted discourse was adapted to the target language and culture norms. The translation can also be assessed from the point of view of functionalism and pragmatics.

Quality assurance (QA), an aspect closely linked to quality, is a continuous process in the translators' training and includes: seminars, discussions with practicing professionals, supervised work (*no criticism, but advice*), e-learning, translation internships, lifelong improvement of quality in the area of translation and interpretation (graduate/postgraduate), work on translation process and outcome, virtual cours-

es/video materials, assessments by the tutor and by the company during the internships.

A series of steps have to be undertaken to guarantee quality:

Prior to translation: text sanitation before it is sent to be translated; removal of ambiguities in the source text; provision of comments and context; translator assignment; implementation of a QA framework applicable to translation production processes within the translation company.

During translation: critical thinking and high linguistic skills; competences leading to quality-related activities while translating, such as self-repair and monitoring and checking against source text

Post translation: completed translations are generally sent to an editor or a trusted reviewer, or another translator to be checked; sent back to the translator(s) for additional work/retranslation of text; final verification; delivery

Postdelivery: customer can comment on, give a score to the translation/translator.

The following items are the things to be checked in relation to the TT:

Spelling

Punctuation

Grammar (syntax, morphology, lexicon)

Terminology

Terminological consistency

Compliance with style requirements

The following items have to be checked in relation to the ST vs TT:

Identification and correction of mistranslations due to misinterpretation and of omissions or additions.

Register and phraseology

Stylistic consistency

Accuracy

Usability and readability

One of the approaches to translation evaluation departs from on the concept of error. When assessing the quality of translation, the evaluators are usually translation experts who identify the TT errors against the quality of the ST. Assessing acceptability of texts is a different process which requires the involvement of the target audience, who need not

be translation studies experts. Quite often, post-delivery assessments identify that both interpreters and translators are vulnerable to several types of translation errors, such as:

Errors of Meaning, when the meaning of the translation is different from the meaning of the SL.

e.g. The Romanian *e-dosar* (in the context of forensic investigations [„medicina legală”]) was translated in English as *e-file for the public healthcare*.

Errors of Form, when the translations contain errors of grammar, spelling, or other formal errors that do not change the meaning of the translation with respect to the SL.

e.g. Erroneous use of tenses in SL/TL.

Errors of Compliance, when the translation, even though meaning and form are correct, does not comply to the instructions received, style guide, preferred terminology, or other customer-specified requirements.

e.g. Books, websites, magazines which do not meet the original layout.

According to A. Pym, errors may be attributed to numerous causes, such as lack of comprehension, inappropriateness to readership, misuse of time and located on numerous levels, such as language, pragmatics, culture (p. 282).

Ch. Nord classifies translation errors in four categories:

- 1) Pragmatic translation errors, caused by inadequate solutions to pragmatic translation problems such as a lack of receiver orientations;
- 2) Cultural translation errors, due to an inadequate decision with regard to reproduction or adaptation of culture-specific conventions;
- 3) Linguistics translations errors, caused by an inadequate translation when the focus is on language structures;
- 4) Text-specific translation errors, which are related to a text-specific translation problem and, like the corresponding translation problems, can usually be evaluated from a functional or pragmatic point of view.

A sound account of translator's errors should be organized in terms of certain algorithms, namely identification of errors, description of errors, explanation of errors, and evaluation of errors.

A distinctive characteristic of translation assessment is that it is carried out on a text considered final. Another distinctive characteristic of assessment is that it is not necessarily performed on the entire translated text, but sometimes only on a sample.

One of the earliest proposals for evaluating translations is by K. Reiss who suggests that to determine the quality of a translation it is necessary to determine its function and the text type of the ST. According to K. Reiss, the text types have to be kept equivalent in an adequate translation. Other suggestions of how to go about assessing the quality of a translation stem from W. Koller and W. Wilss. W. Koller points to the necessity of developing a comprehensive, *linguistic model* of translation quality assessment which should consist of three main phases: 1. ST criticism with a view to ensuring transferability into the TL; 2. translation comparison, where the particular methods of translation used in the production of the given translation text are described; 3. evaluation of the translation as 'adequate' or 'not adequate'.

In the context of the skopos approach, M. Amman (1990) adopts a strictly TT oriented perspective on translation quality assessment. She closely follows K. Reiss and H. Vermeer, who pronounced that it is first and foremost the translation which needs to be assessed. The framework chosen by Amman for her functionalistic translation evaluation consists of five phases: 1. determine the function of the translation; 2. determine the intratextual coherence of the translation; 3. determine the function of the ST; 4. determine the intratextual coherence of the ST; and 5. determine the intertextual coherence between the translation and the ST. The term 'coherence' refers here to both content and form, and the relationship between the two. Determining the function of the translation can only be done via the intended addressees.

Another approach to translation quality assessment was suggested by J. AlQinai (2000) who set up an 'eclectic' approach to translation quality assessment in which the following parameters are taken into account: 1. textual typology, including linguistic-narrative structure of source and translation texts, and the textual function, i.e. informative, persuasive, didactic, etc.; 2. formal correspondence (i.e. the presentation of the two texts in terms of length, division into paragraphs, punc-

tuation); 3. thematic structure: coherence; 4. cohesion with a focus on the translated text and its adequate sequences of rhetorical strategies and ideas; 5. text-pragmatic equivalence referring to a similar (intended) effect through the fulfilment of reader expectation; 6. lexical properties (e.g. idioms, collocations, etc. including style shifts); and 7. grammatical/ syntactic equivalence relating to word order, voice, agreement, etc.

E. Wagner believes translation quality can be measured in terms of process, product, service and adjunct of the original (p. 81), while A. Chesterman identified four fundamental norms that define translation quality and that apply to the translation product (p. 92): acceptability norm: appropriate TL fit; relation norm: relevant similarity to the ST; communication norm: optimum intelligibility; accountability norm: manifest loyalty.

Quality controls are part of quality assurance. They follow the transfer phase and are deemed to be part and parcel of the translation phase since they are normally ‘inescapable’ and required by all emerging standards (notably EN15038). Quality controls are carried out in *proofreading* or in *revision mode* (human made translations) or in *post-editing mode* (machine made translations).

In the strictest sense, *proofreading* consists in correcting any kind of blatant defects (spelling or grammar mistakes, missing bits, faulty formatting) and pointing out any apparent defects, discrepancies or translation errors, leaving it to the translator or any other authorised person to make whatever corrections might actually be justified in that respect. Today, proof-reading may involve listening to the recorded translation or to the voice-synthesized version of the translated material and dictating the appropriate comments and suggestions while correcting the blatant errors.

In the strictest sense, *revision* includes all operations undertaken to guarantee that the translation meets all applicable quality criteria and quality levels (i.e. is free of linguistic, technical or translation errors). This means making all necessary corrections and changes (improvements, amendments, substitutions, reorganisations). Revision is an upgrading operation that makes the translated material compliant with all applicable requirements and, of course, with the rules of the art.

It is worth noting that practising translators usually consider that ‘mutual revision’ (i.e. translators revising each other’s work) is highly

desirable whenever possible, and that several levels of proof-reading and revision are absolutely essential when it comes to total quality.

With the development of voice technologies, revision is now more and more frequently dictated, with the translator making the requested or required corrections and changes. When the quality requirements are particularly stringent all quality checks and controls are in the care of dedicated specialised personnel.

Post-editing means checking, proofreading and revising translations carried out by any kind of translating automaton. It is becoming a job in its own right because automatic translation is coming back in force and, some would say, with a vengeance: post-editing of automatic or machine translation is systematic unless the client is prepared to put up with a ‘rough idea’ of the ST content as supplied by the raw machine translation – which is no longer a rare occurrence. It means both (a) introducing any changes needed to render the translated text either just readable or deliverable – depending on the quality required by the client, and (b) amending the alignment tables or algorithms so that errors do not happen again or suggesting amendments.

Despite its generally unglamorous reputation, post-editing can be an interesting and fulfilling job, especially when it involves both translation and information technology skills in the development of more efficient machine translation systems.

Checking the translation quality can be done via *back translation*, also known as *reverse translation*. It refers to the translation process where a document is translated to a given TL and then that translation is translated back to the original language. In most cases, a translated document is translated back into the SL for the purpose of verifying the level of coincidence of the translation. This serves to detect errors in meaning and omissions. By carrying out this process, we try to reconstruct the ideas of the original document as closely as possible. In general, the ideas and concepts are faithfully translated but the words don’t always match. When doing a back translation, words are often replaced with synonyms and rarely match the original text. Comparison of a back-translation to the original text is sometimes used as a quality check on the original translation. The idea behind a back translation is

to ensure that the translated text is as close to the original as possible. This is especially relevant in areas of study such as medicine, marketing, biology and any other exact science, where the meaning of certain words must be translated as faithfully as possible.

In conclusion, clients assess not only the translation/interpretation as a service/process/product [spelling, grammar, syntax, punctuation, spaces, font, meaning, terminology, register, style], but also, the service provider [critical competences, type of education and/or experience, computer literacy, keeping deadlines, loyalty, collegiality]. Therefore, quality in training and profession will only be achieved, if there is a full commitment of the students and providers to fundamental positive ethical principles. Students need to develop a culture of professionalism based on the principles of ethics and integrity.

PRACTICAL EXERCISES

Exercise 1. Read the following sentences, paying attention to the L2 rules of pronunciation and stress:

1. Like father like son.
2. He who gives fair words, feeds you with an empty spoon.
3. A bird in hand is worth two in the bush.
4. Beware of a silent dog and still water.
5. We saw her duck.
6. This bag weighs a ton!
7. She tiptoed into the room.
8. Daddy bought a Ford.
9. Uncle Sam wants your ideas.
10. She is a mousy little person.
11. There is simply no appetite in Europe to run such risks.
12. Rifles were guarding the gate.

Exercise 2. Comment on the quality of the target-texts below that were translated into Romanian and Russian using the machine translation service Google Translate. Determine the translation er-

rors and the dangers of delivering the translation product without further intervention of a human translator. Provide a good quality translation of the text.

A volcano has erupted in New Zealand, leaving one dead and several unaccounted for, police have said. Tourists were seen walking inside the rim of the White Island crater just moments before the eruption. Police said 23 people had been rescued, but warned the number of dead was “likely” to rise. The area is currently too dangerous for a rescue operation. White Island, also known as Whakaari, is one of the country’s most active volcanoes. Despite that, the island is a tourist destination with frequent day tours and scenic flights available. New Zealand Prime Minister Jacinda Ardern said there were “a number” of tourists on or around the island, both from New Zealand and overseas. “I know there will be a huge amount of concern and anxiety for those who have loved ones at the island at that time - and I can assure them police are doing everything they can,” she said. She said police had launched a search and rescue operation but falling ash was hampering attempts to get to the site.

Un vulcan a izbucnit în Noua Zeelandă, lăsând un mort și mai multe necunoscute, au spus polițiștii. Turiștii au fost văzuți mergând pe marginea craterului din Insula Albă, doar câteva momente înainte de erupție. Poliția a spus că 23 de persoane au fost salvate, dar au avertizat că numărul de morți este „probabil” să crească. În prezent, zona este prea periculoasă pentru o operațiune de salvare. Insula Albă, cunoscută și sub denumirea de Whakaari, este unul dintre cei mai activi vulcani din țară. Premierul din Noua Zeelandă, Jacinda Ardern, a declarat că există „un număr” de turiști pe insulă sau în jurul său, atât din Noua Zeelandă, cât și de peste mări. „Știu că va exista o cantitate imensă de îngrijorare și anxietate pentru cei care au oameni dragi la insulă în acel moment – și pot să-i asigur că poliția face tot ce poate”, a spus ea. Ea a spus că poliția a lansat o operațiune de căutare și salvare, dar căderea cenușii împiedica încercările de a ajunge pe șantier.

В Новой Зеландии произошел извержение вулкана, в результате которого один человек погиб и несколько человек пропали без вести. Туристы были замечены, прогуливаясь по краю кратера Белого острова всего за несколько минут до извержения. Поли-

ция заявила, что 23 человека были спасены, но предупредила, что число погибших может «возрасти». Район в настоящее время слишком опасен для спасательной операции. Белый остров, также известный как *Whakaari*, является одним из самых активных вулканов страны. Несмотря на это, остров является туристическим направлением с частыми однодневными турами и сценическими рейсами. Премьер-министр Новой Зеландии Джасинда Ардерн заявила, что на острове или вокруг него было «много» туристов, как из Новой Зеландии, так и из-за рубежа. «Я знаю, что у тех, кто в то время был на острове, есть огромное беспокойство и беспокойство, и я могу заверить их, что полиция делает все возможное», – сказала она. Она сказала, что полиция начала поисково-спасательную операцию, но падающий пепел препятствовал попыткам добраться до места.

Exercise 3. Translate the text, considering *lexico-semantic correctness, morpho-syntactic accuracy, stylistic consistency, spelling and punctuation, cohesion and coherence.*

“Do you know that Louisiana is known as the Pelican State?” she asked with her eyes closed.

“No. I didn’t know that.”

“It’s a shame really, because the brown pelicans were virtually wiped out in the early 1960’s.”

“What happened to them?”

Pesticides. They eat nothing but fish, and the fish live in river water filled with chlorinated hydrocarbons from pesticides. The rains wash the pesticides from the soil into small streams which eventually empty into rivers which eventually empty into the Mississippi. By the time the pelicans in Louisiana eat the fish, they are loaded with chemicals which accumulate in the fatty tissues of the birds. Death is seldom immediate, but in times of stress such as hunger or bad weather, the pelicans and eagles and cormorants are forced to draw upon their reserves, and can literally be poisoned by their own fat. If they don’t die, they are usually unable to reproduce. Their eggs are so thin and fragile they crack during incubation. Did you know that?”

“Why would I know that?”

“In the late sixties, Louisiana began transplanting brown pelicans from southern Florida, and over the years the population has slowly increased. But the birds are still very much in danger. Forty years ago there were thousands of them. The cypress swamp that Mattiece wants to destroy is home to only a few dozen pelicans.”

(Extract from “The Pelican Brief” by J. Grisham)

Exercise 4. Write a 200-250-word argumentative essay on one of the topics suggested below. Exchange notebooks with a colleague and do each other’s translation of the essay. Assess the quality of the translation of your essay, observing the ATA Framework for Standardized Error Marking provided for you in the Core Theory. Propose adequate alternatives to possible translation errors.

- 1) What can students do to contribute to the social movement for environmental safety?
- 2) Describe the role of communication on social media for modern education.
- 3) Death sentence should be re-enacted in every country of the world.
- 4) Do you feel that people have become too dependent on technology?

Exercise 5. Translate the text below into your mother tongue. Without looking at the original text do the back translation into English. Compare the original and its back translation having in mind the characteristics of a good translation.

Freezing Food

Freezing can keep food fresh and safe to eat. Freezing lowers the food temperature below zero degrees Celsius. That is the point where water turns to ice.

To start the freezing process, it is important to lower the temperature to between minus fifteen and minus twenty degrees Celsius as quickly as possible. The faster the freezing process, the fresher the taste of the food.

Fruits and vegetables can be spread out inside the freezer. Once the food is frozen, it should be placed in containers and then stored at a temperature of about minus twenty degrees Celsius.

Fruits are usually not cooked before they are frozen. This allows them to keep their fresh taste. The simplest way to prepare fruits is to cut them up and place them in a container inside the freezer. In some cases, it is better to permit the fruit to freeze before putting it in the container. This will keep it from sticking to the container. This is called the “dry pack” method.

The second way is the “wet pack” method. The fruit is prepared along with some of its liquid or juice. You can add some sugar to fruits that are naturally juicy. The sugar sweetens the fruit and brings out its natural juices.

Vegetables are either cooked or blanched before freezing. Blanching means placing the vegetables in boiling water for a few minutes and then quickly placing them into very cold water. Blanching slows down the natural chemical aging process. All extra water should be removed before placing the vegetables into containers and freezing. Most foods can be stored frozen for up to one year.

Most freezers operate on electricity, although some work with kerosene and even solar energy as power sources. One problem is how to protect frozen food if the power suddenly stops. Generally, frozen food can be left unfrozen for twenty-four hours before it must either be eaten or thrown away. In hot climates, the amount of time may be only a few hours.

Once foods have been unfrozen, they should not be frozen again. There is a danger of food poisoning if food is frozen more than once.

(Source: <http://www.manythings.org/>)

Exercise 6. Write a 350 - 400 words newspaper article based on the information below. Give it an appropriate title and let it be translated by one of your colleagues. Assess the translation of your essay against the original. Propose solutions to possible translation inconsistencies and errors.

Away from home – conditions hardly better – abandoned and abused – an easy prey to criminal elements – often pretend to care for

them – turn them into drug addicts – those who escape this fate – sooner or later turn to begging and shoplifting simply to survive – their parents – blame factors that come from outside the family – some accuse the general affluence and consumer mentality in our society – create expectations poorer families cannot satisfy – well-to-do families – blame stress or competition at their jobs – prevent them from making their children feel at home – despite all the wealth and comfort – parents who see the fault in the school system – allow young people too much freedom – fails to teach them values – immediate efforts are called for – by providing shelter and giving them the advice and support – society will have to wake up – children should be given love and affection – necessary to grow up as happy and useful citizens.

Exercise 7. In small groups, determine how the target-reader/ audience can provide feedback on the product of translation/ interpretation. Establish how the translator or interpreter knows about the quality of their work.

Selected further reading:

Angelelli C. Testing and assessment in Translation and Interpreting Studies. In: Y. Gambier, van Doorslaer L. Eds. Handbook of Translation Studies, 2012, vol. 3, pp.172-177.

Chesterman A., Wagner E. Can Theory Help Translators? A Dialogue Between the Ivory Tower and the Wordface. St. Jerome Publishing, 2002. 148 p.

DGT Translation Quality Guidelines. Available at: http://ec.europa.eu/translation/maltese/guidelines/documents/dgt_translation_quality_guidelines_en.pdf

House J. Translation Quality Assessment. Past and present. Routledge. 2015.

Framework for Standardized Error Marking by American Translators' Association.

Maier C. Evaluation and Translation: Special Issue of "The Translator". Routledge, 2014.

Samuelsson-Brown G. A Practical Guide for Translators, 2004. 187 p.

ADDENDUM

During the seminars, teachers can use these additional resources for discussions and debates.

VIDEOS

1. Four translation skills all translators need <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=yQkniUv7PHQ>
2. The 5-step language translation process https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=tzIICW_9FoI
3. Can interpretation save your brain? <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=nYx0Mvy4qbI>
4. How interpreters juggle two languages at once? <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=cXNTArhA0Jg>
5. Interpreting in a globalized world https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=_lOInrJ5YGE&t=16s
6. Lost in translation. The importance of context for a translator <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=LGjM4Ofn9ao>
7. How computers translate human language? <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=X4BmV2t83SM&t=31s>
8. Translation quality assessment <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=7eolhnuiciU&t=54s>
9. How language shapes the way we think <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=RKK7wGAYP6k>
10. The politics of perfect speech <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=I7oNkVT8YPY>

CASE STUDIES

1.

- a) Can we use family members and friends as interpreters?
- b) How to make sure that the interpreter meets the needs of the client? What should we consider when booking the interpreter? Elabo-

rate on these items: language and/or dialect; country of origin and specific region; gender preference; age; religion; ethnic and cultural background; confidentiality; past experience.

2.

a) At the very beginning of the meeting between M. Thatcher and the President of Congo, a famous communist and Marxist, the Prime Minister said: “I hate communists”. How did the interpreter render that sentence? Imagine being that interpreter.

b) A talk-show on “Euronews” was translated in Russian. The interviewer asked a question related to chancellor Merkel and the Russian translation was “мадам Меркель”. Is this formula acceptable in Russian or Romanian?

3.

a) What happens when a translator or interpreter should be engaged and isn't, or when the person providing the translation or interpretation services doesn't have the necessary experience or the level of training?

b) How should an interpreter react when asked by the client to submit copies of contracts (previous assignments) so that they check the fees set up by other clients (to make sure they pay equally)?

4.

a) If two presidents or any other high officials meet, how many interpreters should there be in the room?

b) Is there an International Translation Day? Why translators and interpreters deserve a special day of recognition?

5.

a) The former Romanian Prime Minister, Viorica Dăncilă, held a joint press conference with her Montenegrin counterpart, Duško Marković in 2018. During the event, she stated she was happy to be in Priština.

b) When the political leader Pál Losonczi visited Sierra Leone, he was ceremonially welcomed as the president of Bulgaria.

In both cases, their interpreters had to correct the officials, either guests or hosts. Could you think of any possible reasons why? Discuss

with your teacher about potential situations when interpreters and translators intervene and make corrections.

6.

a) N. Mandela was the 19th president of South Africa (SA), a country that is a former colony of the British Empire, which means, English became one of SA's official languages (11 in total). Therefore, during his memorial service in 2013, there was no need to have an interpreter from English. However, the organizers invited a Sign Language interpreter, to make sure that Deaf people were considered as well. After the ceremony, the interpreter was banned from working as an SL translator in SA. How do you think, what was the reason?

b) At the time when King Felipe VI of Spain had a joint press conference with the U.S. president Barack Obama at the Oval Office in 2015, Spain was facing an independence vote in Catalonia that could end up in a political and economic crisis for the kingdom. On his remarks, president Obama stated that the United States wanted a relationship with a strong and united Spain, but the consecutive interpreter's rendition was: "*a stronger and united relationship with Spain*". So, how do you think, what happened afterwards?

7.

a) During Richard Nixon's visit to China in 1972, the Chinese premier Zhou Enlai famously was translated into English that it was too early to tell which the effects of the French Revolution are. He was praised for his sage words, seen as reflecting Chinese philosophy; yet he was not understood by the American counterparts. Why?

b) The Canadian Prime Minister Justin Trudeau went through a sensitive situation and even had to issue a letter of apology. He was speaking at a meeting in Quebec in French but a question was suddenly asked to him in English about mental health services. Being a bilingual, he answered in French and that was his *faux pas*! The Office of the Commissioner of Official Languages received 11 complaints because of that particular mishap alone, and an investigation was started. The total number of complaints eventually rose to 14. While this may be a

situation unique to Canada, however, there was a breach of an etiquette rule of thumb. How do you think, which one?

8.

a) How and where are the interpreters positioned/seated during interpretation? (consecutive and simultaneous).

b) Imagine you see the pictures of Milne's Owl, Rudyard Kipling's Bagheera and Lewis Carroll's Dormouse. What do these characters have in common from the translation perspective?

9.

a) What is G20? Is Moldova part of G20?

b) What type of interpretation is provided during the G20 Summit and how many languages? Is it an interpretation in the first or third person?

TOPICS FOR REPORTS

1. Learning a foreign language versus learning translation
2. A brief history of translation and interpretation
3. Comparing translation and interpretation process and product
4. Unit of translation – the magic text segment
5. Peculiarities of text types in translation
6. Translation as a mental process
7. The translator as a cross-cultural mediator
8. Source-text oriented versus target-recipient oriented translation
9. Translator's notes
10. Translation as a creative task
11. Errors in translation
12. Translation problems and difficulties
13. The translator is a traitor: old and new perspectives to the dictum
14. Famous translators and interpreters in history
15. Tools and resources for translators
16. Note-taking and memory in consecutive interpreting
17. Fidelity in translation

18. Machine translation today: challenges and limitations
19. Technological innovations in translation
20. Audiovisual translation and Translation Studies
21. Approaches to translation evaluation
22. Investigating (written) translation techniques
23. Exploring oral translation techniques
24. Translation and interpreting services in Moldova
25. Literary translation in the Republic of Moldova and in the world
26. Status of translators and interpreters in the Republic of Moldova and at international level
27. Translating the untranslatable
28. Losses and gains in translation
29. Stress and anxiety in interpreting: causes and management
30. Translator's professional pride

REFERENCES

1. Aixelà J. F. An overview of interference in scientific and technical translation. In: *The Journal of Specialised Translation*, 2009, no. 11, pp.75-88.
2. Baker M. In *Other Words: A Coursebook on Translation*. London: Sage Publication, (1992) 2011. 301p.
3. Bassnett S. *Translation Studies*. Routledge, 2002. 170 p.
4. Bell R.T. *Translation and Translating: Theory and Practice*. London: Longman, 1991. 297 p.
5. Boase-Beier J. *A Critical Introduction to Translation Studies*. Continuum, 2011. 187 p.
6. Catford J.C. *A Linguistic Theory of Translation*. London: Longman, 1965. 103 p.
7. Chamizo Domínguez P. J. *Semantics and Pragmatics of False Friends*. Routledge, 2008. 186 p.
8. Chen Z., Dong X. Simultaneous Interpreting: Principles and Training. In: *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 2010, vol. 1, no. 5, pp. 714-716.
9. Chesterman A. *Memes of Translation. The spread of ideas in translation theory*. John Benjamins Publishing, 1997. 219 p.
10. Dash N. S. Role of context in word sense disambiguation. *Indian Linguistics*, 2005, 66(1-4), pp.159-175.
11. Delisle J. et al., ed. *Translation Terminology*. Amsterdam and Philadelphia: John Benjamins, 1999.
12. Fawcett P. *Translation and Language: Linguistic Approaches Explained*. Manchester: St Jerome, 1997. 160 p.
13. Gak V., Grigoryev B. *Teoria i praktika perevoda. Frantsuzskiy yazyk / Теория и практика перевода. Французский язык*. Москва: Interdialekt +, 2000, сс. 456.
14. García-Landa M. Translation Theory and the Problem of Equivalence. In: *Hermēneus. Revista de Traducción e Interpretación*, 2000, no.2, 4 p.
15. Gile D. Basic Theoretical Components in Interpreter and Translator Training. In: C. Dollerup, A. Loddegaard (eds). *Teaching Translation and Interpreting: Training, Talent and Experience*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins, 1992.
16. Gile, D. *Basic Concepts and Models for Interpreter and Translator Training*. Amsterdam and Philadelphia: John Benjamins, 1995.
17. Gouadec D. *Translation as a Profession*. John Benjamins, 2007. 396 p.

18. Hatim B. *Teaching and Researching Translation*. Second edition. Routledge, 2013. 326 p.
19. Holmes J. S. "The Name and Nature of Translation Studies". In: James S. Holmes. *Translated: Papers on Literary Translation and Translation Studies*. Amsterdam: Rodopi, 1988 (1975). pp. 66-80. Available: <https://m.tau.ac.il/tarbut/tirgum/holmes75.htm>
20. House J. *Translation Quality Assessment. Past and Present*. Routledge, 2014. 160 p.
21. Ivir V. Procedures and Strategies for the translation of culture. In: *Indiana Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 1987, vol. 13, no. 2, pp.35-46
22. Jakobson R. *On Linguistic Aspects of Translation*. *The Translation Studies Reader*. Ed. by L. Venuti, London and New York: Routledge, 2000, pp. 113-118.
23. Kade O. *Zufall und Gesetzmässigkeit in der Übersetzung*, Leipzig, 1968.
24. Koller W. The concept of equivalence and the object of translation studies. In: *Target*, 1995, no. 7 (2), pp. 191-222.
25. Komissarov V.N. *Translation theory: linguistic aspects/ Теория перевода (лингвистические аспекты)*. Moscow, Vysshaya shkola Publ. 1990. 253 p.
26. Levinson S.C. *Pragmatics*. Beijing: Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press, 2001.
27. Melby A. K. Context in translation: Definition, access and teamwork. In: *Translation & Interpreting*, 2010, vol. 2, no. 2, 15 p. Available: [https://trans.int.org/index.php/transint/article/view File/87/70](https://trans.int.org/index.php/transint/article/view/File/87/70)
28. Millan C., Bartrina F. *The Routledge Handbook of Translation Studies*. Routledge, 2013. 571 p.
29. Miram G. **Вступительный курс по формализации перевода /Translation Algorithms**. Introduction to Translation Formalization. Kyiv: Twim inter, 1998. 176 p.
30. Munday J. *Introducing Translation Studies Theories and applications*. Routledge, 2001. 222 p.
31. Newmark P. *About Translation*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters, 1991. 184 p.
32. Newmark P. *A Textbook of Translation*. New York: Prentice-Hall International, 1988. 292 p.
33. Nida E. A. *Toward a Science of Translating: With Special Reference to Principles Involved in Bible Translating*. Leiden: E. J. Brill, 1964. 331 p.
34. Nord C. *Translating as a Purposeful Activity: Functionalist Approaches Explained*. St. Jerome Publication, 1997. 154 p.

35. Pym A. Exploring Translation Theories. Second edition, Routledge, 2014. 178 p.
36. Pym A. Translation Error Analysis and the Interface with Language Teaching. In: The Teaching of Translation, Ed. C. Dollerup and A. Loddegaard, Amsterdam: JohnBenjamins, 1992, pp. 279-288.
37. Reiss K. 'Text types, translation types and translation assessment', 1977. In: A. Chesterman, Ed. 1989, pp. 105-115.
38. Retsker Y. **Teoriya perevoda /Теория перевода и переводческая практика**, Moscow, 2007.
39. Robinson D. Becoming a Translator. An Introduction to the Theory and Practice of Translation. Second Edition. Routledge, 1997, 2003. 301 p.
40. Schweitzer A. D. **Teoriia perevoda: Status, problemy, aspekty/Theory of translation: Status, issues, aspects**. Moscow: Nauka, 1988. 215 p.
41. Séguinot C. Translation Theory, Translating Theory and the Sentence. In: Word, Text, Translation. G. Anderman, M. Rogers Eds. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters, 1999, pp. 84-94.
42. Setton R., Dawrant A. Conference Interpreting. A Complete Course. 2016. 470 p.
43. Shuttleworth M., Cowie M. Dictionary of Translation Studies. Routledge, 2014. 233 p.
44. Steiner G. After Babel: Aspects of Language and Translation. London, Oxford and New York: Oxford University Press, 1975/1998. 560 p.
45. Tytler A. F. Essay on the Principles of Translation. Everyman's Library, 1907. 239 p.
46. Veisbergs A. Translationese, Translatorese, Interference. In: L. Ilynska, M. Platonova eds. Meaning in Translation: Illusion of Precision. Cambridge Scholars Publishing, 2016, pp. 25-51.
47. Weinreich U. 1953. Language in Contact. Findings and Problems. Linguistic Circle of New York, 1953. 148 p.

Internet resources:

48. ATA Framework for Standardized Error Marking. Explanation of Error Categories. Available: <https://people.cas.uab.edu/~cochranb/214/documentos/ATA-Framework-for-Standardized-Error-Marking.pdf>
49. <http://englishstandarts.blogspot.com/>
50. <https://breakingnewsenglish.com/>
51. <https://sentence.yourdictionary.com/>
52. <https://www.americanrhetoric.com/>
53. <https://www.ereadingworksheets.com/>

54. <https://www.thefreedictionary.com/> (References to classic literature)
55. <https://www.theidioms.com/>
56. <https://www.the-scientist.com/>
57. <https://www.thoughtco.com/>
58. Osimo B. Translation Course. Available: <http://courses.logos.it/EN/index.html>

Ina SÎTNIC, Olesea BODEAN-VOZIAN

INTRODUCERE ÎN TRADUCTOLOGIE

Note de curs

(în limba engleză)

Lectură: *Antonina Dembițchi*

Machetare computerizată: *Tatiana Capliuc*

Bun de tipar 28.01.2020. Formatul $60 \times 84 \frac{1}{16}$.

Coli de tipar 8,8. Coli editoriale 7,0.

Comanda 89. Tirajul 50 ex.

Centrul Editorial-Poligrafic al USM
str. Al. Mateevici, 60, Chișinău, MD 2009
e-mail: usmcep@mail.ru