

On November 11–12, 2011, the Translation and Interpreting Section of the Department of English and American Studies of Palacký University in Olomouc, Czech Republic, hosted the first TIFO – Translation and Interpreting Forum Olomouc. The organizers' goal was to provide a platform for all parties with an interest in translating and interpreting, both academics and professionals, to meet and to discuss and critically examine relevant issues and often opposed viewpoints. The participants included representatives of universities, EU institutions, publishing industry, transnational corporations and language services providers. The present volume is a collection of selected contributions presented at the conference, which was held under the title *Teaching Translation and Interpreting Skills in the 21st Century*.

OMLS Vol. 1

Teaching Translation and Interpreting Skills in the 21st Century

Edited by
Jitka Zehnalová
Ondřej Molnár
Michal Kubánek

Teaching Translation and Interpreting Skills in the 21st Century



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Teaching Translation and Interpreting Skills in the 21st Century

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Palacký University
Olomouc
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Vol. 1

**Teaching Translation and Interpreting Skills
in the 21st Century**

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Department of English and American Studies

Philosophical Faculty, Palacký University in Olomouc, Czech Republic

November 11–12, 2011

The logo for TIFO 2011 features the word "TIFO" in a bold, sans-serif font, followed by "2011" in a slightly smaller font. Above the letter "O" in "TIFO", there is a stylized graphic of a quill pen nib pointing upwards and to the right.

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2012

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Editors' Note

On November 11–12, 2011, the Translation and Interpreting Section of the Department of English and American Studies of Palacký University in Olomouc, Czech Republic, hosted the first TIFO – Translation and Interpreting Forum Olomouc. The goal of its organizers was to provide a platform for all parties with an interest in translating and interpreting, both academics and professionals, to meet and to discuss and critically examine relevant issues and often opposed viewpoints. The hope of its organizers was to establish a new and unique tradition of this type of meeting and debate.

Translation-related educating and research has a strong presence at Palacký University. We are proud that the outstanding Czech translation scholar Jiří Levý was teaching here from 1950 to 1963, and many of us have been initiated into translation by his successor and herself a prominent translation scholar Dagmar Knittlová. For several years now, we have been trying to reinvigorate this inheritance and to develop it by responding to the current and future challenges, trends and needs of our field. And they are considerable indeed: accelerating globalization and the resulting internationalization of economies and cultures, accession of new countries to the European Union, migration and multilingualism, rapid developments in the information technology area, to name just a few. As a consequence, the profile of translators and interpreters in the professional world has changed and requirements of the translation and interpreting market have shifted. This poses important questions: What is the future of translation and interpreting profession in the 21st century? How should the changes be reflected in training future translators and interpreters? Is there a need for the university educators to redefine the postulates of the relevant academic study programmes?

These and similar issues were addressed at the TIFO 2011 held under the title “Teaching Translation and Interpreting Skills in the 21st Century”. In the pre-opening literary translation discussion, the opening panel discussion and the following 6 conference sections, more than 150 participants from 10 countries were involved, looking for answers and raising new questions. The pool included university affiliates, representatives of EU institutions, publishing industry, transnational corporations and language services providers. The list of countries and the diversity of affiliations suggest that the time was ripe for this type of event and that TIFO stands a good chance to truly become a forum where the voice of the translation and interpreting professionals of the Central European region can be heard and joined by others.

The present volume is a collection of selected contributions presented at the conference. They cover a broad and diverse range of topics and after careful consideration, we grouped them into four sections. The papers in the Translation

Sections deal with theoretical aspects and practically-oriented teaching strategies of translation. The Methodology Section discusses methodological aspects of teaching translation and interpreting. The Interpreting Section is devoted to specific issues of interpreting-related research and teaching. The small-scale but significant Translation Technology Section addresses the role and limitations of using translation technology. Reflecting the theme of the conference, the common denominator of the sections is translation and interpreting training. We believe that this field can equally be of interest to academics and language industry professionals and that it can help to bridge the still existing gap between the academic and professional aspects of this vocation.

Adhering to the successful model of its opening year, the Translation and Interpreting Forum Olomouc wants to remain an open platform for academic exchange which embraces discussion with all players in the field of trans-language and trans-culture communication. TIFO 2011 paid attention to the ongoing changes in the language industry and how they should be reflected in the training of future translators and interpreters. TIFO 2012 theme "Tradition and Trends in Trans-Language Communication" expands upon this discussion and will seek to explore the broader context in which the above mentioned changes are happening.

TRANSLATION

A Pragmatic Stylistics Approach to Translation

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ABSTRACT: The paper focuses on the exploration of inferential processes involved in interpreting texts as one way of applying ideas from pragmatics within the field of stylistics, further extending this interface to translation studies. Providing an accurate evaluation and summary of the main characteristics of the source text, one should be able to reflect the same qualities in the target text. I want to discuss potential applications of stylistic and pragmatic concepts in translation analysis, focusing mainly on the realisations of the Cooperative principle in (literary) translation via particular maxims. Aiming at a comparative perspective in my study, I want to explore specific stylistic and pragmatic aspects, usages and strategies in parallel texts: the source texts in English and the target texts in Slovak. Within this framework some thought-provoking aspects of applying pragmatic principles in (literary) translation will be pointed out.

KEYWORDS: stylistics; pragmatics; (literary) translation; analysis; (linguistic) interface

1. Introduction

In order to arrive at an interpretation of a linguistic message and consequently at an adequate translation of the given text, we rely primarily on syntactic structures and lexical items. However, it is often impossible to understand the meaning solely on the basis of words and sentence structures. The study of aspects of discourse that enable understanding of propositions or assumptions which are not encoded in the original text, interpretation of indirect speech acts, recognition of irony and ambiguity, etc., have provided room for interdisciplinary research where stylistics, pragmatics and discourse analysis play major roles. This field of study has contributed enormously towards the theory and practice of translation. The traditionally viewed procedure of translation analysis, which usually adopts the method and framework of text and/or stylistic analysis of language means at particular language levels, can be efficiently enriched by understanding translation as discourse between the author of the source text (ST) and the translator as a first-hand recipient of the ST. The importance of the translator's pragmatic competence, as well as their sensitivity to particular style characteristics of the ST, becomes crucial for their efficient functioning as mediators of the source text to the target text (TT) recipients. Approaching translation from the viewpoint of pragmatic stylistics means considering the

psychological processes involved in understanding the ST, developing interpretations of texts, and observing how texts give rise to particular effects. The pragmatic stylistics approach helps to better understand the variety of ambiguities, figurativeness and implicitness of literary texts; it also helps translators to cope with the openness of literary texts, and thus can become of central benefit to literary translation.

To illustrate the suggested approach, I use parallel samples from the English and Slovak versions of the novel *Junk* by Melvin Burgess (translated in Slovak as *Heroín*). I have discussed the texts in some of my earlier works on the pragmatics of translation; however, this time I am taking the different standpoint of a pragmatic stylistic analyst exploring specific aspects of translation. The novel is written as a series of personalised narratives; there are 32 chapters and each of them is narrated by one of the characters providing a personal summary of the situations and events. There are some parts of the text which might be challenging for the translator, who has to be sensitive to the cues and indications encoded in the text.

2. On Style and Stylistics

Because of its growing interest in culture, intercultural communication and aspects of (social, political, cultural, historical, etc.) context in translation, the conception of style that emphasises social and cultural factors is becoming more and more appealing to translation studies. This concept of style has been introduced by cognitive stylistics, which takes a central interest in context as a cognitive entity. However, it should be noted here that this development in stylistics, which aims at embracing both social and cognitive factors, is still underway, and thus its influence on translation studies is relatively new and recent.

2.1 Conceptions of Style within Translation Theories

The notion of style has frequently been a factor in early works on translation, even before the advent of stylistics as an autonomous discipline. A brief summary of the most frequent conceptions of style within translation theories opens with the views of Cicero and Horace, who considered the “style and effect” of the original to be very important, and emphasised its preservation in translation. Roman writers, whose opinions were based upon Aristotle’s theories of rhetoric and poetics, also distinguished between word-for-word and sense-for-sense translation. After the period of the Renaissance in Europe, where the search for individual expressions, experimentation and innovation in form and style was important, the conception enhancing the close link between content and style was introduced by Arnold (1861) and later adopted by theoreticians of translation (Malmkjær 2005, 12). As stated by Boase-Beier

(2006) it was noted that the translator should be aware of the style of both the source and target language, but what this meant or how it should be achieved was not further specified. With the beginning of stylistics as an autonomous discipline (from around the middle of the 20th century) several definitions of style were formulated. Among them, “style as an addition, departure or connotation”, and “style as choice” or “style as ornament” can be found (cf. Miššíková 2007; Wales 2006). Definitions of style will vary according to whether their authors wish to make links with rhetoric or particular schools of linguistic and literary studies. However, recent translation theories are not concerned with the concept of style any more than the earlier ones. This is because the purpose of stylistic studies in translation is to deal with questions of relativity, universality, and literariness. The exploration of these issues brings more understanding of what is translatable (Boase-Beier 2006, 12).

Recently, the conception of cognitive stylistics, which suggests viewing context as a cognitive entity, seems to be addressing the main concerns of translation. Some examples presented in this paper illustrate contextual, pragmatic and cognitive aspects in translation analysis.

2.2 On (Modern) Stylistics

Accounting for the purpose of this study, I will leave aside the continuing discussion on the future of stylistics (cf. Hamilton 2006), which sees the field as greatly fragmented (e.g. corpus, feminist, discourse, and cognitive stylistics, literary linguistics, etc.). Instead of arguing for the justification of stylistics as an autonomous discipline, I want to emphasise those stylistic approaches that bring benefits to any text analysis, including the analysis of the ST and TT in the process of translation. The following ideas, quoted from Wilfrid Rotgé’s “Stylistics in France Today” (2004), Paul Simpson’s *Stylistics: A Resource Book for Students* (2004) and Peter Verdonk’s *Stylistics* (2002) will provide a necessary foundation for further discussion. W. Rotgé points out the turn in stylistics, which used to be understood as the study of style commonly associated with the linguistic analysis of literary texts. However, today we examine different discourses within stylistic analysis (Rotgé 2004). In addition to this, modern stylistics shows growing interest in spoken utterances, exposing vivid, colloquial and contemporary language. Focusing on scholarly benefits and contributions, P. Simpson sees stylistics as “a method of textual interpretation in which primacy of place is assigned to *language*” (Simpson 2004, 3). In his earlier work, Simpson argues for better appreciation of the methodological and critical potential of stylistics, as well as of stylistic methods that are systematic and principled. Thus “stylistics allows different readers to come to an interpretative ‘consensus’ about a text” (Simpson 1997, 5). According to Verdonk (2002, 4), “stylistics focuses on the analysis of distinctive expressions in lan-

guage and the description of its purpose and its effect". The notions of the purpose and effect of a text have already been acknowledged as the key concepts to be respected and dealt with in translation (stylistic or text) analysis.

3. On Pragmatic Stylistics

Pragmatic stylistics is a branch of stylistics that applies ideas from linguistic pragmatics to the analysis of texts and their interpretations. As noted before, stylistics is not only about literary texts; in recent years, consistent study of non-literary texts has become an inherent part of stylistic analyses and observations. Pragmatic stylistics thus aims to explain the effects of all kinds of texts. As pointed out by Clark (2009), work in pragmatic stylistics has largely focused on psychological processes involved in understanding, or developing interpretations of texts. A natural assumption is that Gricean or Neo-Gricean approaches can explain how characters understand each other and how we understand characters. Pragmatic stylistics should have something to say about all kinds of inferences involved in interpreting texts. Clark's approach is an inferential one: he believes that focusing on understanding inferences enables "(pragmatic) stylistics to engage with other areas of literary study, shedding light on questions about literary interpretation, literary criticism and literary value" (2009, 4). In this way, it is especially literary translation that can profit enormously from the approach of pragmatic stylistics. The examples discussed in Part 5 of this paper aim to exemplify some aspects of literary translation.

Pragmatics, Stylistics and Pragmatic stylistics are all understood in different ways by different researchers. My aim is to consider how texts give rise to particular effects. In doing so, I want to adopt a traditional pragmatic approach, focusing on Grice's Cooperative principle and apply it to a stylistic approach. Dealing with (literary) translation, one has to become involved in a demanding process of understanding, interpreting and making inferences. Here, an important role is played by the background knowledge and information structures stored in our memory in the form of schemata, frames and scenarios. Thus it should be of great benefit to discuss and implement these concepts in pragmatic stylistics, which has always largely focused on the psychological processes involved in the understanding of texts.

4. Aspect of Translation: Analysis and Commentary

4.1 Inferential Approach

Understanding inferences in the Pragmatic stylistics approach means dealing with all kinds of inferences involved in interpreting texts. As a matter of fact,

in everyday situations we do not really notice the inferences we are making. However, some examples draw our attention to inferential processes so that we cannot help notice them. Common examples of inferential process include jokes, misunderstandings, various arguable and disputable meanings, and certain kinds of witty or playful language, including literary or creative language. Inferential processes help to make sense of various advertising slogans, headlines, catch-phrases, jokes, etc. For example, one of the most popular conference slogans of the Poetics and Linguistics Association (PALA) was *PALA does it with style*. Needless to say, members of PALA understand easily the complexity and ambiguity of the expressed message. On the other hand, those having no concept of PALA will not be able to unfold the message at all. This example points out the importance of particular background knowledge and, especially in spoken utterances, the role of the immediate situation and setting of conversation. Our natural ability to infer and read between the lines enables us to produce and understand such messages as the following one taken from my e-mail correspondence: *Enjoy Brussels (and don't work 24/7 :))*. Translators often have to engage in processes very similar to these. Their ability to understand and correctly interpret the source text is directly dependent on the quality and amount of their background knowledge about the given cultural, social, historical, etc. context. In the following example, which semantically (unlike pragmatically) speaking does not make too much sense when isolated from the rest of the (co) text, the translator had to rely upon the general background knowledge of a potential reader, reflecting common experiences people accumulate while living their everyday lives. Conventional aspects of the situation described are generally assumed. Since there are no significant differences between the source and target text cultures, the translator decides to use common colloquial language with respective modifications of grammar and vocabulary. The TT reflects the level of informality and spokenness via stylistically marked sentence patterns (i.e. repetitions, aposiopesis and anacoluthon) typical of informal spoken utterances.

- (1) *The trouble was, I kept thinking I'd feel better if . . . In the end I thought, See what happens tonight with Mr Scholl. I mean, if he got me sorted out with somewhere to live, everything would be okay . . .* (BJ:25)
- (2) *Teraz som si pomyslel, že . . . Nakoniec som si povedal, uvidíme, čo bude dnes večer u pána Scholla. Keby mi našiel niečo na bývanie, všetko by bolo v poriadku . . .* (BH:26)

In translation practice, this method of working with text requires viewing any ST as discourse in which particular messages are to be negotiated in the process of cooperation between the author and the reader (translator) accounting

for the immediate context of situation. Dealing with literary texts, the main disadvantage of this approach is the absence of a natural immediate environment. In non-literary texts, which usually tend to be more explicit and less ambiguous, the context and background knowledge substitute for the actual environment or communicative situation. In literary texts, this absence of immediate setting has to be overcome by acknowledging (fictional) settings, situations and contexts provided by the author of the ST. Since the situations provided by the author of the original literary text are crucial clues for translators, it is of the utmost importance that they understand and interpret them correctly and accurately. Hence the need for advanced analytical and interpretative skills in translator training. The following example is very characteristic of literary texts showing states of mind, emotional movements, etc. of characters. The context of the chapter, as well as particular situations provided by the author of the ST, substitute for the natural immediate setting of the spoken interaction. The example below illustrates how the absence of immediate environment can restrict or obstruct full understanding of a text. The interrupted fragmentary utterance shows the hesitation of the speaker, reflected also in the Slovak translation:

- (3) *As far as I was concerned . . . But as I say . . . I don't know what he thought . . .* (BJ:37)
(4) *. . . Ako som povedal, . . . Neviem, čo si myslel . . .* (BH:40)

The proposition of the sentence *I don't know what he thought* is preceded by two hedging expressions in the ST. The ST speaker provides pragmatic markers of his cooperative attitude. By uttering the hedging statement *As far as I was concerned* he indicates that what he is saying might be his personal opinion and so not exactly the truth. The second hedging statement *But as I say* indicates that he knows he is being repetitive and aims at the maxim of quantity. Both hedging devices can be interpreted as the speaker's awareness of the Cooperative principle (CP), as well as being aware of the possible breach of the respective CP maxims. The maxim of quality is about truthfulness in conversation, so the first hedging statement can be seen as a hedge of the maxim of quality, and the second as a hedge of the maxim of quantity. The awareness of the CP helps the translator to infer the meanings accurately and correctly and create a TT of close resemblance to the ST. In the example above, the second hedging device is omitted and the reader lacks the hint of the subjective and personal character of the utterance. It is often the case that stylistic means expressing subjectivity and personal traits are spread throughout the broader text and expressed at different text levels in the TT.

4.2 Inferring the Utterance Meaning

In the following monologue the speaker summarises past experiences in his life and considers perspectives for the future. There is a conventional part of the utterance meaning which can be marked as “an expression of the speaker’s disillusionment”. However, the complex meaning of this utterance also involves inferring conversational parts of the utterance meaning. By saying *I don’t mean that in a cynical way* the speaker advises us how to properly understand his words; this statement fulfils pragmatic functions and can be classified as a hedge:

- (5) *I don’t believe in anything any more. I don’t believe in me, I don’t believe in my friends, I don’t believe in Gemma. But **I don’t mean that in a cynical way.*** (BJ:219)
- (6) *Už ničomu neverím. Neverím v seba, neverím v svojich priateľov, neverím v Gemmu. **Nemyslím to ironicky.*** (BH:165)

The utterance expresses the speaker’s personal feelings, his “world view”. In terms of semantics, it entails disappointment and disillusion. In terms of pragmatics, it implies that what is said may be just a temporary opinion, not a real complaint or an act of blaming. The hedged statement enables us to infer that what is said is to be taken as an unemotional and realistic description of the situation. In this example, the hedging expression serves to clarify the “manner” of talk; it reflects the speaker’s wish to make the utterance perspicuous by advising the reader how to perceive the message. Thus it can be classified as the hedge related to the maxim of manner.

In the following examples, the use of hedges related mainly to the maxims of quality and quantity (highlighted in italics) help the reader better infer the meaning of the message that is to be communicated within a politically and culturally specific context. The need for an advanced pragmatic competence of the translator, their stylistic sensibility as well as their knowledge of the given cultural and political context is inevitable. The Slovak translator follows the ST as closely as possible. However, she decides to omit a statement which may be seen as “untranslatable” in a different cultural setting. The sentence *I think a bar mitzvah is a sort of biscuit* would not make sense in the TT and so the colloquial idiomatic expression *prisahám, ako je Boh nado mnou* is used to add expressiveness. From the stylistic point of view, the text sample exhibits fragmentary sentence structures, which is a common way of “recording” spontaneous, emotionally aided spoken utterances in literary texts. Also, a more skilful translator would probably consider more expressive colloquial vocabulary that would be acceptable in a given context and certainly appreciated by the TT recipients.

- (7) *We had riots a while ago. Blacks, mainly. **As usual.** My shop got smashed up, **would you believe?** And you know what they painted on the front? "Fat Jew Bastard."
Me . . . a Jew? **I ask you.** I'm so Jewish, I think a bar mitzvah is a sort of biscuit. Fat . . . **all right.** Bastard . . . **well, sometimes.** But I'm no Jew-boy. Those Rastas are more Jewish than I am. (BJ:199)*
- (8) *Nedávno v noci tu vyčínali. **Väčšinou** černosi. **Ako obyčajne.** Môj stánok bol celý naruby, **verili by ste tomu?** A viete čo napísali na prednú stenu? Tučný Žid, bastard.
Ja a Žid? Nie som Žid, **prisahám, ako je Boh nado mnou.** Že som tučný . . . **nuž, dobre,** že som bastard, **nuž, niekedy som.** Ale Žid nie som. Tie čierne huby sú väčšmi Židia ako ja. (BH:150)*

4.3 Information Structures Stored in Memory: Frames and Scenarios

The following monologue is delivered by Skolly, one of the main characters in the novel, who witnesses an accident and recovers his memories of being a young man. Points of interest are highlighted in bold:

- (9) *I stared hard at him. Then it clicked.
It was **only** David. It was **only** that lad I'd given to Richard a few years before. **I thought,** Bugger me, you've come a long way and most of it's been straight down. **I remembered** that time he turned down my fags and told me they turn your skin grey. I had a pack of Bensons in my pocket; if I'd had the nerve I'd have waved at him and shouted "I bet you wouldn't say no now." **But** there were coppers everywhere. **It's not all that clever to catch the eye of the Bill when they're busy about their work.** I saw a copper who was with them watching me, so I did **what I always do when I see a copper watching me.** I moved on. (BJ:209)*

This event is a scene which consists of several frames. The scene and frames are common in our cultural background; the readers of both the ST and TT can easily recognise them and arrive at quite a clear picture of the event. The scene and frames are located in a broader situational context, a scenario that again builds on the social and cultural contexts shared by the readers. Some of the frames can be labelled as F1 – an accident, something has happened (implicated by the proposition *police cars and ambulance in front of a house*), F2 – someone has been injured (implicated by the propositions *two ambulance men carrying a young man out of the house, his head on his chest, he is stumbling*), and F3 – police investigation (implicated by the propositions *these are drug addicts, squatters, they are taken by the police for further investigation*), etc. The scene is narrated by Skolly, who gives details on it from his personal perspective. Thus

we are able to make inferences about Skolly's relationship to the other characters in the novel he is talking about. Making use of frames and scenes, which provide us with an immediate environment and a situational context of communication, we are able to work out particular implicatures, such as that the scene relates to young drug addicts and, based on implied propositions in the co-text, we can infer that what happened is that one of them took too much, his friends got scared and called the ambulance. We are able to fully understand the utterance on the basis of a set of inferential processes. Considering the Slovak translation, there are several aspects which might cause problems:

- (10) *Zahľadel som sa naňho. A potom mi zaplo. Bol to David! Bol to ten chalan, ktorého som pred niekoľkými rokmi zveril Richardovi. **Pomyslel som si, dočerta, určite** prežil veľa, **možno** sa dostal celkom na dno. **Spomenul som si na to, keď odmietol moje cigarety a povedal, že od nich zosvie pokožka. Mal som vo vrecku škatuľku bensoniek, keby som mal silné nervy, zamával by som mu a zakričal:*** „Stavím sa, že teraz by si ich neodmietol.“ **Ale všade boli policajti. Nie je múdre, aby ste im zavadzali, keď majú plné ruky práce. Všimol som si, že jeden z policajtov sa na mňa díva, tak som urobil to, čo robievam vždy v takej situácii. Pohl som sa preč.** (BH:159)

Leaving aside linguistic / stylistic issues (especially the use of substandard forms), a pragmatic approach to the ST analysis involves correctly inferring implications and implicatures, so that they are “embodied” in the TT. In the above example the translator aimed at rendering the conventional part of the utterance meaning by the use of parallel language means at lexical and syntactic levels. Propositions are also rendered so that the reader of the TT can infer the same implications as the reader of the ST. However, the translator has to make sure that the implicatures communicated by the author of the novel are also the same. In addition to rendering the hedged expressions used in the ST in the TT (e.g. *It was only / Bol to, only that lad / ten chalan, I thought / Pomyslel som si*), the translator uses additional devices to enhance the conversational part of the utterance meaning. Accumulated hedges and intensifiers, such as *určite / surely, možno / perhaps, všimol som si / I noticed that*, emphasise the speaker's observance of the CP maxims, his willingness to cooperate. Thus the reader of the TT is given all the necessary evidence needed to work out implicatures communicated by the author of the ST.

4.4 Gricean Pragmatics Revisited: Implicature and Entailment

As illustrated above, implications are propositions which follow logically from other propositions, whether intentionally communicated or not, and implicatures are intentionally communicated propositions. Implicatures are thus

a subset of implications (cf. Wilson and Sperber 1996, 182). A brief summary of the main concepts of Gricean pragmatics as further elaborated by the relevance theorists is to be considered.

Relevance theory departs from Grice's framework in two important aspects. While Grice was mainly concerned with the role of pragmatic inference in implicit communication, relevance theorists "have consistently argued that the explicit side of communication is just as inferential and worthy of pragmatic attention as the implicit side" (Wilson and Sperber 1996, 182). They have also argued that "relevance-oriented inferential processes are efficient enough to allow for a much greater slack between sentence meaning and speaker's meaning, with sentence meaning typically being quite fragmentary and incomplete, and speaker's explicit meaning going well beyond the minimal proposition arrived at by disambiguation and reference assignment" (1996, 183).

Thus the focus is on implicit and explicit communication; the relevance theorists share Grice's desire to relieve semantics of aspects that can be best explained at the pragmatic level, but they suggest a different way this pragmatic explanation should go. As a result of this, their term explicature allows for a richer elaboration than Grice's notion of "what is said": "A proposition communicated by an utterance is an explicature if, and only if, it is a development of a logical form encoded by the utterance" (Sperber and Wilson 1996, 182). The term implicature is defined as "a proposition communicated by an utterance, but not explicitly" (ibid.).

Similarly, implicatures are defined by Neo-Griceans as that kind of meaning which "arises as a result of interactants' mutual knowledge of the conversational maxims" (Grundy 2000, 81). This is a non-conventional, context-dependent meaning; utterances can create different implicatures in different contexts of use. Entailments are "conventional or semantic meanings which cannot by definition be cancelled without creating a contradiction" (2000, 82). The message conveyed in an utterance is usually based not only on what is said but also on what is (con conversationally) implicated. Among implicatures, a subclass of conversational implicatures has been recognised. Cruse (2000) has suggested several distinctive criteria for conversational implicatures. For instance, the so-called context dependence criterion points out that "an expression with a single meaning can give rise to different conversational implicatures in different contexts" (2000, 350), such as the statement *He's your father, David.* in the example below can give rise to different implicatures if given as a response to a question like *Who is this man?*

- (11) "You haven't left him, then?"
 "**He's your father, David.**"

Other criteria include defeasibility / cancellability, non-detachability, calculability, etc. (cf. Cruse 2000, 350–51). These criteria involve assumptions of the speaker's responsibility for the content of implicatures and explicatures, and thus, telling a lie, and conveying a misleading implicature (for example, when providing incomplete information) are considered as two distinct conversational strategies. Example (11) above, as well as the following example (12) illustrates the case of the speaker providing incomplete information. This is recognised as flouting the maxim (of quality). The reader has to “read between the lines” and thus more is communicated than said; conversational implicatures have to be inferred.

- (12) “*How do you describe Lily?*”
 “*Yeah, no one's found the right word for Lils yet,*” I said.

4.5 (Non)Observance of Grice's Conversational Maxims

Conversational situations where speakers do not abide by the CP and its maxims are quite common. Speakers signal their (non)observance of the CP maxims by the use of hedging devices. The translator has to recognise their pragmatic function in the ST and look for adequate expressions in the TT. Problems may arise when the speakers choose to flout or violate the maxim. In example (13), the speaker is flouting the maxim of relevance by giving an indirect answer to a direct question. In this way, he is trying to avoid saying no, and we can say that the Politeness principle (Leech 1983) has been preferred at the expense of the Cooperative principle. We can infer that the speaker considers a clear *no* an impolite answer. He wants the listener to infer also a pragmatic meaning which is slightly different from the semantic meaning expressed in his utterance. The inferences made between the speakers here indicate a “special” type of relationship.¹ Inferences created by David's responses *Sort of* and *I'm not that bad* are: a) I am trying to stay clean but it is hard; b) I cannot guarantee I will not take drugs when I am with you; c) I have control over the matter. A second type of inference is that created between the author and the reader of the literary text. These can be viewed as intentionally communicated propositions, or implicatures, between the author of the ST and the reader / translator. Considering also other propositions made in the text, we infer several implications, such as a) Richard is the owner of the house; b) he takes responsibility; c) he takes care of homeless people; d) he decides who can and who cannot visit and stay in the house. The second speaker, David, is in a “pleading” position, we infer his insecurity and shyness.

¹ Richard and David are the main characters of the novel.

The implicature intentionally communicated by the author is that Richard is in a position of power and superior to David because he is “clean”.

(13) *I said, “Are you clean?”*

“Sort of.”

“I don’t want any needles in the house.”

“I’m not that bad,” he said.

The translator has inferred implied propositions and the main implicature. Her translation strategy here is to use intensifiers, synonymous expressions and linguistic structures, which in fact “describe” and “explain” the meanings inferred. For example, *I said* is translated as *Opýtal som sa ho* [I asked him] which is what we infer. Similarly, the expression *Sort of* is translated as *Dá sa to tak povedať* [it can be said in this way] and *I’m not that bad* as *Nie som na tom tak zle* [I am not in such bad shape]. As a result of this strategy, the TT is in general more explicit:

(14) *Opýtal som sa ho: „Si čistý?”*

„Dá sa to tak povedať.”

„Vo svojom dome nechcem vidieť žiadne ihly.”

„Nie som na tom tak zle,” odvetil.

The speaker can violate the maxim with the aim of intentionally deceiving the listener, as in examples (5a–b) which represent the case of non-observance of the maxim. Inferences about Lily, another character in the novel, and her way of life can be understood from the following utterance:

(15) *Listen: Auntie Lily knows the way it really is.*

*Air is free. What, you know that? Good for you. Okay. **Food is free.** Ah, you didn’t know that one!*

...

*The food’s piled up everywhere – on shelves, in great heaps and stacks on the floor, in boxes and bags and bins. **You want it, you name it – it’s yours.***

(16) *Počúvaj: Tetuška Lily vie, ako je to naozaj.*

*Vzduch je zadarmo. Čo, že o tom vieš? To je dobre. Dobre. **Aj jedlo je zadarmo.** Ach, to si nevedel!*

...

*Jedlo leží všade – na policiach, na veľkých kopách či v škatuliach na zemi, vo vrecúškach či košoch. **Chceš ho, vieš ho pomenovať – tak si ho ber.***

The reader infers that Lily deceives David by saying that stealing is normal. Implicated meanings are that a) Lily is trying to persuade David that leaving

home and being homeless is not that bad; b) she pretends to be free and happy. The author thus intentionally communicates an implicature that homeless and drug-addicted people create their own world view, and adopt some weird sense of morality. The language means used simulate clumsy speech (lexical redundancy, stylistically inverted word-order, expressive sentence patterns, repetitions, anacoluthons), which makes us infer that she has taken drugs. The TT renders the implicatures and inferences from the ST by using parallel language means.

The speaker can also decide to opt out of the maxim. The characters refuse to cooperate when talking to their parents, policemen or other people outside their community. Sometimes they telephone home and directly refuse to answer their parents' questions regarding their way of life. Thus the pragmatic function of opting out of the maxim in their utterances signals moments of homesickness and disillusion about their parents' attitudes. In the following telephone conversation between David and his mother, it is the mother who refuses to talk. We make inferences about the relationship between mother and son; her refusal to speak implies that a) there have been problems in the family; b) she is angry at him; c) she wants him back home. More propositions are understood from the co-text. We learn that she cannot talk because his father is listening, and, at the same time, we infer that David notices that she has been drinking again and gets upset. It has been implied here that the mother is misusing her son's feelings for her. The implicature communicated by the author is the true reason why David left home. By uttering *I can't say much, Tar*² his mother is opting out the maxim of the CP, which is a recognised communicative strategy. The speaker tries to avoid certain communicative problems, such as giving incorrect information, revealing a secret, creating a faux pas, FTAs, etc.

(17) *And . . . are you all right, Mum? Mum, say something, won't you?"*

"I can't say much, Tar," she said in a fairly ordinary voice.

(18) *"Si v poriadku mama? Mama, veď povedz niečo!"*

"Nemôžem ti nič povedať, David," odvetila celkom obyčajným hlasom.

There are some other cases of non-observance of the maxims, such as suspending and infringing, which are due to specific cultural norms or imperfect knowledge of the language (cf. Thomas 1995, 65–77). In such cases, the translator has to correctly evaluate the situation and look for solutions. There were no examples of this in my material.

² Tar is David's nickname.

5. Conclusions

The pragmatics of translation is a term which can be applied to a wide range of approaches. Here I have considered some of the questions which might be explored by looking at the inferential processes made by the reader / translator of the ST. An inferential approach to translation enables one to account for implications and implicatures communicated between the author and the recipient of a literary work, as well as between the characters. Attempts at applying concepts of Neo-Gricean pragmatics to literary translation can be seen as efficient ways of widening the scope of monolingual written communication to cross-lingual (and cross-cultural) communication, which are of great benefit to the theory and practice of literary translation.

An advanced pragmatic competence of translators can build on their systematically trained and exercised stylistic skills. Subsequently, pragmatic stylistics for translators offers practice of analytical and critical reading skills. It builds on the fact that all communication involves inference by communicators and addressees who are in the process of translation – the source texts' authors and their translators. The suggested approach, which incorporates a pragmatic stylistics approach to translation analysis, enables a better understanding of inferential processes. In general, this is a useful way of helping to understand how texts give rise to effects, and also how to preserve and/or create these effects in the TT. In some cases, the inferences we make are very salient, so it is particularly important to look at inference in these cases, hence the need for style and discourse-sensitive translators. Viewing the translator as a competent and professional reader and mediator of communicated meanings, these aspects bear direct relevance to translators' competence, their professionalism and responsibility.

Analysed Texts

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Translators Up-and-down the Garden Path: The Transfer of Pragmatic Meaning as a Part of Translation Competence

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ABSTRACT: The paper addresses the area of pragmatic meaning and its transfer from English source texts (STs) into Czech target texts (TTs) in the context of translation competence (TC) and its acquisition. It argues that the transfer of intended meanings is an essential part of TC that needs to be systematically developed in the course of TC acquisition and supports this thesis by analysing two translation versions of an English ST. Focusing on irony, it identifies the challenges involved in its transfer as comprehension difficulty and cultural specificity and demonstrates that an unsuccessful transfer of irony can cause incoherence of the TT. The analyses are followed by a teaching proposal that is designed to deal with pragmatically demanding STs and stresses the importance of translation strategies based on creativity and on an awareness of cultural and linguistic differences.

KEYWORDS: translation competence; pragmatic meaning; irony; translation process; source text analysis; target text analysis

1. Introduction

Both translation scholars and translation teachers often find themselves asking: “What is it translators need to know and be in order to translate?” (Bell 1991, 35). Based on our teaching experience, we deal with translation competence (TC) in connection with the transfer of pragmatic meaning. Pragmatics itself and pragmatics as related to translating covers an extremely wide range of phenomena. In this paper, we will pay attention to the transfer of intended meanings, specifically irony. We are interested in irony as it is an intriguing issue that tends to cause considerable problems to the students of translation.

We will seek to demonstrate this by analysing a student translation that adequately rendered all aspects of the assigned source text (ST) but failed to transfer irony. We argue that the ability to transfer pragmatic meanings is a vital part of TC acquisition and deserves a special attention of the teachers of translation. Therefore, we examine an English ST and its two Czech translation versions to illustrate how the top-down and bottom-up aspects of a ST analysis can interweave and also to illustrate how a specific text sample can be processed. At a more general level, we put forward a teaching proposal suggesting a way to treat pragmatically challenging STs in translation seminars.

2. Theoretical Framework

2.1 Pragmatic Meaning as a Part of Translation Competence

TC (other terms include *translation ability*, *translation skills*, *translational competence*, *translator's competence* and *translation expertise*, see Hurtado Albir and Alves (2009, 63), is a key concept of translation pedagogy and is defined as “the set of knowledge, skills, attitudes and aptitudes which a translator possesses in order to undertake professional activity in the field” (2009, 64). The concept of TC was developed by a number of scholars (for a survey see Hurtado Albir and Alves 2009, 63–68), for other surveys and recent findings on this topic see PACTE Group (2008; 2011). In one way or another, pragmatic meaning is included in all TC models. In Bell's (1991) model, it is subsumed under the discourse competence (and the communicative and textual competences). Within the PACTE Group model, it is explicitly mentioned as a part of the bilingual sub-competence (PACTE Group 2008, 106). As we would like to show below, the transfer of pragmatic meaning, and specifically of intended meanings, is for several reasons an essential part of TC and of TC acquisition.

First, pragmatic meaning is an integral part of the overall meaning of the ST and at the same time may be difficult to identify. As Black remarks: “Some utterances are deceptive, in that the first obvious interpretation may not be the correct one (that is, we are led down the garden path to an unexpected place). This often applies to jokes . . . and is characteristic of irony” (2006, 87). The identification of intended pragmatic meanings depends on the recognition of linguistic markers and on context sensitivity and this complex cognitive activity tends to cause significant problems to the translation students.

Second, the way intended meanings are signalled is language and culture specific. The cultural competence of the students is thus a crucial element. It can be fostered by making them aware of this specificity and by introducing them to the target language- (TL) and the target culture-specific repertoire of options and means to express intended meanings.

Third, the ability to adequately transfer pragmatic meaning along with interpretive competence, context sensitivity, cultural competence, re-expression competence, and creativity in the TL are skills with a great potential for practical use in the translation profession as they are necessary for translating different text types.

2.2 The Garden Path to an Unexpected Place

As mentioned above, intended meanings in general may be deceptive and difficult to identify. Irony particularly, as numerous sources acknowledge, is notoriously deceptive. Authors researching irony agree that it is a risky textual

strategy with no guarantee of successful recognition. The identification of irony requires context sensitivity, the ability to make inferences and an active engagement with the text. “Many also invoke a sort of *general cultural competence* to cover the presuppositions, background information, assumptions, beliefs, knowledge and values that are shared by ironist and interpreter” (Hutcheon 2005, 91; italics added).

Our teaching experience confirms that all these skills are crucial for translation students and need to be purposefully developed. Students with a higher level of cultural competence, and inquisitive students enjoying active engagement with the text, are much better at identifying and thus at translating irony than their less “curious” and less culturally competent peers, irrespective of their language competence. Context and co-text sensitivity is another key skill. Its importance is highlighted by two facts. First, the identification of irony may depend on the linguistic means of different types and sizes. “A single word or phrase can trigger an ironic interpretation. It is clearly a risky textual strategy . . . partly perhaps because of the difficulty in identifying a linguistic element which would help to confirm its presence” (Black 2006, 115). Second, an adequate translation, in the sense of creating a coherent and purposeful target text (TT) message, may depend on the successful transfer of this single element. Our paper will attempt to demonstrate both these points.

How then are we to go about identifying irony? Which clues serve to signal it? What can students watch out for in their assigned STs?

Hutcheon states that “any aspect of speech (lexical, syntactic, phonetic) could be (but would not necessarily be) a marker of irony” and presents a “list” of markers (2005, 147–50). Her classification distinguishes meta-ironic markers (accompanying paralinguistic markers that function to signal reflexively that irony is either being intended or can be interpreted as present) and structural markers.

Meta-ironic markers include four categories of signals:

- 1) gestural (e.g. a smirk, a wink, a raised eyebrow);
- 2) phonic (e.g. throat clearing, change of voice register, alterations of speed, the stressing of certain words, intonation and tone of voice);
- 3) graphic punctuation signs and typographical markers (e.g. quotation marks, inverted commas, italics, diacritics, exclamation marks, question marks, dashes, ellipses, parentheses);
- 4) overtly metalinguistic remarks, inviting openly the inference of irony (e.g. *so-called, so to speak, of course, as they say, to be ironic*).

Structural markers include five categories of signals:

- 1) various changes of register;

- 2) exaggeration / understatement;
- 3) contradiction / incongruity;
- 4) literalization / simplification;
- 5) repetition / echoic mention.

A list of signals is useful as it provides the students with something “tangible” to base their ST interpretations on. Regarding irony, however, this is not likely to be sufficient. Another aspect that might enhance interpretation are textual strategies used throughout the entire text. Hutcheon adds to her meta-ironic and structural markers a third category of marker: “The third category of marker that functions to structure the ground for the inference of irony (and can also, at times, function meta-ironically) is composed of a complex of things clustered around the notions of *contradiction*, *incongruity*, *contrast*, and *juxtaposition*” (2005, 115; italics added).

To make the entire issue of interpreting irony even more complex, recognising irony and its markers is not the only aim of the translator. Another point in question is the tone of the ironic discourse and the evaluation it implies. Hutcheon argues: “Irony’s appraising edge is never absent . . . this is the case whether its tone be gently teasing or devastatingly harsh, whether its inferred motive be benign playfulness or corrosive critique” (2005, 12).

2.3 Irony and Intercultural Pragmatics

Pragmatics is closely connected with all things cultural, both intra- and intercultural, and research in the field of intercultural pragmatics suggests that it is specifically the area of intended meanings that may be the main source of intercultural misunderstandings (see e.g. Moeschler 2007, 73–94).

From the point of view of the translator, the language- and culture-specificity of irony (and possibly of other kinds of intended meanings as well) means that he or she is concerned not only with recognising irony as a part of the ST comprehension and interpretation, but he or she should also be aware (i.e. should be made aware) of the TL and target culture specific repertoire of options and means for expressing irony. As we will argue later, the translator should actively and creatively seek solutions and strategies to transfer irony to the TT. One of the options open to him or her is to *add* irony markers. Hatim and Mason suggest, “. . . since TT readers cannot be assumed to share the same cognitive environment as ST readers, the translator may feel the need to provide additional cues for recognition of the ironic intention” (1990, 99). A detailed account of explicitation strategies and other types of shifts used for translating irony can be found in Hirsch (2011) who explores them in the context of literary translation and in comparison with translating humor.

2.4 Irony and the Transfer Competence

Allison Beeby (2004), one of the PACTE Group members, includes the transfer competence into PACTE Group TC model and offers the following definition:

It is the ability to complete the transfer process from the source text (ST) to the TT, that is to understand the ST and re-express it in the TL, taking into account the translation's function and the characteristics of the receptor. The sub-components include (1) comprehension competence (the ability to analyse, synthesise and activate extra-linguistic knowledge so as to capture the sense of a text), (2) the ability to “deverbalise” and maintain the SL and the TL in separate compartments (that is to control interference), (3) re-expression competence (textual organisation, creativity in the TL), (4) competence in carrying out the translation project (the choice of the most adequate method). (Beeby 2004, 44–45)

To discuss the transfer of irony, we will now “translate” the transfer competence into the phases of the translation process:

- 1) In the comprehension phase, the translator interprets the ST. Within the Interpretive Theory of Translation (ITT), this phase is called “understanding” and is defined as follows: “Understanding is conceived of as an interpretive process geared to the generation of sense . . . linguistic knowledge alone does not suffice and it needs to be supplemented by other cognitive inputs: encyclopaedic knowledge and contextual knowledge” (Hurtado Albir and Alves 2009, 55).
- 2) In the deverbalisation phase, the translator abstracts away from the linguistic form of the SL and develops strategies to transfer the deverbalised sense of the ST to the TT.
- 3) In the re-expression phase, the translator creatively produces the TT. “This phase presupposes a non-linear movement from a non-verbal level (the phase of deverbalisation) to verbalization in a natural language and it is considered to be similar to the process of expression in monolingual communication . . .” (Hurtado Albir and Alves 2009, 55). Based on the knowledge of the TL repertoire of ironic markers, the translator is actively seeking TL specific means to express irony and works the selected ones into the texture of the TT to create an idiomatic TT. He or she seeks to transfer into it not only irony as such but also the evaluative tone it implies.

2.5 Irony and the Potential for Practical Use

In their professional activity, translators meet with a challenging array of texts and a wide range of text types. Some of them are purely “objective” and

designed to deliberately avoid any kind of implicitness. A number of them include a more or less pronounced human factor, the “politics of human interaction” – they express attitudes and emotions, they imply what they do not wish to say, and play all kinds of language games. When commenting on her examples, Hutcheon states that they come from a wide range of media and argues: “This choice represents . . . that irony ‘happens’ . . . in all kinds of discourses (verbal, visual, aural), in common speech as well as in a highly crafted aesthetic form, in so-called high art as well as in popular culture” (2005, 4–5).

In order to handle the growing amounts of translations, translators need computer-aided translation tools and other technologies. No matter how helpful technological advances are for the translation profession, we believe that to cope with this human factor and the “politics of human interaction”, translators currently need and will continue to need competences, abilities and skills that are unique to human translators: context sensitivity, interpretive competence, creativity, the ability to make inferences, an active engagement with the text, and a general cultural competence.

3. Text Analyses

We assigned the English ST, which is the transcript of a speech by Lorenzo Bini Smaghi, a member of the Executive Board of the European Central Bank,¹ to four groups of translation students (all of them BA students of first to final semesters) and asked them to translate it into Czech without any previous class discussion or teacher support.

Generally speaking, the overall quality of the translations tended to mirror the achieved level of translation education. Our point, however, is that not even the finest student versions fully succeeded in the transfer of pragmatic meaning. To corroborate this and also the fact that the failure to understand and transfer intended meaning (specifically the meaning of the single item *moreover*, see the following analyses) can destroy the coherence of the whole TT, we present an analysis of a student translation (a final semester BA student).

The student translation analysis forms the first part of this section. The second part, the ST analysis, is presented as a suggestion how this particular text could be analysed in a translation seminar. What follows is a teachers’ translation version called *alternative translation*. It is to be offered to the students as one of the possible solutions to the challenges identified in the ST, not as *the correct TT* (as the heading *teacher translation* might have implied). On the

¹ European Central Bank. 2010. “What has the Financial Crisis Taught Us? The Global Dimension and International Policy Cooperation.” Accessed September 10, 2011. <http://www.ecb.int/press/key/date/2010/html/sp100907.en.html>.

contrary, the adjective *alternative* is meant to encourage the students to come up with their own solutions and possibly to discuss their advantages or disadvantages.

The analyses do not deal with the entire ST and its translations. The focus is on paragraphs (3)–(5) of the *Introduction*. Paragraph numbers are added and discussed items are italicized. The *Introduction* part of the ST (seven paragraphs) is presented in the Appendix.

3.1 Student Translation Analysis

SOURCE TEXT

(3) . . . Advocates of such a form of cooperation – if we can call it that – tend to cite its advantages: they claim, for instance, that national authorities ‘know best’ or that full sovereignty and the absence of finger-pointing increases the chances of achieving cooperative outcomes.

(4) *Moreover*, the ‘*put your house in order*’ approach to international cooperation *neatly provides* both the recipe for corrective action as well as the blueprint for the sustainability of the system: if each party managed to keep its own house in order – *the theory goes* – policy failures would not occur, negative spillovers would be contained, and crises would not happen.

(5) In this talk today, I would like to explain why a system of international cooperation built on the ‘*put your house in order*’ concept is insufficient to achieve global economic and financial stability.

STUDENT TRANSLATION

(3) . . . Zastánci tohoto způsobu spolupráce, pokud se dá tímto výrazem vůbec označit, jako jeho výhody například uvádějí, že národní úřady přece „vědí nejlépe“ a že pokud dáme státu úplnou suverenitu a nebudeme si jen ukazovat prstem na ostatní a obviňovat je, bude pravděpodobnost dosažení výsledné spolupráce vyšší.

(4) Přístup k mezinárodní spolupráci, *založený na vlastní odpovědnosti státu za ekonomiku, navíc elegantním způsobem* nabízí jak návod na nápravná opatření, tak návrh udržitelnosti systému. *Tato teorie totiž tvrdí*, že pokud by každá strana dokázala udržet doma pořádek, nedocházelo by ke krachům politik, zamezilo by se negativním efektům přelévání a nenastávaly by krize.

(5) Ve své dnešní přednášce bych *tedy* rád vysvětlil, proč pro dosažení celosvětové ekonomické a finanční stability není systém mezinárodní spolupráce, *založený na tomto principu*, dostatečný.

BACK TRANSLATION

(3) . . . Advocates of this form of cooperation – if such an expression can actually be used – cite as its advantages for instance, that national authorities ‘know best’ of course and if we give full sovereignty to the state and will not just point fingers at others and accuse them, the possibility of finally achieving cooperation will increase.

(4) The approach to international cooperation *based on the responsibility of the state for its economy also in an elegant way offers* both the manual for corrective action as well as the plan for the sustainability of the system. *This theory actually claims* that if each party managed to keep its own house in order, policy failures would not occur, negative effects of spillovers would be prevented, and crises would not happen.

(5) *Thus* in my talk today, I would like to explain why a system of international cooperation *based on this concept* is not sufficient to achieve global economic and financial stability.

The positive evaluation presented in paragraph (4), devoid of any irony markers, stands in sharp contrast with the negative assessment presented in paragraphs (3) and (5), which results in an incoherent rendering of the TT as a whole. The student translation thus cannot be considered an adequate translation as coherence is a top priority requirement for translation quality. This incoherence was caused by the following translation shifts:

SHIFT 1:

The ironically intended set phrase ‘*put your house in order*’ (irony signalled by quotation marks) was replaced by a neutral or even positive paraphrase with the quotation marks removed. This solution was used twice: (4), (5).

SHIFT 2:

Moreover is ambiguous. It could potentially refer to *neatly provides* and it was understood and translated this way by the student. However, this rendering does not provide for a coherent interpretation of the TT (see the following analyses).

SHIFT 3:

A potentially ironic set phrase *the theory goes* was replaced by a neutral statement and it was moved from its centre-sentence position to the initial position. Translated this way, it would not be interpreted as an ironic statement but as a seriously meant argument whose importance was further highlighted by an added cohesive device (*totiž / actually*).

SHIFT 4:

Another cohesive device was added (*tedy / thus*) and paradoxically, the incoherence of the TT was still increased.

3.2 Source Text Analysis

The analysis is subdivided into top-down and bottom-up parameters. The suggested application in translation seminars is described in Section 4.

3.2.1 Top-down Parameters

(a) *text type*: speech

The text type strongly suggests that the interpersonal aspect will be involved, that attention should be paid to the intentions of the speaker and the whole area of pragmatic meanings.

(b) *purpose of the text*: to inform, to express opinions, to confront them with opposing opinions, to persuade the audience

When discussing the text from the pragmatic point of view of its purpose and interaction among participants, we consider their intentions. Hatim and Mason argue that the text is to be seen as the “bringing together of mutually relevant intentions” (1991, 139) and introduce the term “rhetorical purpose” as “the set of mutually relevant communicative intentions” (1991, 143).

(c) *paragraph structure and rhetorical purposes* (numbers refer to paragraphs):

- (1) contact with audience
introduction of the topic
- (2) opinion of the speaker (keeping one’s own house in order is not a solution)
- (3) opinion of the speaker (international cooperation is not well defined)
problem identification (therein lies the problem)
opposing opinion (international cooperation is to be based on the concept of keeping one’s own house in order)
enumeration of the assumed advantages of this opposing approach
- (4) assumed advantages of this opposing approach – continuation
- (5) explicit statement of speaker’s negative opinion (the ‘put your house in order’ concept is insufficient to achieve stability)
- (6) explicit statement of speaker’s negative opinion (the ‘put your house in order’ approach is at the root of the crisis)
- (7) a new paradigm for international cooperation is required

Of interest are paragraphs (3) and (4). The rhetorical purpose of paragraph (3), the presentation of an opposing approach and the enumeration of its assumed advantages, continues in paragraph (4). Hatim and Mason call the unit of text organisation serving a rhetorical purpose a “sequence” (1990, 174). We can preliminarily state that the boundaries of the paragraphs do not match with the sequences of rhetorical purposes.

(d) *discourse markers* (the notions of contradiction, incongruity, contrast, and juxtaposition):

Throughout the text, the speaker's opinions are contrasted with opposing opinions. The above-mentioned mismatch between the paragraph structure and the sequence structure proves to be crucial. If the translator does not realize that the linear progression of paragraphs does not match the non-linear sequence structure (this realization was complicated by the ambiguous *moreover* mentioned above), he or she does not interpret the initial statement from (4) as an echoic mention of opposing opinions and thus as an ironic marker. Instead, he or she interprets and translates it as a seriously meant statement, which consequently disrupts the coherence of the entire TT. Hatim and Mason remind us: "As translators, we need to see beyond this linearity to discover how overall discourse relations evolve" (1990, 174).

(e) *meta-ironic markers*:

- 1) gestural and/or phonic markers may have been present in the oral presentation but are not signalled in any way in the written text
- 2) graphic punctuation signs and typographical markers: quotation marks
- 3) overtly metalinguistic remarks: *so to speak, let's admit it, the theory goes, if we can call it that*

3.2.2 Bottom-up Parameters

(a) *linguistic means expressing interpersonal function*

The presence of linguistic means expressing the interpersonal function in the text can serve as a hint at possible pragmatic meanings. They include: 1st and 2nd person pronouns, evaluative expressions, intensifiers, idioms.

(b) *structural irony markers*

The structural irony markers include contradiction / incongruity and echoic mention. Contradiction is signalled by *therein lies the problem*. Incongruity is inferable from *the 'put your house in order' approach to international cooperation neatly provides both the recipe for corrective action as well as the blueprint for the sustainability of the system* since by it, a previously criticised opinion (*'put your house in order'*) is positively evaluated. Echoic mention of differing opinions is signalled by: *To some, the upper bound of international cooperation, . . . Advocates tend to cite . . . , they claim . . .*

3.3 Alternative Translation Analysis

Within the alternative version to the previously analysed student translation, the discussed negative shifts were removed. The most important change concerns the item *moreover*. In the student TT, it was interpreted as referring to *neatly provides* in the same paragraph (4). In the alternative TT, it was inter-

preted as referring to the previous paragraph (3) and to what *Advocates . . . claim*. To make this clear in the TT, *moreover* was translated as *také / also* and explicitness was increased by adding *Tvrdí / They claim* (the whole part thus reads *Tvrdí take / They also claim*). As a result, paragraph (4) explicitly identifies the expressed opinion as an opposing and ironically cited opinion and makes sense in the co-text of paragraphs (3) and (5) stating the speaker's own opinions. As a result, the coherence of the entire TT is ensured.

The strategy used to produce the alternative TT aimed at re-creating the ironic discourse, its irony suggesting a rather critical and slightly mocking attitude. The aim was not to “overdo it” with irony and, at the same time, to keep it “interpretable” to the Czech reader, who has a different cognitive background than the English reader. This goal of keeping irony interpretable to the TT reader might mean adding irony markers to the TT, as Hatim and Mason suggest (see Section 2.3). Thus if irony was only weakly marked in the ST, the Czech reader would probably need a “stronger” rendering (more and/or stronger irony markers) in the TT. In our case however, a “more straightforward” rendering, that is a more explicit connection between paragraphs (3) and (4), was opted for. Thus the strategy used in the alternative version can be described in terms of increased explicitness.

ALTERNATIVE TRANSLATION

(3) . . . Zastánci tohoto způsobu spolupráce, pokud se dá tímto výrazem vůbec označit, jako jeho výhody například uvádějí, že úřady na národní úrovni přece „vědí nejlépe“ a že pokud dáme státu úplnou suverenitu a nebudeme si jen ukazovat prstem na ostatní a obviňovat je, bude pravděpodobnost dosažení výsledné spolupráce vyšší.

(4) *Tvrdí také, že přístup k mezinárodní spolupráci, založený na hesle „udělejte si doma pořádek“, elegantním způsobem nabízí jak návod na nápravná opatření, tak návrh udržitelnosti systému. Pokud by si každá strana dokázala udržet doma pořádek, tedy alespoň podle této teorie, nedocházelo by ke krachům politik, zamezilo by se negativním efektům přelévání a nenastávaly by krize.*

(5) Ve své dnešní přednášce bych rád vysvětlil, proč pro dosažení celosvětové ekonomické a finanční stability není systém mezinárodní spolupráce, založený na tomto principu, dostatečný.

BACK TRANSLATION

(3) . . . Advocates of this form of cooperation – if such an expression can actually be used – cite as its advantages, for instance, that national authorities ‘know best’ and if we give full sovereignty to the

state and will not just point fingers at others and accuse them, the possibility of finally achieving cooperation will increase.

(4) *They also claim* that the approach to international cooperation based on the ‘*put your house in order*’ approach *also in an elegant way offers* both the manual for corrective action as well as the plan for the sustainability of the system. If each party managed to keep its own house in order, *at least this theory claims so*, policy failures would not occur, negative effects of spillovers would be prevented, and crises would not happen.

(5) In my talk today, I would like to explain why a system of international cooperation based on this concept is not sufficient to achieve global economic and financial stability.

4. Teaching Proposal

Based on our teaching experience, the presented theoretical framework and the illustrative textual analyses, we devise the following teaching proposal. We consider it tentative and our aim is to test it using a database of student translations that we are currently compiling.

4.1 ST Comprehension

This phase begins with a *top-down analysis*, including the text type and purpose, rhetorical purposes, and the discourse and meta-ironic markers as suggested above. Once the students comprehend these factors, a *bottom-up analysis* follows, including linguistic means of expressing the interpersonal function, and structural irony markers. The analysis is designed to proceed from the top-down to the bottom-up aspects. For the students, nevertheless, the linguistic means of expressing the interpersonal function might be easier to spot than intentions and rhetorical purposes. Thus the progression can be reversed for a period of time and feedback between the two approaches is to be maintained throughout the analysis. This is what Nord, with reference to Levý, calls the *looping model* of analysis and argues: “The circular path of the translation process contains a number of smaller circular movements or ‘loops’ that keep recurring between ST situation and ST, between TT situation and TT . . . , between the individual steps of analysis, and between ST analysis and TT synthesis” (1991, 35).

4.2 Deverbalisation

In the deverbalisation phase, the translator should maintain the SL and the TL in separate compartments in order to control interference, as Beeby’s definition of the transfer competence presumes. In relation to the transfer irony into the

TT, the translator devises a suitable strategy by considering the TL repertoire of ironic markers, and the TL- and target culture-specificity of expressing irony. He or she may opt for different types of markers, their different distribution, their addition or their removal.

4.3 Re-expression competence

The translator employs his or her strategy to create the TT. He or she opts for specific ironic markers and their placement within the TT and possibly selects other linguistic means (e.g. cohesive devices) and their textual organisation to transfer irony and the attitude it is supposed to imply to the TT.

5. Conclusions

This paper has presented an approach to the transfer of irony in the context of TC acquisition and indicates that this area of TC should be systematically developed. It puts forward a teaching proposal suggesting that a pragmatically oriented top-down and bottom-up analyses should precede the deverbalisation phase, that the students should be repeatedly made aware of the possible pragmatic pitfalls of the STs, introduced to the intercultural differences of communicating irony and encouraged to use creative transfer strategies. Via an analysis of a student translation it has been demonstrated that: first, an unsuccessful transfer of irony can endanger communication and render the TT incoherent; second, this can happen even within otherwise high-quality translations, and third, the ability to transfer intended meanings needs to be systematically developed throughout the process of TC acquisition. All these points highlight the significance of pragmatic meaning and its transfer, both as a part of TC and as a research area.

6. Appendix

Source text (paragraph numbers added, discussed parts italicized)

What has the financial crisis taught us? The global dimension and international policy cooperation

Speech by Lorenzo Bini Smaghi, Member of the Executive Board of the ECB, 21st Century Forum 2010, Beijing, 6-8 September 2010

Introduction

(1) It is a great pleasure to share with you some thoughts about the financial crisis, which will be the focus of my talk today. If I had to pick a striking feature of the crisis from which we can draw lessons for the future, I would choose the term “contagion”. It’s contagion that has made this crisis truly global. The synchronised manner in which shocks have been transmitted across market

segments and countries is perhaps what distinguishes this crisis from previous ones. The growing interconnectedness of the world economy has enabled the crisis to spread above and beyond what would be warranted by fundamentals and to attain a truly global dimension.

(2) To me, a key message for all of us from the crisis is that keeping an economy in order, keeping one's own house in order, so to speak, does not necessarily insulate it from external shocks. Moreover, an excessive focus on the domestic economy may actually exacerbate global economic and financial imbalances, ultimately making future global crises more likely and more severe. The key challenge faced by global policy-makers is to make the system safer and avert future crises. No country is immune to them.

(3) Strengthening international cooperation in the global economic and financial sphere is crucial. Policy-makers have been paying lip-service to international cooperation for years. It is a policy prescription that is commonly stated but – let's admit it – rarely defined, and therein lies the problem. To some, the upper bound of international cooperation is determined by the advice to put your house in order. Understood in this way, international cooperation is an exercise in which the national authorities are solely responsible for identifying and solving problems, albeit in a process which is monitored by other parties. *Advocates of such a form of cooperation – if we can call it that – tend to cite its advantages: they claim, for instance, that national authorities 'know best' or that full sovereignty and the absence of finger-pointing increases the chances of achieving cooperative outcomes.*

(4) *Moreover, the 'put your house in order' approach to international cooperation neatly provides both the recipe for corrective action as well as the blueprint for the sustainability of the system: if each party managed to keep its own house in order – the theory goes – policy failures would not occur, negative spillovers would be contained, and crises would not happen.*

(5) *In this talk today, I would like to explain why a system of international cooperation built on the 'put your house in order' concept is insufficient to achieve global economic and financial stability.*

(6) I will outline the global roots of the crisis, and in particular how a lack of coordination of international policies was inspired precisely by the 'put your house in order' approach to international cooperation. Insufficient cooperation was evident in a number of areas. There were, for instance, supervisory and regulatory inconsistencies involving systemic players as well as a lacklustre policy response to global imbalances. I will also review how the gaps in the system in turn helped the crisis to spread globally across segments and countries.

(7) All of this suggests that maintaining the pre-crisis mode of cooperation – i.e. the one which did not anticipate and keep at bay the trouble we got into – cannot be a sustainable recipe for the recovery. I will argue that a new paradigm

for international cooperation is required from global policy-makers – one in which longer-term objectives, such as sustainable growth, are fully internalised in a time-consistent manner. I will conclude by pointing to the importance of peer-reviewed mechanisms and strong surveillance in this context, and also draw on the European experience to this end.

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False Friends (To Be) Revisited

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ABSTRACT: The present paper gives a brief overview of approaches to the phenomenon of “false friends” in dictionaries and in textbooks for Czech students of English, and presents a proposal for a new online version of the largest dictionary of false friends so far, i.e. Josef Hladký’s (1990) *Zrádná slova v angličtině*. It further states that *false friends* haunt not only the English of Czech native speakers but also the Czech texts produced by translator trainees, and should therefore be targeted in teaching translation. Possible innovations of presenting the material in *Zrádná slova v angličtině* so that it can better serve the various needs of students of both ESL and translation are considered. A pilot corpus of student translation is tested as a means to identify new false-friend pairs as well as translation-specific errors induced by false friends.

Keywords: false friends; false cognates; translator; learning; dictionary; online

1. False Friends in Current Dictionaries

There are many definitions of the category of word pairs that is traditionally called *false friends*, *faux amis* or *false cognates* (and known under the rather loose term *zrádná slova* in Czech). David Crystal summarizes the problem in a simple statement: “Words that look the same in two languages often do not mean the same thing” (1993, 347). In a more scholarly handbook, he offers the following definition:

In COMPARATIVE LINGUISTICS, a term describing words in different languages which resemble each other in FORM, but which express different meanings; also called **false cognates**. . . . Examples include French *demande*, which translates into English as ‘to request’ not ‘to demand’, and Italian *caldo* which translates as ‘warm’ not ‘cold’. (Crystal 2003, 176)

In reality, however, comparative linguists do not spend much time on the topic: “false friends” represent a haphazard category¹ that does not invite deeper

¹ False friends differ in nature depending on the language pair in question (cf. the situation between Czech and Polish in Lotko (1987) versus that between Czech and English); furthermore, even within one language pair, there is no clear systematic way in which cognates (*true friends*, *vrais amis*) go astray and become *false friends*.

research, and has been traditionally seen mainly in the context of language teaching.

Many Czech textbooks and dictionaries deal with false friends, among others Radina (1978; first version published 1975) and Radina (1981) for French, Lotko (1987) for Polish, or Höppnerová (2006) for German. For the Czech-English language pair, the resources include Vít (2005) and Stevens (2010), and, above all, Hladký (1990, reprinted 1996). Hladký's comprehensive dictionary will be discussed in greater detail below; it is unique in its size (1,454 Czech headwords) as well as in the exhaustiveness of the entries.

These resources differ substantially in size and layout as well as in quality. One problem they all have to solve is how to present the material that is bidirectional in nature: the two "false friends" have to be presented together with their equivalents in the other language. Vít (2005) displays them in two lines, as shown in (1):

- (1) *creature – tvor, stvoření, zvíře*
kreatura – monster

He lists the words by the English expressions, so that the Czech "kreatura" is only found under *C*. Hladký (1990), on the other hand, ordered his dictionary by the Czech expressions. Offering both alphabetizations in one book would require an elaborate index.

Stevens (2010) is not a dictionary but rather a textbook. Unfortunately, it is an example of a good intention ruined by a naïve approach: the handbook is translated from German without adjustment, so that many of its exercises train students to avoid errors that are invoked by German-English false friends and do not occur in Czech users:

- (2) *I become a Guinness, please.*
I'd like something to eat, too. Can I see the ~~card~~, please?
People say English ~~kitchen~~ is not very good, but I don't believe that.
Oh, excuse me. My ~~handy~~ is ringing.
This is a really nice old ~~guesthouse~~. I come here most days on my way home from work.
This smoking ban – do you agree with it? What's your ~~meaning~~?
(Stevens 2010, 102)

Here, only *kitchen* in the third sentence points to a probable mistake of a Czech learner (*kitchen / cuisine*). The remaining expressions are only problematic for German speakers; their German false-friend counterparts are easily seen: *ich bekomme, die (Speise)Karte, der Handy, das Gasthaus, die Meinung*.

The problem of false friends is naturally mentioned in many other textbooks of English, but they usually do not deal with them in greater detail, in part because they are international textbooks written for students with different language backgrounds. Of the two resources mentioned above, the online chapter by Vít (2005) has 45 entries, most of them very simple, with only a few equivalents in each direction and no examples, as in (1). These serve as an illustration to his well-written chapter on the subject. Stevens (2010) is larger (128 pages), but of its five chapters only one – Chapter 5 on pairs of English words that get easily mixed up because of their closeness in meaning – is unhampered by the above-mentioned problem of the book having been translated from the German.

An interesting approach to the problem is found in Hill (1982). Its author created a multilingual dictionary of false friends between English and several other languages, without ever giving the counterparts in those languages. Instead, the affected languages are indicated by an abbreviation in the right column;² it is left to the reader to recall its exact form in the respective language.

The format of the main part is as follows:³

| | | |
|-------------------------|---|------|
| (3) <i>the adjunct</i> | ≠ <i>the secondary school teacher</i> | N, S |
| | ≠ <i>the (junior) university lecturer</i> | Dk |
| ... | | |
| <i>an agglomeration</i> | ≠ <i>a built-up area</i> | F |

(Hill 1982, 4–5)

Although Czech is not among the fourteen languages examined by Hill, the two headwords in (3) demonstrate that his book can still be used to check and enhance Hladký's material: neither of them is included in his dictionary, although they are both also relevant for Czech.⁴

2. Josef Hladký's Dictionary to Go Online

The popular dictionary *Zrádná slova v angličtině* by Josef Hladký (1990) consists, in fact, of two bilingual dictionaries displayed side by side, so that the reader can compare all the meanings in both languages for each word pair:⁵

² In example (3), they are Norwegian, Swedish, Danish and French, respectively.

³ The second part is a separate monolingual English dictionary with the correct English meanings of all headwords that appeared in the first part.

⁴ In Czech, however, the rather archaic *adjunkt* has yet another meaning, viz "assistant to an official", often "forester".

⁵ In the book, IPA transcription of pronunciation is given with each English word; these transcriptions have been replaced by a pair of square brackets in the example.

(4)

| | | | |
|----------------|--|---------------------|---|
| agilní | enthusiastic [], <i>active</i> [] | agile [] | hbitý, svižný; as ~ as a monkey |
| agitace | propaganda [], (<i>zvl. osobní</i>) canvassing [], (<i>pro vyšší</i> <i>cíle, změny, často provokující</i>) agitation | agitation [] | 1 znepokojení 2 agitace: ~ for national independence |

This layout was used by the same publisher for the previous dictionary of French false friends (Radina 1978). It enables the author to include even “partial” false friends (i.e. those that only differ in some of the meanings as *agitace / agitation* in (4), or in stylistic register), and it offers the readers the opportunity to study the word pair in all its complexity. This complexity, however, is also the main drawback: the reader has to struggle through many meanings and compare them laboriously to sort out the problematic ones. The rich entries are too long to support efficient learning, and still too short to produce a complete idea of the different usage and stylistic level of the two words in question.

When the Brno Department of English and American Studies received preliminary consent from Professor Hladký’s heirs to publish a new version of the book, the decision was made to head towards an online version that could take advantage of an interactive interface. Users should be able to view the material in various ways depending on their own needs, to focus on word pairs of specific types and qualities (e.g. the most frequent, those with essential difference in meaning), display them in various ways (e.g. reduced to the problematic meaning), choose English or Czech alphabetization, view them on various devices, export them for printing, etc. This requires that the material be stored in a database and attributes (tags) added to each entry – and often to the individual meanings – to enable filtering. Other enhancements may also be considered, e.g. including new examples from corpora, or even linking the entries directly to monolingual corpora to show the words in real contexts. The decisions on the final set of filters and other features will be part of the project.

As for the material itself, it has to be updated (the book was compiled before 1990). One option at hand would be to make it a two-way tool, i.e. adjust it so that it would also serve the needs of English speakers learning Czech and translating from Czech. This is essentially possible in a versatile system of displaying the contents, but it would require substantial additions, among others adding grammatical and stylistic information and examples to the Czech expressions.

3. Corpus Identifies Translation-Specific False Friends

One obvious source for completing the lists of headwords – as well as collecting further information about the usage of false friends – is a corpus of student translations. A pilot version of such a corpus was used to test the value of corpora in such a project. This corpus consisted of several sets of student translations of approximately one page each; there were ten to sixteen Czech and Slovak translations of each original. The translations came from the course Introduction to Translation, i.e. the first translation course the students encounter in their Bachelor's studies.

It seems that the corpus tends to reveal new word pairs of a specific kind – those that appear in translations rather than in the speech of a Czech learner of English. For example, the adverb *effectively* has a true-friend Czech equivalent *efektivně* (and its Slavonic synonym *účinně*), but this equivalent cannot be used universally. The meaning of *effectively* in the sentence in (5) is rather *in effect*.⁶

- (5) *This is of some importance in situations where the methodology normally used to describe internal processes effectively precludes the substantiality of external forces.*

Of the fifteen student translations of the sentence, only five chose an acceptable equivalent – *fakticky* (twice), *ve skutečnosti*, *prakticky*, and *v podstatě* – compared to nine who followed the lead of the false-friend pair: *účinně* (six times), *efektivně*, *k efektivnímu popisu*, and *naprosto*; one student left the word out.

Another group of fourteen students translated a text that included the phrase (6):

- (6) *... smaller or regional cultures that have consciously used translation programmes for the formation of linguistic or literary identities ...*

Here, the word *linguistic* became *lingvistický* in nine translations; the correct meaning *jazykový* appeared only five times.

Neither of the two words (*effectively* and *linguistic*) appears in Hladký's dictionary. The small collection of student translations mentioned above helped bring to light these as well as other false-friend pairs. Moreover, these two examples demonstrate that there is a specific category of words that are treacherous for the inexperienced translator but not necessarily for a Czech speaker of English: with the Czech word *efektivně* in mind, it is not a mistake to say *effec-*

⁶ This meaning is listed in English monolingual dictionaries, such as Collins Cobuild, but is absent from some English-Czech dictionaries, e.g. Hais and Hodek (1984) and *Lingea Lexicon*; it is found in Fronek (2006) with the meaning “(in fact) ve skutečnost, fakticky”.

tively. Similarly, *lingvistický* can always be replaced with *linguistic*. Obviously, the direction in which a particular word pair is “unfaithful” can be determined and could also be reflected in the dictionary in a suitable way, increasing the usability of the dictionary.

The corpus also revealed – rather surprisingly – isolated instances of “pseudo-false friends”; these arose when a student wrongly connected a Czech loan word to a word in the English original that had a completely different meaning and origin: *collation* became *kolokace* even though the Czech “true friend” *kolace* exists; and once we even got a complex metaphor with *dělo* instead of a *canon* of literary works (*canon* was misread as *cannon* which then, via the Czech *kanón*, became *dělo*). These idiosyncratic occurrences naturally cannot become part of the dictionary itself; on the other hand, they do reveal something about the process of learning the craft of translation and about the background of the trainees, and can therefore be found relevant in building translator training programmes. The plan is to include them in a separate section that would register “false-friends-based” errors in students’ works together with the percentage of their occurrences within a given group, and also instances of these errors discovered in published professional translations, however small this latter collection may be. These could then be used in teaching or in self-study, and maybe also as one of the filtering criteria for viewing the main body of the dictionary.

4. Future Steps

Research thus far as presented here has shown that it is necessary to build a larger corpus of student translations. This corpus will then be used in the identification of new false friends as well as for delimiting finer categories that will then be applied in the final organization and presentation of the material. This process will then lead to the final product – an online edition of *Zrádná slova*. It will, however, be a process that will take a substantial amount of time, with three years being an optimistic estimate.

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The Role of the Translator in the Process of Legal Discourse

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ABSTRACT: Human action in the field of law is bound to legal norms. This fact creates an impression of objectivity, stability and precision. Demands made on translators tend to relate to the positivistic illusion of a completely objective, stable and precise depiction of reality through laws. A clear antithesis to that illusion are the obvious subjectivity, variability and vagueness of the manifestations of the human action in this area. By respecting the existence of both of these complementing features of law discourse and by accepting the human facet of translation as a form of transcultural communication and not as a mere mechanical procedure of transcoding signs, our view of the translators' role and of the quality criteria of the translational action changes.

KEYWORDS: translators' role; translators' power; legal discourse; transcultural communication; translation strategies

1. Introduction

This paper discusses the viewpoints of the theory of law and the theory of translation as for the legitimacy of the human factor and its influence on decision-making processes within legal communication. Lawyers as well as translators are bound by the fixed and binding wording of texts (legal norms, contracts, testimonies, etc.) when choosing their strategies and solving problems while at the same time they are being guided by the constantly changing vectors of the current social and individual interests and values.

The aim of this paper is to create an image of the lawyer's role in legal activities on the one hand and to look at the position of the translator in the process of legal communication on the other.

The projection of these images into practice is based on a study by Mira Kadric (2006), on my own survey research (see Salmhoferová 2002) and on a yet unpublished interview with translators from 2011.

This projection illustrates how the translator's and the interpreter's profiles in the field of legal communication could develop in the future and how the demands on the quality of their work as well as their education could change.

2. Development of the Perception of Law

2.1 Conceptual Jurisprudence

For a long time the main focus of interest of translatology was on the issue of translatability or untranslatability and fidelity, or freedom of the translation. Similarly, for more than two hundred years one of the central issues of legal science has been oscillating between two poles: One of these poles is the determinateness of the conclusions of law with the text of legal regulations and with the prescribed interpretive methods. The second pole is the subjective opinion of the interpreter as a source of “justice”.

At the beginning of the 20th century the so-called “conceptual jurisprudence” took root in the German-speaking countries (Begriffsjurisprudenz). Its representatives sought to conceive law completely and unambiguously and in the spirit of positivism, along the lines of natural sciences with the logical methods of organizing the legal system of concepts without gaps and without internal dissent. They reproached the supporters of the so-called natural law for subjectivism, voluntarism and unpredictability. Their goal was a legal system that would provide absolute certainty that for each part of practical life an abstract representative can be found and, based on this assignment, the subsumption, a particular measure established by law could be deduced.

In other words, within the scope of logical deduction, a carefully organized and closed system of legal concepts should give a definite answer to any question of law. In this system the judge should be accountable to the letter of the law, he should have no room for co-creating the law (see Heck 1912, 13).

The critics reproached this concept of law for the fact that words (letter of the law) were of greater importance than thoughts. They revealed the unreality of the ideas which assumed completeness of the conceptual system, the unambiguity of its description, the objectivity and the logical necessity of legal decisions. Since the positivists’ aim was to understand and describe law as such, their structures appear lifeless, lacking a productive force (see Sobek 2010a, 152).

In terms of translatology the most interesting issue is the positivist principle stating that the binding force of the law lies in the binding force of its wording.

2.2 Jurisprudence of Interests

In the interwar period another approach called the “jurisprudence of interests” (Interessenjurisprudenz) emerged. It is based on the critique of the conceptual jurisprudence with the intent that in practice not every real situation can be subsumed to a written legal norm and that there are situations where a mere mechanical subsumption leads to a conclusion of law that is in conflict with the currently widely accepted notion of justice. It thus attributes judges the right to

make their own decisions, namely with regard to human interests, needs and desires (see Petersen 2001, 7).

The jurisprudence of interests is based on the fact that we live in an environment of limited resources, which inevitably leads to conflicts of interest (e.g. tenant versus homeowner). The law prevents these conflicts, on the one side by defining the scope of interests and protecting them and solves actual conflicts, and on the other side by taking into account and promoting the interests in the spirit of consensus concluding the legislative process.

The jurisprudence of interests stands aloof from not only conceptual jurisprudence, but also from the opposite extreme in the form of jusnaturalism, which represents the notion that solving conflicts of interest is not limited by the law, but depends entirely on the decisions of judges. In the spirit of jurisprudence of interests, judges are submitted to the authority of the law. The binding force of the law, however, does not lie in the binding force of its wording, but in the binding force of the interests, for which the law was adopted and which should be protected. Judges thus help to create the law by orientating in the diversity of interests in real life when applying abstract legal norms. Hence, they put law into practice and overcome the gaps and the shortcomings in wording in accordance with the original intention of the legislature (see Sobek 2010a).

2.3 Jurisprudence of Values

After the Second World War, the “jurisprudence of values” (Wertungsjurisprudenz) was established in Germany. In terms of this approach the legislative process should not be led only by the interests of the entities concerned, but also by the shared or prevailing values in society which are superior to those interests. In the case of conflict, the judge takes an evaluative attitude towards the interests of the parties concerned and adjudicates in accordance with this value system (see Petersen 2001, 8).

Unlike conceptual jurisprudence, the jurisprudence of values does not work with a closed order of legal norms, but with a framework system which responds flexibly to the needs of the evolving social practice and respects its values. In terms of their decisions, judges have to ensure the coherence and functionality of this system (see Sobek 2010a).

This was only a small cut-out from a wide range of theoretical approaches to law. It illustrates the fact that in legal science the views of the roles of the participants in legal interactions, whether of legislators or entities applying the law (judges, public officials) and also the laymen involved, are still in development. The position of the judge within the legally theoretical approaches mentioned, shifted from the “servant of the law” to the “co-creator of the law” with these roles not being mutually exclusive in practice, but complementing each other.

3. The Human Dimension of Law

Human activities in the field of law find their place between the pole of precision, stability and objectivity on the one hand and the pole of vagueness, variability and subjectivity on the other. The legal system and governmental institutions which apply the legal system and take care of its legal force, attempt to make an impression of the unmistakable authority of the laymen and a kind of tendency towards a “justice” guarantee by the state. The other side of the coin is the fact that in all legal and administrative activities negotiating, bargaining and evaluating in accordance with the subjective interests take place. Despite the strong reference of legal activities to norms all efforts of the participants in legal activities to achieve the positivist ideal of “superhuman” objectivity and flawlessness collide with the conspicuous human factor as a positive principle, which breathes life into law.

4. The Role of Translators in the Legal Context

4.1 The Role of Translators from the Lawyers’ Standpoint

The competence to establish frameworks for legal values, to evaluate and to make decisions is relatively firmly in the hands of the state officials and professional jurists. They are unwilling to share this power of theirs with other participants of legal activities, and also with “laymen” in the form of translators and interpreters. The translators and interpreters are therefore largely seen as a “subsidiary organ” (Kadric 2006, 230), whose presence is a symptom of unpleasant circumstances, namely, increased time, organizational and financial claims. The tendency to eliminate the presence of the disturbing factor in the form of the interpreter is exemplified by e.g. the result of Mira Kadric’s (2006, 131) study. It shows that only one fifth of the Austrian judges respects the right of equal opportunities for all the parties in the judicial process by allowing not only the minimum necessary for the judge to conceive the case to be interpreted, but also the information necessary for the parties ignorant of the language of court proceedings to be able to successfully orient themselves and successfully represent their interests which are to be interpreted.

For the purposes of legal activities, translators and interpreters are expected to provide occasional “language assistance”, isolated from the course of these activities and the interests represented (see Laster and Taylor 1994, 38).

On the part of their contractees, translators and interpreters perceive the requirement of mastering legal terminology of the given languages (see Salmhoferová 2002, 216), they assume that they are expected to be experts in “words and terms”. Any initiative and activity of these “lay” participants in legal communication goes beyond the expectations of the jurists in the role of

experts. In this concept translators and interpreters pursue, in a pre-defined role, a universal and binding strategy aimed at linguistic precision, adequacy of style, terminological accuracy and equivalence of content. These bases, however, remain an illusion of the path towards quality for the same reason as the goals of conceptual jurisprudence from the early 20th century – human activity is being curtailed of its human dimension, the struggle for interests and values.

4.2 The Role of Translators Based on Their Self-Image

Austrian translators and interpreters whose contracts are related to legal activities, largely base their own professional profile on a linguistics-oriented and not translatology-oriented education (see Kadric 2006, 213). A survey among the members of the Czech Chamber of Court Appointed Interpreters from 2002, it showed that only 10% of the respondents could draw on the skills acquired in the study of translation studies. In contrast, 42% of the respondents prepared for their profession by graduating in linguistics-oriented studies, mostly for the study of pedagogy. The group of respondents whose professionalism is based on secondary education, is comparable in size with the group of graduates of translation studies (see Salmhoferová 2002, 158). The same survey showed that more than half of these respondents pursued the profession as translators or interpreters as a side job (2002, 120).

Based on these facts it is not surprising that translators and interpreters spontaneously tend to submit themselves to the authority of jurists and to accept the role of neutral, anonymous, preferably inconspicuous “externs”. Based on their linguistic education, they mostly feel responsible primarily for the “language aspects” of the given legal activity. Their self-image corresponds to fifty year old linguistics-oriented theories of translation, which results in transcoding words and phrases of one legal language into words and sentences of another legal language, without being privy to the communication or interested in its outcome.

5. Choice of Strategies

5.1 A Differentiated Approach to the Choice of Strategies

Translation and interpreting strategies cannot be restricted to the selection of the appropriate terminology from the corresponding “layer” of the legal language (see Tomášek 1998, 26) and to the compliance with the anticipated conventions of the text type. The recent notion of translation as the transfer of complex information, appeals, emotions and attitudes in a wide range of nuances into a different cultural environment with possibly other interests and

values makes it possible to redefine the role of the translator and interpreter in legal discourse.

In terms of a modern notion of the role, the translator or interpreter becomes a fully-fledged participant in the legal activity, interested in its success. The ability to orient himself in the communication within the legal action, enables the translator / interpreter to approach the choice of translation / interpreting strategies in a differentiated way, depending on the context in which the communication takes place, the function that the translation product should fulfil, and not at least the interests of the translator / interpreter and the values he represents.

Translation / interpreting strategies which are determined by situational constellations differ as to whether the legal activity takes place at the level of legislation, executive, judiciary, between laymen and whether there is interaction between these levels. Another determinant is whether the target text is embedded in the same level as the source text, or whether it is intended for recipients at another level. Another factor which determines the translator's / interpreter's choice of strategy is the function of the source text and its conformity or non-conformity with the function of the translation product. In this connection the search for strategy might begin for example with the question whether the translation product preserves the prescriptive function, or whether it changes it into a descriptive one.

5.2 The Power of the Translator

These strategies do not emanate from the bottom from issues at the level of microstructure, e.g. "How do you say 'robbery' in German?", but approach the task holistically and with a professional detachment. One part of this professional detachment is also dismantling the myth of absolute correctness, disambiguity, objectivity, ergo the "holiness" of the source text. The translator / interpreter is aware of his influence on the course of the communication and thus of his potential power over the other participants. He can decide if it is in his interest to put his power to the service of solving the participants' conflicts of interest in a way which corresponds to his own or somebody else's system of values.

Based on the global strategies which the translator / interpreter selected by analyzing his contract, he can responsibly proceed to the next partial questions which often lead to nightmares for the conscientious translators and interpreters:

- To which extent will my target formulation shed light on the latent horizon of distorted or hidden contents of the source formulations (see Paepcke 1983, 283)? How can the intentional or accidental ambiguity of the text be expressed clearly? Can I and do I want to facilitate a more objective assessment of the matter?

- Will I transfer the deficiencies of the source text into the target text, highlight them, or retouch them (see Stellbrink 1987, 33)?
- Will I use the room for interpretation given by the formulations of the source text with regard to the interests of the contractee or other participants in the communication and the user of the target text?

In this sense Stellbrink (1987, 33) speaks directly of the “moral commitment to partisanship”, since the translator or interpreter is hired and paid by one of the parties concerned, and this he represents like a lawyer.

5.3 Choice of Strategies According to the Translators’ Subjective Notion of Their Role

The choice of strategy depends on the objective factors mentioned above, such as the context of the contract and the function of the translated or interpreted text. But there are also subjective factors, namely the self-image of the translator / interpreter and the anticipation of requirements imposed on him by the contracting authority.

From this subjective perspective the translator can establish himself in the position of an aide, who offers his language skills and whose task is to “translate this into English”. If the translator is able and willing to offer more than his typing skills, he may take on the role of a business partner who provides the components necessary to implement a plan, such as concluding a contract. And finally, just like the jurists consider themselves specialists in communication across the barriers of legislation, so can the translator / interpreter rise to the role of an expert needed to realize a given legal activity by virtue of his special know-how to enable communication between the parties across language and cultural barriers and take on shared responsibility for the communication process.

If the interpreter / translator assumes the first of these three positions he is easy to control and he easily submits himself to the requirements of an illusory correctness, precision and impartiality. The remuneration for the work done need not be higher than a typist’s remuneration.

Much more natural is the second position, in which the interpreter / translator frees himself from the bonds of the dogma which preaches sterile fidelity to concepts. He brings the human factor to his work by addressing not only the conflicts of two language systems, but also by engaging in solving the conflict of the parties’ interests. This role is associated with more mutual respect and subsequent appreciation on the one hand, and with a higher risk of co-responsibility on the other.

6. Assumptions of High Quality

In the latter role it is possible to deliver a performance based on relevant professional qualifications backed by a solid theoretical background, rather than as

a (maybe even a brilliant) German teacher from a nearby elementary school. The quality of the work done at this level lies in the conscious stepping forward and out of the anonymity, in breaking out of the cage of “invisibility” (see Venuti 1995, 1), in which loyal interpreters and translators lock themselves up under the impression of the contractee’s expectation, and heads towards quality criteria corresponding to real life.

Assumptions of high quality work as a translator / interpreter are:

- insight into the situation of communication and participation in its development;
- autonomy in the choice of translation / interpreting strategies and the differentiated approach to their selection mentioned above;
- competence to develop one’s own intention corresponding to the selected value framework, and the possibility to implement this intention in the translation product and thus, co-decide on the implementation of the intentions of other communicating partners.

Being guided by his own intentions does not mean arbitrariness on the part of the translator / interpreter. Just like the judges are bound to the scope of the jurisprudence of interests or values, the translator’s own intentions are bound by the current legal and social values. Being guided by one’s own intentions represents the natural interest in a good moral and financial evaluation, as well as personal involvement in trying to raise the efficiency and effectivity of communication.

7. Conclusion

The first section of this paper provides an overview of the development of different approaches to the theory of law reflecting the ratio of legal norms versus the human factor as the key factors in the process of the application of law. It describes the shift from the positivist notions of immutable and universal binding force of the letter of the law in settling conflicts towards a concept of the law as a means of settling conflicts of individual interests in accordance with the current social interests and values by which the given legislative process is controlled. With this shift the role of the individuals in charge of applying the law has changed from the “servants of the law” bound by the literal wording to active entities ensuring the coherence of the legal system.

The second section shows the ambivalent character of human activity in the field of law. Precision, stability, objectivity and vagueness, variability and subjectivity are complementary phenomena.

The third section reflects on the perception of the role of a translator from the lawyer’s point of view on the one hand and from the translator’s standpoint on

the other. Both views show similarities: the subordinate position of the translator as a “layman in the field of law” and a “language assistant” versus the lawyer as the specialist, the lack of interest in the process and the outcome of legal activities, the unconditional commitment to the literal wording of translated texts.

The fourth section outlines the possible development of the concept of the translator’s role towards an entity which takes part in the system of interests and values which constitute the given legal activity. It presents a vision of the translator who stands by his right to decide about his choice of strategy and to represent his or her own interests and values and who is aware of the extent of his or her power to influence the course of communication. At the same time it is pointed out that with the increasing level of power and respect also the risk of shared responsibility increases.

In the fifth section new assumptions of a high quality work are derived from the necessity of the evolution of the translator’s role. These assumptions include the emancipation from anonymity, involvement in the course of communication, autonomy in the choice of translation strategies and the legitimacy of one’s own intentions while respecting contractual conditions, the actual legal framework and the system of social values.

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The Dirty Dozen: Translating Semantically Complex Words and Collocations from Czech to English

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ABSTRACT: A case study of a dozen Czech words and collocations which are frequently translated into English but whose English dictionary equivalents acquire additional semantic components in the specific English context. We will attempt to argue that this is not necessarily a culture-specific, lexical issue but instead a question of a neglected lexical analysis in the respective languages. English equivalents in many of these cases apparently require e.g. an increased concreteness of expression, seem incomplete or in a wrong register.

KEYWORDS: Czech; English; translation; case study; stylistic markedness; register

1. Introduction

This paper consists of an analysis of a list of a dozen Czech words and their collocations which are frequently translated into English but whose English dictionary equivalents seemingly acquire an additional component of meaning when used in the specific English context of informative and persuasive style.¹ In the English context they are a part of fundamental issues of translation theories. The concept of translatability may be described “as an operative concept in the sense that it actively helps structure an entire field of decisions and principles” (Pym and Turk 1998, 273), at the same time, however, the employment of this concept creates the impression that the concept of translatability describes an objective process. It could be argued that instead Pym’s concept itself “actively helps structure an entire field of decisions and principles” (ibid.).

We will be making use of two categories employed by Baker (1992, 22–23), namely when the source language is semantically complex and when there are differences in expressive meaning. At the same time we will show that the issue of the translatability may not be necessarily approached only as a culture-specific issue but as a stylistic one as well including a shift in register and when

¹ The primary focus will be on texts designated for a general readership, i.e. brochures and web pages concerning local history and sights of interest. We have chosen these as they are arguably the most frequent texts actually read by foreigners and are readily available for each village, town and city in the country.

possible analyzing lexical units and their equivalents with the help of semantic componential analysis.²

The following list of Czech words is selected because of their perceived semantic complexity and a shift of markedness when translated in the specific English context:³

- | | |
|---------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. národní dům; | 7. už, již; |
| 2. chata, chalupa; | 8. naše, u nás; |
| 3. panelák; | 9. venkov; |
| 4. sídlo; | 10. příroda; |
| 5. reprezentativní; | 11. dominantní; |
| 6. pod záštitou; | 12. jedinečný, unikátní. |

2. The Dirty Dozen

The classification of this collection of words, as can be seen below, cancels the concept of untranslatability and replaces it with specific terms from semantic componential analysis and stylistics.

2.1 Národní dům, chalupa, chata, panelák, sídlo

The Czech equivalents of the semantically complex and culture specific collocations *národní dům* and *dům kultury* have been examined in detail before. Hopkinson (2007, 15) categorises the concept of *dům* into “instances where a single Czech word has a wider range of referents than its various English equivalents, i.e. when the two languages segment a particular semantic field (conceptual field) by using differently structured lexical fields”.

Hopkinson’s (2007, 15) approach definitely has methodological and explanatory advantages. He focuses on one word referents when he further claims that “the Czech *dům* has a wider range of referents than the English lexical item house . . . ; the English items house – block – centre – building cover the referents denoted by the Czech *dům*”. This statement would be invalid if Hopkinson did not also take into account collocations since the Czech single lexical unit *dům* cannot be translated as a *block* or *centre*. There are also further referents in English which Czech does not contain such as, for example, *House of Lords*,

² Labelling this dirty dozen as an untranslatable collection of words would lead to an understanding of English as a *lingua universalis* whereby certain “key concepts, key symbols and root metaphors would possibly be protected by untranslatability” (Pym and Turk 1998, 275) functioning as reserves of identity.

³ We begin with a brief list of Czech words and phrases which we call *The Dirty Dozen* referring here to the classic 1967 World War II film directed by Robert Aldrich about 12 trouble-makers who are given the chance to redeem themselves as soldiers as part of a risky mission.

Houses of Parliament. If we would choose to make use of this argumentation within the framework of this approach, we would have to compare two lists of English and Czech words, out of which a translator selects the concepts in relation to the context and their competencies. For a translator such a descriptive approach ought to be complemented by more general lexical and stylistic observations relevant at least for the functional style in question.

Such an approach may become more apparent when we take into consideration the collocability of words such as *národní / kulturní* and *dům*. A semantic analysis suggests the components container,⁴ shelter, protection, content, privacy, while in Czech it includes form, material, size and the purpose the building serves.⁵

The English translator will necessarily consider the literal meaning of the adjective *národní* and noun *dům*, which “has a wider range of referents” and attempt for a verbatim translation. The original purpose of the referent suggests an implicit possessive relationship (*dům patříčí českému národu*, a house of / belonging to the Czech nation). In present-day Czech this collocation has become a brand name, similar to the names of shopping malls or restaurants.

The issue is further complicated by the fact that the referents do not serve their initial function but instead house shops, cafés, restaurants, etc. The usually suggested English equivalent of *národní dům*, *cultural centre* refers to the original generic literal meaning instead of translating it as a brand name (The Czech House?).

The semantic components of *cottage* as a frequent equivalent of *chalupa* are useful when described diachronically, *cottage* as a historical term referred to specific rental regulations. Similarly, the Czech *chalupa* was a minimum unit of an agricultural private property supporting a family. These two obsolete terms had common semantic components, in other words, they could have been considered equivalents denoting a similar referent.

The disappearance of the referent of *cottage* had made the term available for new denotations.⁶ The more recent meanings are of a “small country residence” or a “summer residence often on a large and sumptuous scale (U.S.)” (s.v. “cottage”, OED).

Similarly, in Czech the aspect of ownership of the agricultural land is no longer a part of the meaning of *chalupa*, with it having been replaced by the semantic component *recreational* from the perspective of an urban inhabitant. The recent semantic components are “in bad repair, needing work on week-

⁴ Cf. the conversion possibility of the verb “to house”.

⁵ An English house can have culture but cannot have “culture”.

⁶ “The name divested of all associations with poverty, it is convenient, inasmuch as it frees from all pretensions and parade and restraint has been made available” (s.v. “cottage”, OED).

ends, DIY, village, a holidays”,⁷ while the word *cottage* has the semantic components of “sumptuous, rich, located both in rural and urban districts”.

The Czech term *chata* has the semantic components “poor, primitive, roughly built, low, wooden and for temporary living”. The most common collocations are *víkendová chata* (*weekend cottage*), *trávit neděle na chatě* (*spend Sunday at the cottage*), *lovecká chata* (*hunting lodge*), *horská chata* (*mountain cabin*), *alp-ská chata* (*chalet*), *turistická chata* (*hiking lodge*), etc.

The English *chalet* shares the semantic components of “small, wooden, dwelling for holiday-makers” in common with the Czech *chata*. The English *chalet*, however, has additional meanings in contrast to Czech “a house or villa built in the style of a Swiss cottage” or “a hut or cabin on the Swiss mountains, where cattle are lodged in the summer, and where cheese is made” (s.v. “chalet”, OED).

Of additional significance are the shared semantic components of a *holiday camp chalet* “orderly rows of hideous concrete huts known as chalets” (s.v. “chalet”, OED) where the Czech *chata* would be used in the same context, or more likely the diminutive *chatka*.

Another obsolete meaning of *cottage* as “a small temporary erection and shelter, a cot, shed” (s.v. “cottage”, OED) only shares the semantic component “small” with the Czech *chata*. The English term *hut* has a military or shepherding connotation and according to the OED does not have the semantic component of being “for recreational purposes”. The English term *lodge* has several shared collocations. For example, *lovecká chata*, *hunting lodge* (cf. s.v. “lodge”, OED) “house in a forest or other wild place, serving as a temporary abode in the hunting season; now used of the solitary houses built, e.g. in the Highlands of Scotland, for the accommodation of sportsmen during the shooting season”, the other meanings, however, are limited to dialect or are particularly specific.

Cottage as a translation equivalent *chalupa* and *chata* (as a second home) will have in English the prevailing connotations of wealth and luxury. Translating it as *weekend house* would be even more problematic as it would imply a level of prosperity wherein the owner would be able to afford not only a “weekday house”, but also a weekend house. Interestingly the Russian word *dacha* has become established in English as the most accurate word to describe the ubiquitous form of housing prevalent in Russia which shares practically all of the connotations of the Czech word *chata*. *Summer house* or *chalet* might also be a suitable compromise for *chata* with the term being particularly common in Scandinavia and sharing many of the connotations with the Czech *chata*.

Another dwelling described as *panelák* evokes a clear, concrete image in the mind of a Czech speaker, while the most common suggested translation “block

⁷ *Chalupa* has been replaced by the term *domek* from the perspective of a rural inhabitant.

of flats” fails to evoke anything for an American and suggests a wide range of possible structures for the British. This is further complicated, however, by it being a clipped form of *panelový dům*. The clipped form of this word is consequently semantically complex in light of the ubiquitous nature of these buildings. Interestingly, even *The Central European Review* uses the Czech word in English to describe these structures (Hanley 1999).

Hopkinson (2007, 16) analyses *sídlo* and its frequent English translation equivalent *seat* and selects the relevant context of aristocracy or Church, thus implicitly confirming a difference in register. In the case of companies or administrative organizations he suggests *head office* or a predicate *to be based*, pointing at a lack of contextual information in dictionaries. However, the collocation *sídlo firmy* (*company seat*) is established in Czech and its usage is not limited to the formal register, in similar fashion as with *sídlo úřadu* (*office seat*), *sídlo vlády* (*government seat*). The problem thus does not lie in a missing contextual dictionary definition, but in the missing collocation *sídlo firmy* which can be classified as a lexical unit. Considering the literal meaning of *sídlo* the English translator would face the same issues as in the case of *národní dům* (from an English translator’s point of view it might help to describe collocations, *sídlo firmy* and *národní dům* as archaisms).⁸

2.2 Pod záštitou, reprezentativní, dominantní

Another group of untranslatable words consists of *pod záštitou*, *reprezentativní* and *dominantní*. In Czech these words, when used outside the formal register, become clichés, a case of semantic bleaching, and to fill them with semantic content and to attempt to translate them is a mistake (outside the formal register they have become part of municipality office jargon, *pod záštitou*, *reprezentativní*).

The adjective *reprezentativní* is a particularly problematic word. There would seemingly be a straight-forward equivalent consisting of *representative*. The English adjective, however, is only employed for a very specific usage involving representing the whole, “typical of a class or classes, containing typical specimens of all or many classes”. In Czech, however, it is commonly used to describe a building, a hall, any place which needs to be sufficiently grand in order to keep appearances. An event can also be *reprezentativní*. We would consequently suggest using the word *gala* in connection with an event, reception, art opening, etc. *Grand* or *ceremonial* might be employed when speaking of an actual building.

⁸ The collocation *sídlo firmy* belongs to administrative style, *sídlo* as a single lexical unit has a high formal style and outside the collocation can be used with *firma* in a ironic or comic context only since *firma* is stylistically unmarked.

The phrase *pod záštitou* is closely related with its constant usage in relation to various cultural events which local politicians and academic dignitaries support. Translating it is as “*under the auspices of*” or “*under the patronage of*” one immediately imagines oneself back in the 19th century. We would consequently employ a phrase such as *with the support of/with the participation of*. The English translator should be aware of the fact that the noun *záštita* in the present-day Czech would sound ironic or comic outside the collocation.

The largest structure in a town or on a square is often referred to as the *dominanta* in Czech. The meaning is fairly straight-forward in Czech, merely implying that the structure is the most impressive landmark in the given place or locale. When translated into English it has sexual connotations or merely sounds preposterous.⁹ One would have to once again be much more specific in English, perhaps describing its appearance and placement in the city. The less grand phrases *prominent* or *striking* may be suggested, in other words: *The Holy Trinity Column is the most prominent / striking structure on the square.*

2.3 Již, už

The Czech adverb *již* shares little in common with the seeming dictionary equivalent *already*. For example, the Czech-English dictionary by Ivan Poldauf (1986, 245) presents *already* as one of the ten possible English equivalents and this without providing an example. The OED lists *already* as a secondary infrequent adverb with the meanings *beforehand, in anticipation; previously to some specified time; by this time, thus early*. These meanings partially overlap with the meanings in the Dictionary of Standard Czech, in particular for “previously to some specified time” and “at that time, now, immediately (in contrast to the previous state)”. The OED also specifies the meaning of anticipation (s.v. “already”, OED) which is not given explicitly amongst the Czech definitions but is probably contained in Czech sentences such as “Uplynulo již půl hodiny a ona ještě . . .” “Half an hour had already gone by and she still . . .” The Czech *již* also has in contrast to the English *already* an additional emotional semantic component which emphasizes and strengthens the meaning of the word which it is linked with (often with time designation) compare “Již staří Čechové . . .” “The ancient Czechs . . .” (no equivalent here) or emphasizes wishes or a challenge, compare. “Už se nezlob.” “Don’t be angry any more.” Another component of meaning in the Czech *již* is “rychlé, skoro neočekávané nastoupení nebo pomnutí děje”, compare “Vltava již zamrzla” “The Vltava had frozen over” which is not emphasized in the case of the English *already*. The Czech strongly polysemous *již*

⁹ “Olomoucký sloup Nejsvětější Trojice je dominantou středu města, která návštěvníkům svou impozantností snadno vyrazí dech.” [The Holy Trinity Column in Olomouc is the dominant feature of the centre of the town and easily takes visitors’ breath away due to its imposing appearance.]

consequently presents major problems when translated into English and cannot be simply solved with the English equivalent *already*. Practically every text dealing with local history inserts *už* and *již* at great frequency. Translating them as “already” or “as early as” tends to be distracting creating the expectation of a further explanation. In addition, the word *already* in terms of register fails to correspond with *již*, with the English word being much more informal. Thus it often must either be left out entirely or compensated for in another fashion, by for example the use of a perfect tense.

2.4 Naše, u nás

The high frequency of the pronoun *naše* and the prepositional phrase with the genitive plural (*u*) *nás* are marked in the given context with their English equivalent *our / ourselves*. It is in contrast to the relative higher frequency of the English possessive singular pronouns which are seen as less marked in English than *our*. The possessive pronoun has more of the function of a pragmatic reference identifying locality as opposed to emphasising ownership, compare, for example, *na naší poště, v našem obvodě, v našem městě*.

The employment of *naše* and *u nás* has at best a “homey feel” to it when translated into English and at worst a possessive nationalist tone. When Czechs translate *v našem městě* into *in our town* in English one immediately has this sense of being excluded, of being judged unworthy of inclusion. We would opt for the use of *local* or the definite article which thereby rids the phrase of the possessive feel, *the local post office, the local district*. In the case of *v našem městě* it could be translated as *my home town*, at least ridding the phrase of the plural which creates the unintentional feeling of exclusivity.

2.5 Venkov, příroda

The “untranslatability” for additional groups of Czech words involves the seeming obsolescence of their single lexical unit English equivalents, or at times in the level of abstraction. A model example of this would be *venkov* which in Czech is defined in a negative fashion in contrast to the city. The English equivalent *country* does exist with a similar meaning (“of or pertaining to the rural districts; living in, situated in, belonging to or characteristic of the country (often as contrasted with the town)”, s.v. “country”, OED), but it is used attributively, as in *country girl, country manner*. Further meanings of the English *country* are either more specific or obsolete. The English equivalent to the Czech *příroda* (an empty landscape outside of human habitation with plant and animal life) would seem to be clearly *nature* at first glance, however, as well as a closer lexical equivalent with the meaning, the phenomena of the physical world collectively; especially plants, animals, and other features and products of the earth itself, as opposed to humans and human *creations* (cf. s.v. “nature”, OED). This

is more abstract than the Czech nature which might additionally evoke connotations with the English Mother Nature.

Venkov in a sentence such as *Bydlím na venkově* (I live in the country) fails to transmit into English because of the different abstractness of its meaning. (What exactly does it mean? Does he or she live in a village, in a hamlet or on a lonely mountain top?) The Czech sentence is semantically complete but in English the principal semantic component of *country* is *territory*. *I live in the country* would beg the question, the country of what? *I live in the countryside* makes one sound like an animal character in a children's story while *I live in a rural area* sounds too academic. Therefore one needs to be much more specific in English: *I live in a small village*, *I live in a mountain cabin*, etc.

The concept of going *do přírody* (to nature) fails to communicate the general outdoor activity implied in the Czech. *Going to nature* sounds like a philosophical decision involving the abandonment of material possessions. Again English would demand a much more concrete, specific explanation as to where you are actually living or heading off to, *going for a hike in the woods*, *taking a walk by the river*, etc.¹⁰

3. Conclusion

This brief analysis of the translatability of a dozen Czech words describes them either as a stylistic issue of register or a translational one of culture specific terms. Both approaches may be involved with pseudo issues if not preceded by a linguistic (lexical) analysis of the text. If the English translator will translate certain Czech collocations (*národní dům*, *sídlo firmy*) literally¹¹ the equivalents will acquire semantic components of expressivity or they will be in the wrong register. Such a translation will seem unnecessarily grandiose and inflated.¹² The English translator will consequently feel there is a definite need to tone down the register when translating or that the English emphasis on sim-

¹⁰ The words *jedinečný* and *unikátní* are also extremely common in the texts analysed, for example, "Alhambra je jedinečný maurský unikát". Although this is an obvious tautology or pleonasm it is at least partially understandable when describing this architectural masterpiece. This is another story, however, "[u]nikátní designové radiátory jsou určeny především do prostor, kde je kladen důraz na luxusní a jedinečný vzhled". This fondness for uniqueness in Czech fails to communicate in English and instead only comes across as ludicrous.

¹¹ This term is used as in Newmark (1988).

¹² Czech style when translated into English would seem like a parent relating a dramatic story to their children trying to keep them on the edge of their seats with anticipation.

plicity and clarity needs to be taken into account.¹³ If a translation of the informative and persuasive style is preceded by a lexical analysis identifying certain collocations, e.g. archaisms (*národní dům*) or clichés (*pod záštitou, dominantní, unikátní*) the issue of a wrong stylistic register may become irrelevant. The assertion of the translator that in the case of words such as *venkov* and *příroda* English needs more concrete, specific equivalents because it is more “precise” becomes invalid when the componential analysis of their meaning proves that *country* and *nature* have different referents than *venkov* and *příroda*.

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¹³ It should be kept in mind that the analysis is relevant for Czech informative and promotional texts where the cited examples of untranslatable words come from. The English translator’s feeling that the authors are uncertain, finding themselves getting carried away in their attempts to sound intellectual and poetic may be well substantiated. A practical consequence is that diminutive forms have to be eliminated with the emotional components compensated for and the translator should be aware of the frequent abstract clichés and deflate them so as to make the meaning comprehensible in English.

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METHODOLOGY

Teaching Translation Strategies: The Case of Condensation

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ABSTRACT: There is an ongoing debate on the nature of university translation course curricula which primarily tries to address the way translation competence is acquired. The fundamental point seems to be striking a balance between educating in the general with training in the particular. Using systemic contrastive analysis as the framework and condensation in user guides as the illustrative material, this paper presents some problematic issues students have to deal with in their translations and suggests a few activities intended to develop their linguistic, text, and extra-linguistic competences. The common feature of these activities is the “hands-on” approach in which students analyse comparable texts, familiarize themselves with authentic language data, find and compare alternative translation solutions, and develop their research skills. The main argument is that the classroom should be the ideal environment for students’ attempts and discussions, and the bulk of already solved translation issues equip students with skills for tackling analogous challenges in the future.

KEYWORDS: teaching translation; linguistic competence; text competence; extra-linguistic competence; condensation; user guides

1. The Translation Syllabus: Educating in the General, or Training in the Particular?

With the growing importance of professional translations stimulated especially by the globalization of economic activities and international cooperation and integration, the demand for thoroughly prepared translators has also been increasing steadily. These translators need to possess a sound knowledge of their field of expertise as well as translation-specific skills and competences. They must also be able to operate in diverse environments. But what exactly do such knowledge, skills, and competences include and how are they acquired? What should translation courses focus on and what roles should the instructor and students assume in the learning process?

Not even a decade ago, Davies (2004, 1) lamented that “[p]reparation of trainers seems to focus either on a prescription of how translation should be taught – paradoxically, without giving any practical ideas on how to go about it – or on a description of what happens in translation, but not of what happens in the classroom”. The author stresses the pedagogical and psychological aspects of translation training, respect for the students’ individual learning styles, and the role of the teacher as a guide and counsellor. Her book abounds in various activities and tasks which might be employed in translation courses, and which

aim to support classroom dynamics, activate students, and also utilize the benefits of games.

The debate and research concerning the principles and frameworks on which the training of the students of translation courses should be based have become more intense since then. One of the major contributors in this field is the PACTE research group, who primarily investigate the processes by which trainee translators acquire relevant competences (see e.g. PACTE 2000, 101–102). Also, a couple of books containing insightful contributions have been published recently (Bogucki 2010; Kearns 2008).

Probably in all disciplines, instructors must deal with the problem of balancing the general, abstract and theoretical on the one hand with the particular, specific and practical or empirical on the other. In translation studies, this issue seems to be even more relevant, as the requirements on good translation practice and quality standards depend on the theoretical framework adopted. Moreover, translating is an activity which requires a complex interplay of various competences. It might be argued that texts to be translated are often extremely varied and therefore translators need to employ a wide range of strategies suitable for individual translation problems. This would support the idea that translation students should be primarily educated in the general in order to develop universal competences. Yet it is often the case that translation of highly formalized and repetitive material is required, e.g. contracts or reports. For these text types, it would be perhaps beneficial for students to be trained in the particularities and specific features such as legal and economic terminology, fixed phrases and the style of a given text type.

It is possible to find opinions leaning more towards a general approach as well as those stressing out the practical approach. Nord (2005, 211) asserts that “university training programmes must be general enough to enable their graduates to take up a broad range of activities, and specific enough to lay the foundations for a fast acquisition of any kind of special skills after graduation”. Further, Bernardini (2004, 19) distinguishes training from education, explaining that “training someone through a transfer of knowledge is relatively easy and fast, but hardly a generative process. On the other hand, educating a student takes time and effort, but one can trust that she can then go out and learn the rest for herself”. Davies (2005) mentions the necessity to take the different levels of experience of undergraduate and postgraduate students into account when designing syllabi for the translation courses. “Pedagogical research, principles and material cannot, therefore, be presented in the same manner for both levels, vaguely hoping that the more inexperienced students will ‘catch on’ to the intricacies of translation at some unclear stage of their training or, as is sometimes argued, when they go out into the ‘real world’” (Davies 2005, 69).

2. Training Translation Skills in the Classroom

While we completely agree with these authors' calls for developing those abilities¹ which will help translation students solve specific problems in the future, we would like to point out that special translation skills should be acquired within the university curricula. This applies particularly to the undergraduate students on whom we concentrate in this article. In accordance with Davies' claim above, we believe there is not much space for more extensive learning on-the-fly after students' graduation. In our experience, graduates often work as freelance translators. They enter the labour market with no protection period. Their potential employers, usually translation agencies, expect them to be ready to perform professionally and submit their work as a complete product which needs nearly no further corrections or editing. Due to time and economic constraints, they are usually not provided with proper feedback – if any at all – from their clients, which would facilitate further learning. Despite the support of team work using modern computer assisted translation (CAT) technology, translation is a rather solitary occupation in which translators must often rely on their knowledge, skills, and competences with no-one to ask for advice or opinions on an overall strategy chosen or a particular translation solution employed.

Contrary to this, the classroom can and should be a much more learning-friendly environment. Students may be presented with a wide range of challenges requiring various competences. They may share their ideas during the process of seeking an adequate solution with other students and with the teacher. Next, they may compare and discuss various submitted solutions, obtain proper feedback and, most importantly, learn. A grammatical mistake or an inadequate solution does not have detrimental effects, but serves as a valuable learning input. Here we would like to emphasize the practice-oriented approach to translation training. In his reflections on the didactics of translation, Wills (2005, 10) states that “translation teaching must in the final analysis be directed towards the day-to-day purposes of translation work, the communicative targets of translation and the systematization of translation teaching and translation learning. To deal with translation without allowing for the obstinate, the individual, the unmappable and incalculable quality of texts-to-be-translated is unacceptable in translation teaching”. In this approach, it is the students and the text that are in the centre of attention in the classroom. We believe that students should obtain as much practical experience as possible

¹ Bernardini (2004, 20–21) mentions three such abilities, or “capacities to be fostered” in translation courses: *awareness*, the ability to see behind the text and mediate the message adequately; *reflectiveness*, which relates to the ability to develop translation strategies and apply them by analogy in the future; and *resourcefulness*, that is the ability to use available resources efficiently.

with different texts from different fields. It is only when the text meets with its translator that the knowledge, skills, and competences are activated, used, and developed.

To support their motivation, students should always know what they are doing at any given moment of the course and why they are doing it. Davies (2005, 74) distinguishes three approaches to translation training: it may concentrate on the function, the product, and the process of translation. While all three approaches should be given proper attention in the translation courses, we would like to concentrate on the process-based approach here, since it primarily focuses on the acquisition of translation skills. The training endeavours to uncover the procedures used during translation, builds awareness of the translation strategies, and increases students' self-confidence – contributing to greater coherence, quality, and speed in students' translations.

3. User Guides as the Material for Practicing

We would like to illustrate this process-based approach in translation training using the textual material of user guides² and the phenomenon of condensation, which is quite typical in such texts. There is a large demand for the translations of user guides; besides meeting the legal requirements,³ high quality user guides also facilitate efficient usage of the product, prevent malfunctions and risks, and communicate high corporate standards. Writers of user guides work under the influence of two rather conflicting tendencies: they must provide the users with all information necessary for the correct, efficient, and safe use of the product, while at the same time they must keep the text short and compact in order to communicate to the consumers the fact that the product is indeed easy to use. Moreover, there are sometimes even physical limitations, e.g. when the instructions are printed directly on small packages. That is why the text tends to be condensed, both from the formal and semantic perspective.

However, condensed texts are generally more difficult to understand. Moreover, it is often the case that user guides are not produced by native speak-

² An extensive survey of the features of user guides, their components, and guidelines for producing them as well as more general observations on technical writing based on the concept of usability is offered in Byrne (2006).

³ In the Czech Republic, sellers are obliged by Act No. 634/1992 Sb. to provide consumers with proper information about the features and use of products and services. If the purpose of the product requires it, the information must be provided in written form in Czech. Also, all information, both in writing and in pictograms, must be clear and easily understandable.

ers of the language they are written in, nor by trained technical writers.⁴ That is why the condensed structures are more difficult to decipher (see examples below). Translation students in their early stages of training tend to stick to the formal level of the source text (ST) and use the same means and extent of condensation in the target text (TT). To overcome this, students need to develop certain competences which might, for the purposes of our discussion here, be tentatively grouped into three major categories: linguistic, text, and extra-linguistic. Generally speaking, linguistic competence includes the awareness of the source language (SL) and the target language (TL) as two typologically different linguistic systems with their specific characteristics and tendencies; text competence means the ability to package information in the form of various text types and genres using appropriate textual and stylistic means; and extra-linguistic competence refers to the sum of knowledge in various fields and the abilities to familiarize with the specifics of a particular domain. These competences, of course, function in a complex interplay in the process of translation, but for the purposes of translation training it might be useful to view them separately.

4. Condensation and the Three Competences

This section provides an overview of the issues connected with the case of condensation with respect to the three aforementioned competences, together with suggestions on some activities which should help students develop these competences and deal with issues. Of course, such an overview cannot be complete as it is limited by the scope and extent of the article. Rather, only the most prominent cases and phenomena are mentioned, with a heavy emphasis on linguistic competence, while extra-linguistic competence is (for obvious reasons) only touched upon rather superficially.

4.1 Linguistic Competence

It has already been stated that good knowledge of English and Czech is essential for trainee translators. Of course this does not involve only vocabulary and grammar; it also requires awareness of a broad variety of systemic differences. One of these differences is the language typology. The English language, analytical in nature, uses several words to denote a notion that in synthetic Czech, thanks to its rich inflectional morphology, is often expressed only by one word. This may be seen by comparing verbal and verbo-nominal predication, typical

⁴ With the globalization of world markets, there has been a worldwide need for some form of lingua franca (cf. Byrne 2006; Anderman 2005). The increasing number of non-native speakers using English and writing in English has most probably resulted in a lower quality of technical documents.

of the Czech and English languages respectively. While in Czech the action is almost invariably expressed by the finite verb-form, in English the predication is often formed from the combination of a verb of general meaning and a nominal element.⁵ The action in verbo-nominal predication is dissociated into the formal element, i.e. semantically empty verb, and the semantic component concretizing the general meaning. In other words, using Vachek's (1976) term, the *semantic centre of gravity* within the Czech predication lies in the verbal form, while in English it is shifted onto to the nominal element. For illustration, see example (1).⁶ Nevertheless, it must be added that we have been speaking about tendencies typical of analytical and synthetic languages, which should not be accepted with uncritical naivety. There are, of course, cases in which the verbo-nominal predication is preferred in Czech and verbal predication is used in English.

- (1) (a) *Give it a shake prior to use.*
 (a') *Před použitím zatřepat.*
 (b) *Manual focusing also has the advantage of allowing the photographer to put emphasis on a certain element of the picture.*
 (b') *Další výhodou manuálního ostření je možnost zaměřit určitý objekt v náhledu.*

Generally speaking, Czech finite verbs are endowed with strong dynamism. In contrast, the English finite verb appears to be much less dynamic in character; according to Vachek (1976), this is caused by the frequent shift of the semantic centre of gravity from the finite verb onto the nominal element of predication. Similarly, Mancuso (1990), quoted by Byrne (2006, 90), distinguishes between strong and weak verbs⁷ occurring in user guides. While strong verbs (e.g. *weld, unscrew, inflate, tighten*) create images, weak verbs (e.g. *give, make, put, allow*) are functionally close to copula, saying little, if anything – and readers, or translators in our case, have to spend more time deciphering the intended meaning and consequently concretizing the concept in Czech. Compare the following sentences in examples (2)⁸ and (3). In (2b) a strong verb was used instead of its nominalized variant in (2a), which resulted in a more dynamic and quicker understanding of the same information. In contrast, see examples (3b) and (3c), taken from a lawnmower user guide and a rather informal troubleshooting section in a car user guide respectively. In both English examples, the finite verb form was entirely omitted. The Czech translations, however, prefer the finite

⁵ Mathesius (1975) called this combination of verbs and nominal elements “verbal phrases”.

⁶ If not stated otherwise, all the examples are taken from authentic user guides.

⁷ It is obvious that such differentiation is rather subjective.

⁸ Borrowed from Byrne (2006, 90–91).

verb forms. Taking a contrastive view, both sentences carry a similar degree of communicative dynamism but with different devices in play. In the Czech version it lies primarily on the finite verbs, while in English it is on the past participle of the first clause and on the nominal element completing the semantically empty verb *give* in (3a), and past participles and infinitive non-finite verb forms in (3c).

- (2) (a) *The setup program results in an update of the registry.*
 (b) *The setup program updates the registry.*
- (3) (a) *Put a film of clean engine oil on the rubber seal of the new filter.*
 (a') *Na gumové těsnění nového filtru naneste vrstvu čistého motorového oleje.*
 (b) *Sized right for golf courses, cities, schools. Small [mower] decks give excellent flexibility.*
 (b') *Malé vozíky se díky své flexibilitě hodí pro golfová hřiště, obce a školy.*
 (c) *Left lights on, battery dead, how to get in the car?*
 (c') *Jak se dostanete do auta, když jste zapomněli vypnout světla a vybila se vám autobaterie?*

Thus, the reduced importance of the English finite verb, as well as the lack of its dynamism, is compensated by the phenomenon of complex condensation, which contributes to the compact, and thus more dynamic structure in English, often put in contrast with the relatively loose structure in Czech, but with a more dynamic verbal expression (cf. Mathesius 1975; Vachek 1976; Dušková 1988; Tárnyiková 2007). There are three types of non-finite clauses⁹ – infinitives, gerunds, and participles. To these we add also verbless clauses, in which the verb was not only reduced in its capacity to signal a full range of grammatical categories, but in which “the reduction of the verb was total” (Tárnyiková 2007, 162). For illustrations of verbal means of condensation, see example (4), noting various strategies used in Czech to compensate for the English sentence condensation.¹⁰ Sometimes even the Czech language gives preference to a nominal expression, as in (4b'), or the translator chooses an action noun in Czech to compensate for the sentence condenser in English, see examples (4c) and (4c'). This is an option which should not be chosen automatically but rather after careful consideration, having taken into account all the other options available. An activity in which students

⁹ Sometimes also referred to as semi-clauses, sentence condensers or verbal condensers.

¹⁰ We agree with Tárnyiková (2007, 214) who states that “it would be overly simplistic to base [the] comparison of sentence complexing in English and Czech on the binarity of compactness (in English) and loose complexing in Czech. In both languages the prevailing tendencies have to be approached as spaces within the *compact – loose spectrum* of possibilities”.

are asked to offer more solutions after identifying various means of sentence condensers may help them avoid poor translations and misunderstandings of the original.

- (4) (a) *Read and understand this manual to avoid accidents*
 (a') *Abyste předešli úrazu, důkladně se seznamte s tímto manuálem.*
 (b) *Any fuel **leaking or dropping** on hot surfaces and electric components can cause fires.*
 (b') *Při jakémkoli kontaktu paliva s horkým povrchem či elektrickými součástkami může dojít ke vznícení.*
 (c) *Do not apply inappropriate force when **closing** the pressure cooker.*
 (c') *Při uzavírání tlakového hrnce nepoužívejte nepřiměřenou sílu.*
 (d) ***With the collection bottle still in the holder**, remove the lid.*
 (d') *Sběrnou nádobku nechte v držáku a sejměte víčko.*

English semi-clauses and verbless clauses provide the superordinate clause with concomitant circumstances (i.e. temporal, causal, conditional, or concessive) and accompanying events that specify the process or action expressed by the finite verb. Example (5), taken from a user guide describing a small tractor, shows a case of non-finite semi-clauses expressing temporal and conditional relation. The conditional relation needs to be deciphered because the condensed form makes it implicit.

- (5) (a) *Disengaging the clutch or shifting into neutral while descending a slope could lead to a loss of control.*
 (a') *Sešlápnutím spojky nebo vyřazením rychlosti při sjezdu z kopce byste mohli nad traktorem ztratit kontrolu.*

To understand the sentence complex well, it is important to decode all the implicit relations that are retrievable only thanks to the verbal and pragmatic context. To paraphrase the sentence using verbal predication only, all the relations should become explicit – *if we disengage the clutch or shift gear into neutral when we are descending a slope, we risk a loss of control over the tractor.* Even though the sentence was translated into Czech verbo-nominally and the structure might seem to be similar to the English original, all the relations are explicit thanks to the Czech morphology.

Subordinators introducing semi-clauses or verbless clauses, such as while in (5) or when in (6), help us understand the relation between the subordinate and superordinate clause. Both the above-mentioned examples (5) and (6) express a temporal relation.

- (6) (a) *When charging the battery, the battery charging indicator light will remain lit.*
 (b) *Při nabíjení fotoaparátu bude dioda nabíjení po celou dobu svítit.*

However, deciphering the meaning of a semi-clause is more difficult when it lacks any introductory subordinator, as in (7):

- (7) (a) *Escaping fluid under pressure can penetrate the skin **causing serious injury.***
 (a') *Při úniku může kapalina pod tlakem poškodit pokožku a způsobit vážné zranění.*
 (b) *Make sure the area is clear of all bystanders and machine is safe **to operate.***
 (b') *Ujistěte se, že se všichni nacházejí v bezpečné vzdálenosti a práce s pilou nikoho neohrožuje.*
 (c) ***Using** power switch turn off the unit and allow vacuum to drop.*
 (c') *Hlavním vypínačem vypněte odsávačku a uvolněte podtlak.*

To identify the subject in (7) above, the *attachment rule* must be applied. According to the attachment rule the subject “is assumed to be identical in reference to the subject of the superordinate clause” (Quirk et al. 1985, 1121).

There are also cases in English in which the subject of the subordinate clause is not identical with the subject of the matrix clause.¹¹ Moreover, the non-finite (8a) or verbless clause (8b) is not explicitly bound to the matrix clause syntactically – it is not introduced by a subordinator and is not the complement of a preposition. In grammar books, these are referred to as absolute clauses (cf. Quirk et al. 1985, 1120) or absolute constructions (cf. Mathesius 1975, 149). See the following examples in (8):

- (8) (a) *Installation finished, let's start training.*
 (a') *Nyní je instalace dokončena, a tak se můžeme začít učit.*
 (b) *No network available, only emergency calls are allowed.*
 (b') *Pokud se nacházíte mimo oblast pokrytí sítě, můžete volat pouze nouzová volání.*

Absolute clauses were rather rare in our analysed language data, which is in accordance with Quirk et al.'s (1985, 1120) statement that they are rather “formal

¹¹ Tárnyiková (2007, 168) is of the view that “the non-identity of the subjects in the absolute and matrix clause is simply taken for granted”.

and infrequent”. However, their sub-type, augmented absolute clauses,¹² discussed thoroughly in Malá (2005, 117–27) are quite a common occurrence in user guides as they provide the reader with less important, i.e. accompanying or circumstantial information. While augmented absolutes are not so difficult to decipher and understand, they may be tricky to translate and usually need to be restructured in Czech. Compare examples in (9). In (9a') and (9c') the English verbless clause was translated using the finite verb form in Czech. This strategy should be carefully considered as it involves a change in communicative dynamism of the utterance. The status of the non-finite and dependent clause is raised to the status of independent clause.

- (9) (a) **With the power switch in the “Off” position**, disconnect the DeVilbiss Suction Unit from all external power sources.
 (a') Přepněte vypínač do polohy vypnuto a odpojte odsávací pumpu od všech vnějších zdrojů napájení.
 (b) Leaving transmission in gear **with the engine stopped** will not prevent tractor from rolling.
 (b') I když po vypnutí motoru zařadíte rychlost, nezabráníte tím, aby traktor rozjel.
 (c) **With the collection bottle still in the holder**, remove the lid.
 (c') Sběrnou nádobku nechte v držáku a sejměte víčko.

Morphosyntactic condensation also manifests itself in the possibility of accumulating prepositions, as in (10a). By this analytical means, English expresses various relations of sentence elements. While in English various relations among sentence elements are expressed analytically, Czech – in accordance with its synthetic nature – needs to express all the relations by means of case endings on individual sentence elements. As a result, the sentence elements must be repeated (10c') or referred to pronominally (10b'). Compare examples in (10):

- (10) (a) Close supervision is necessary when this product is used **by, on, or near** children or invalids.
 (a') Dbejte zvýšené opatrnosti v případě, že přístroj používají děti nebo invalidní osoby, dále při použití přístroje k jejich ošetření nebo i jen v jejich blízkosti.
 (b) Never try to get **on or off** a moving tractor.
 (b') Nikdy se nepokoušejte nasednout na jedoucí traktor nebo z něj sesednout.
 (c) **Before and after** work with the tractor, check all the safety devices.

¹² They are called “augmented” because they extend the absolute clause by a preposition, conjunction, etc. (WITH / WITHOUT augmented absolutes are the most frequent cases).

- (c') *Před prací a po práci s traktorem, vždy zkontrolujte funkčnost bezpečnostního vybavení.*

Lexical condensation is also quite common in user guides. For instance chains of nominal premodification cause problems because they are difficult to decipher and the links between individual words are often not clear (cf. Knittlová, Grygová, and Zehnalová 2010, 45–47), see example (11).

- (11) *To avoid **non-clutch drive system component damage**, always depress the clutch pedal.*

While in English, the head of the noun phrase is usually the rightmost word, Czech tends to have some of the modifying words in postposition so that the phrase is more balanced. Also, in most such cases, the translation will be more explicit; the relations between individual components will be expressed with additional words, e.g. *caused by*, *belonging to*, *functioning as*, see example (12). Students are asked to restructure such phrases in different ways and compare individual solutions.

- (12) (a) *short-range, low-power wireless radio-frequency (RF) transceiver devices*
 (a') *nízkovýkonová zařízení pro bezdrátový přenos dat na rádiové frekvenci s krátkým dosahem*

Of course, to be able to decipher these chains and render the relations correctly in the TL, translators need good domain-specific knowledge (discussed below).

Another means of lexical condensation is conversion – which is productive in English, but virtually non-existent in Czech. Nouns can be converted into verbs, e.g. *market* (N) → *to market* (V), and adjectives into nouns, e.g. *consumable / disposable* (Adj) *products* → *consumables / disposables* (N). The latter case of conversion, accentuated by the omission of the general noun (*products / items / parts*) has no formal equivalent and must be translated in the full form and sometimes even more explicitly, as in the following example:

- (13) *disposables : výrobky na jedno použití*
renewables : obnovitelné zdroje energie

There are two types of compounds contributing to the compactness of the English structure on the morphological level. The first type, *blends* or *portmanteau words*, is based on the word-formative process of blending. Generally speaking, a blend is a lexical item formed from parts of two or more morphemes

or words (cf. Dušková 1988). Except for a few examples such as *camcorder* (camera + recorder) or *transceiver* (transmitter + receiver), they are of rare occurrence in user guides. However, the second type, quotational compounds,¹³ is more frequent in this type of texts as it enables very economical (and dynamic) expression often based on a particular feature of the concept described:

- (14)¹⁴ (a) *the new wash-in-the-evening-and-dry-in-the-morning materials*
 (a') *neobyčejně rychle schnoucí materiály*

Students should be made aware of the fact that the motivation of Czech equivalents is mostly different (15a) and only rarely mirrors the motivation in English (15b). In some cases, the modifying information follows the head of the noun phrase and it is also usually more explicit (15c). Thus, students may be asked to transform the compact and informationally condensed expression in English into a looser structure in Czech, which is a creative but difficult task because this process may cause a reduction in the dynamism with which the information is presented.

- (15) (a) *hard-to-get goods* : *nedostatkové zboží*
 (b) *door-to-door transport* : *doprava z domu do domu*
 (c) *quick-return mechanism* : *mechanismus pro rychlý zpětný chod*

4.2 Text Competence

Whereas the previous section dealt contrastively with the linguistic means of English and Czech with respect to condensation, this section focuses on how those means are used to mould information into text. User guides belong among the most visible products of technical documentation. Moreover, they are used by a wide variety of consumers regardless of their technical skill. Therefore, user guides must be comprehensive and user-friendly, accurately reflecting facts and providing information at the time when the reader needs it. If the readers were bombarded with information, their ability to digest the information would be definitely reduced. The user guide should be regarded as a device and

¹³ Vachek (1976, 320–21) describes these hyphenated sequences of words as “a word-group that has been taken out of its semantic environment (in which it was performing some specific syntactic functions) and transformed to a different semantic environment in which its syntactic function has been altogether changed”.

¹⁴ Example borrowed from Dušková (1988, 486). If the translation into Czech is compared with the English original, the Czech version is even more condensed, which only proves the above statement that counter-examples are not infrequent and that we are in the domain of tendencies rather than in the domain of language-specific-and-subject-to-no-change rules.

not as a piece of good literature (cf. Weiss 1985). The structure of user guides is fundamental, and students should be made aware of the ways in which user guides tend to be structured. Byrne (2006, 83) distinguishes four types of structure: *chronological*, *general-to-specific*, *problem-methods-solutions*, *cause-effect*. The chronological structure involves a step-by-step procedure which should be carried out in sequence to attain a certain goal. The next structure, general-to-specific, starts with general or background information (such as safety precautions), subsequently moving to more detailed instructions. The problem-methods-solution structure is used primarily in troubleshooting sections as it presents information according to specific problems. The cause-effect structure can be applied to describe the components of a product. An activity based on writing instructions according to the above-presented structures may familiarize students with inherent features of user guides.

Another typical aspect of user guides that causes problems to students is lexical repetition (16) or parallelism – constructions that have the same pattern and occur in their immediate vicinity. Structural parallelism often occurs in lists, as in (17).

(16) **Select** “Sync only checked songs and videos” if you want . . .

Select “Manually manage music and videos” to turn off . . .

Select “Encrypt iPhone backup” if you want . . .

(17) Respond to a second call:

– **To ignore the call and send it to voicemail, tap Ignore.**

– **To hold the first call and answer the new one, tap Hold Call + Answer.**

– **To end the first call and answer the new one, tap End Call + Answer.**

Czech students, influenced by the stylistic tendency of the Czech language to avoid repeating the same words, use their creativity and offer alternative solutions rather than repeating the same lexical items or using the same structures. This may, however, prevent the information from being read and understood quickly and clearly. Moreover, as Byrne (2006, 89) puts it: “Parallelism . . . is also very useful in reinforcing ideas and learning” because it may help users remember the information more easily (e.g. in warnings). To illustrate a negative effect of the lack of parallelism, see (18)¹⁵ in which a parallel structure “if you want to do X, do Y” was substituted for structurally different variant even though the propositional content remained the same.

(18) *If you want to open a file, click Open.*

The Close button should be pressed to close a file.

¹⁵ Borrowed from Byrne (2006, 89).

Nord (2005, 212) calls the method which aims to develop this competence “contrastive style analysis”, and suggests that “students should be made aware of the norms and conventions of communication in everyday settings before they start translating structure-by-structure or word-by-word”. Indeed, cases in which the two languages offer similar formal means of expression can be found, but their appropriateness for the given text type and genre must be considered. For instance, user guides written in English (not necessarily by a native speaker in an English-speaking country) commonly employ abbreviations and clipped forms, see examples (19a) and (19b). The same forms would be inappropriate in Czech translation and the translator needs to use the full forms.

- (19) (a) *Travel with **SMV** and lights that follow local codes.*
(b) *The sensor is warmer than the **Hi temp** alarm level.*

In this way, however, the target text becomes longer. On the other hand, there are usually numerous opportunities to compensate for such lengthening in places where the source text uses more verbose structures, as shown in the following examples (20a)–(20d).

- (20) (a) *To clean re-usable laryngoscope blades and handles **the following steps are to be taken.***
→ . . . *follow these steps.*
(b) *Replace the **Water Mattress** periodically as indicated **on the Water Mattress.***
→ . . . *on it.*
(c) *Make sure that there is nobody under the conveyor as you **perform the height adjustment.***
→ . . . *adjust the height.*
(d) *Keep this manual throughout the life of the engine in a place **within easy reach, so that it is always at hand and you can consult it at all times.***
→ possible reduction: 1) *throughout the life = always = at all times,*
and 2) *within easy reach = at hand*

This brings us to other possible activities designed to strengthen text competence. Many are listed by Nord (2005). We would like to stress the following: work with comparable texts is very useful, but special attention must be paid to the quality of the texts (especially in case of user guides) so that they may provide good textual input for students. Students may be asked to extract typical phrases which help them produce a speedy translation and make it more idiomatic in accordance with target text stylistic conventions. Concentrating on the text production skills on the macro-level, the task may be to work given

information into different text types and genres in a single language (e.g. converting a user guide into an advertisement). On the micro-level, students may perform various morphosyntactic modifications on a given sentence, see example (21), and evaluate individual solutions with respect to the suitability for a given genre.

- (21) *Controls switched on, press the START button.*
 → *With controls switched on . . .*
 → *When controls are switched on . . .*
 → *Switch the controls on and . . .*

A challenging and therefore entertaining exercise is the translation of warning labels, examples (22a) and (22b), and screen message strings (22c), where physical space limitation does not allow longer translations. Here, students often have to detach themselves from the source text form and express the message in a different, but equally condensed form in the TL, substituting for instance the hazard for its cause (22a), the hazard for an instruction to prevent it (22b), or using a morphologically complex word (22c).

- (22) (a) *electric hazard : pod napětím*
 (b) *risk of dusting : větrat*
 (c) *Hi Temp event : přehřátí*

In all such cases, it is necessary to discuss whether the message is communicated clearly and whether it covers the same range of possibilities as in the original. Thus, translation finished, a final readability test might be applied with students giving feedback to each other.

4.3 Extra-Linguistic Competence

As already mentioned above, some linguistic structures are difficult to decipher and render in the TL correctly due to various means of condensation. While it is impossible to gain thorough knowledge in a series of specialized domains, it is advisable that the translators master the fundamental principles of science and technology (cf. Byrne 2006, 6). They should understand the general functioning of different products because it facilitates the search for and acquisition of the more specific concepts. Communication with experts is also easier when the translators are familiar at least with the basics of the given field.

For instance, the term *negative tongue weight* refers to the fact that the tongue of a single-axle trailer goes up when unhitched, the abbreviations *AC* and *DC* may stand not only for the type of current, but quite often for the source it is provided from (*grid* and *battery / accumulator* respectively), and the verb *pour*

is translated correctly in Czech only if the translator knows that capsules of Tamiflu, an antiviral drug used to treat bird flu, contain powder and not liquid.

To make students aware of the necessity to understand how the product works when translating its user guide, they may be asked to describe internal functioning and individual operations in their own words prior to translation. It is also useful to have them draft step-by-step instructions for a familiar procedure (e.g. making coffee with a coffee machine). This activity may reveal the fact that students often take things for granted and do not pay attention to the details. Next, students may be asked to find Czech equivalents of some commonly used units of measurement and abbreviations with special emphasis on the way they are spelled in Czech.

Linguistic and extra-linguistic competences come in contact also when dealing with terminological polysemy and homonymy across different fields. An exercise may employ terms like *driver*, *charger*, *washer*, *head*, *net* in different contexts. The task may be to supply relevant translation equivalents and trace the motivation in both the source and the target languages. On the sentence level, an exercise may ask students to decide whether reduced clauses similar to those in the following example introduce circumstances (temporal, causal, conditional, concessive, etc.):

- (23) (a) *With the machine off and parked on level ground, chock the wheels.*
(b) *Mowed with care, the lawn remains green at all times.*

5. Conclusion

The aim of this article was to confront the problem of translation curricula with a particular focus on the acquisition of translation competence. We believe it is essential to balance the general and theoretical on one hand with the particular and specific on the other. The classroom should be a learning-friendly environment, with the teacher providing students with authentic language data and clear and unambiguous instructions. Translation trainees need to be taught, not just presented with information. To illustrate our “hands-on” approach to teaching we chose the phenomenon of condensation in user guides, taking a contrastive view of typologically different languages, English and Czech.

Condensed texts are difficult to decipher and consequently to translate. Translating them involves complex considerations as well as a good knowledge of the subject. With that taken into account, we proposed three important competences (linguistic, text and extra-linguistic) that should be given special prominence in translation curricula. Linguistic competence develops language proficiency, including an awareness of typological and systemic differences be-

tween English and Czech. The next competence is focused on the norms and conventions related to a particular text type to produce effective and functional texts. Extra-linguistic competence develops the ability to master the domain of a particular field, such as technology or business. It is important to emphasize that all three competences operate in a mutual interplay. To put it differently, with the help of a metaphor used by Enkvist (1987, 211), they “do not relate like slices of a pie but rather like Russian dolls or Chinese boxes”.

For students to develop the above-mentioned competences we suggested a wide range of specifically designed activities. Equipped with a bulk of experience of already solved problems, students will be more ready to tackle similar issues in the future. Moreover, they will develop self-confidence and independence in decision-making while keeping a distance from the formal level of the source text, which should help them avoid negative language interference.

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Activating Student Autonomy in Translation Training: In-Class and Online

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ABSTRACT: The paper presents three different methods used at the Department of English and American Studies (Faculty of Arts, Masaryk University) to stimulate – at three different levels – student initiative and autonomy in improving their translation skills. The first is a course template relying on students’ emerging expertise in their anticipated translation specializations and putting them into the role of translation assigners and primary feedback providers. Secondly, at the level of individual lessons, students’ learning can be activated by giving them more autonomy through control over the discussion before redrafting their translations. And thirdly, to help students’ learning outside the classroom, a set of “annotated texts” for individual practice was created in response to their demand for more feedback on their translations. The individual sections of the online training room are based on sets of translations by translation trainees and the material is meant to be revealed step by step.

KEYWORDS: translation; training; learning; autonomy; interactive texts; online; course; feedback

1. Introduction

The present paper sets out to suggest several tips for creating, in translation training, learning situations that give students more autonomy than conventional translation training scenarios might do, in both classroom and online settings, focusing on an applied rather than theoretical approach. These learning formats have been tested and found to produce positive results at the Department of English and American Studies, Faculty of Arts, Masaryk University. The underlying belief, echoing Kiraly (2000), is that translation training should, even where it cannot be fully authentic due to real-life limitations, aim at the active, internally motivated involvement of students in experiential learning in social situations “where students at the periphery of the translation community are gradually drawn into the community’s discourse” (Kiraly 2000, 69). The ultimate aim is, of course, to propel them towards becoming “competent, full-fledged members of the community” (*ibid.*), but as other researchers have noted, full professionalization is a long-term process. Process research in translation therefore usually requires subjects with the status of professionals to have a substantial number of years of experience – cf. five years in research by PACTE Group (2005 and subsequent publications), up to ten years

for junior and above ten for senior professionals in Englund Dimitrova (2005, 76–77) or ten years in Göpferich and Jääskeläinen (2009). As all teachers and students of translation know, becoming a translation professional also requires a lot of exposure to typical and less typical translation tasks and can be supported by activities throwing new light on standard translation situations. The present paper seeks to offer tips for making translation training more varied, efficient and tailored to students' needs in both respects.

2. Translation Potpourri: An Innovative Course Design

The course called “Translation Potpourri” was taught as an optional course with 13 participants in the Master’s English-language Translation programme in Spring 2010/2011. The original idea goes back to an even older course taught by Simona Javůrková to Bachelor’s degree students who expressed interest in learning more about translation after completing the compulsory Introduction to Translation course. While Javůrková’s original course exposed these students to a field new to them, providing them with scope to explore the different problems a student of translation can encounter vis-à-vis a variety of texts, the Translation Potpourri course in the master’s translation programme relies on students’ translation experience and emerging expertise in their anticipated translation specializations, putting them into the role of translation assigners and primary feedback providers while the teacher acts as a course supervisor and a secondary support.

The course as a whole can be broken down into three stages, each of which creates opportunities of its own for the students to acquire specific translation and translator competencies somewhat different from what a traditional teacher-centred scenario can offer.

In the **text selection stage**, the participants were asked to propose a text from the domain of their emerging expertise – a domain in which they had most translation experience and which they felt could be of interest to peer translation trainees. Their task included determining the scope of the translation task (specifying text extracts to be translated) and providing assignment instructions and support materials – if any – to be used by their colleagues. This not only made the students reflect on their potential future translation specialization in much more specific terms than other tasks may have induced them to; it also encouraged them to think about stimulating translation problems potentially offered by the domain and the text. The students’ preliminary choice of texts and sections thereof to be assigned was subjected to teacher approval, with the aim of generating a variety of realistic translation tasks.

The main body of the course consisted of a **series of translation sessions** – student-run classes whose agenda was based on the proposed texts. Apart from

the shift of the control over the class towards the individual students responsible for the sessions, with the teacher mainly providing the scaffolding (Kiraly 2000), the class format remained rather traditional: the class participants submitted their translations in advance through the Moodle-based e-learning platform so that the student in charge could prepare for feedback delivery and ensuing discussion in class. The students took turns playing the role where they were responsible for selecting translation issues in need of highlighting, for justifying translation solutions preferred by them and providing evidence in support of their feedback – all this in a much more consistent manner than a conventional translation class might require and at the same time managing the interpersonal level of feedback delivery.

The hoped-for variety of domains and text types which arose spontaneously and was dealt with in the course is outlined in the following list:

- Technical manual (camera)
- Cooking recipes
- PC game localization
- Visual arts – exhibition description
- Sociology of gender – book review
- Economics – essay (The Economist)
- Company culture statement
- Strategic plan (Amnesty International)
- Medical research article
- Academic article on animal rights
- Report on law and politics in Northern Ireland
- Sitcom subtitles
- Experimental literary text

While the main body of the course centred around student-created content, the **evaluation component of the course**, it was felt, required more teacher input; taking all power from the students was rejected as demotivating. The challenge of integrating these two perspectives was to create a two-tier evaluation formula; the students were informed of its structure at the beginning of the course. Firstly, 80% of the students' course grade was based on two teacher-evaluated translations, and secondly, 20% of the grade was assigned for a final course report. With a view to the first assessment component, the students were asked to divide their own translation tasks – by then completed and subjected to discussion – into three groups: those they specifically wanted to be evaluated, those they felt neutral about, and those they did *not* want to be evaluated. Each student then received a mark for two translations: one from the preferred category (48%) and the other from the neutral category (32%). The hope was that this

might simulate the job offer variety students might face upon entering the job market after graduation: they would need to define the area where they would translate with confidence as well as translation jobs neutral to them, and jobs they would decline – another practical task a conventional course design may fail to offer. They were thus asked to come up with this implicit self-assessment, whose accuracy had an impact on their course evaluation.

The instructions for writing the final course report were intentionally very general: the students were asked to revisit the feedback notes and summarize what they had learned in the course in a text of at least 2.5 pages, using a format or structure most useful to them. The reports seemed to reflect genuine interest and included combinations of general comments, glossaries, excerpts of feedback and feedback summaries, comments on one's own and colleagues' performance as evaluators, reflections on links between theory and practice as well as accounts of retrospective disagreement. The free format of the final report seemed to work very well and was found worth implementing in other courses.

Students' performance in the role of text assigners, class moderators and feedback providers was not addressed by the course grade (being rather difficult to assess); however, because the students – understandably – regarded this as their important role in the course, their last task was to answer several related questions in an anonymous e-learning feedback questionnaire:

- Indicate 3 translations whose inclusion you appreciated in terms of **variety**;
- Please select 3 translations which you feel you **learned the most** doing;
- Please select 3 texts whose **feedback** you would like to give credit to;
- Please select 3 class **presentations** you considered the best;
- Select 3 texts you **most enjoyed translating** (for whatever reasons).

Overall, the course was characterized by a high level of student enthusiasm and involvement, which was also reflected in the final course evaluations.

3. Give-and-Take Session: An Innovative Class Design

On the level of individual classes, our experience has yielded another tip for an innovative teaching design putting students into a more active and empowering role. It resulted from a spontaneous attempt to take the translation discussion in a practical seminar “outside the box”. The opportunity offered itself when the translation of a particular text proved to be more difficult for the students than expected, with the result that the submitted translations seemed more drafts than finished translation products. The classic *Translate – Submit – Evaluate* model was then replaced by a new one, with double submission phase bracket-

ing discussion and translation self-revision, becoming thus *Translate – Submit – Discuss – Revise – Submit – Evaluate*.

The text in question was a specialized text in meteorology, namely a one-page entry from an online encyclopaedia of winds.¹ Its challenges included terminology, handling of regional toponyms, various issues on the referential level, the choice of an appropriate register to fit the assumed audience design, and dealing with the high information load while doing justice to the text's stylistics.

The insertion of the core phases (in both meanings of the word) involved relegating the teacher temporarily to the role of an observer, with the benefit of engaging students in a focused discussion. At the beginning of the class, they were presented with an overview of the submitted translations by paragraphs to read through. The initial scaffolding provided by the teacher included pointing out the strengths of individual students based on their previous translations for the course and the teacher's preview of the submissions, the purpose of which was to encourage students to offer their insights. Primary responsibility for text sections was assigned to groups of students, but they were told everybody could contribute throughout the discussion, which they were fully in charge of. The aim, they were told, was to create a pool of insights about difficulties of the text and ways of approaching them, to voice the important questions about relevant translation issues and see what answers to them others can come up with – in order to revise their translations individually after the class as well as they could. The teacher would monitor the discussion and the feedback to be provided in the following lesson would concern both the revised translations and the discussion. After an initial hesitation, the exchange of ideas took off and the task propelled the class into some sixty minutes of lively discussion.

Far from being a panacea to fatigue from translation classes, in this case, the class design has helped to maintain a high level of involvement and motivation throughout what would otherwise be a painstaking process of responding to negative feedback in which students might feel reduced to incompetence. We can recommend it for occasional use with rather demanding translation tasks.

4. Wiki-Materials: An Online Training Room

When teaching translation courses of various types, we realized that we were not able to provide our students with as much detailed feedback as we – and

¹ Weather Online, Wind of the World. 2012. "Helm Wind." Accessed February 29. <http://www.weatheronline.co.nz/reports/wind/The-Helm-Wind.htm>.

they – would like. In this section, we will briefly describe our response to this need – *Materials to support teaching English-Czech translation*.²

The materials fall into two main types: (1) self-study materials developed by the teachers and a team of students to support individual study, (2) ad-hoc pages developed within specific courses that required online cooperation of students, e.g. team projects. In the following, only the former category will be discussed.

As for technology, we opted for a simple solution: we initiated a Faculty-wide installation of Media Wiki, a tool well known to the public thanks to the Wikipedia project. It is not the purpose of this article to go into technicalities;³ suffice it to say that Wiki turned out to be an excellent choice not only for cooperative student activities – where its natural strength lies – but also in creating hypertext materials by a limited group of authors: it spared us the necessity to develop a dedicated software environment, so that the team was able to feed the materials into the system from the very outset of the project.

4.1 Annotated Interactive Texts

This category includes 10 texts with an average length of 910 words. Each teaching text was based on an original, translations of it by 15–25 students,⁴ and comments on selected translations (usually 5–7 translations for each sentence) and on the original.⁵ These are organized in a hierarchical structure; users can browse them freely, but the recommended – rather time-consuming – procedure involves four steps. What follows here is an English paraphrase of the instructions (the original instructions are in Czech), with each step demonstrated on one sample sentence from one of the texts:

I. Select an original you want to work with, read its *plain text* and produce your own complete translation.

Sample sentence:

James Baldwin Brown, a leading Congregationalist minister, tried in *First Principles of Ecclesiastical Truth* (1871) to measure ‘the revolution of our times’.

² The first batch of the materials was created within the framework of the Development Project RP2008/58/3c, aimed at supporting multi-media teaching aids at Masaryk University. All teachers of translation provided texts and feedback; the student team working on the project was managed by Simona Javůrková.

³ Wiki is a public-domain software environment for collaborate creation and maintenance of contents; more on its features and its use in teaching can be found in Rambousek (2009).

⁴ The translations were accumulated between 2006 and 2008 as examination translations by students of various translation courses, chiefly at the Bachelor degree level.

⁵ The comments were produced partly by teachers during correcting the translations and providing feedback to the students, and partly suggested by a group of advanced students on preparing the materials for online posting.

II. Open the *annotated copy* of the same text, and click on the underlined hypertext expressions; these links offer a brief comment on problematic terminology and other potential pitfalls.

The sample sentence looks like this in the annotated copy:

James Baldwin Brown, a leading Congregationalist minister, tried in First Principles of Ecclesiastical Truth (1871) to measure 'the revolution of our times'. ▢

The hypertext links (printed as underlined in our example; the information displayed after clicking on them is not included here) represent, in fact, the information a translator should look up before translating; the students can compare these with what they have searched for.

III. Take sentence after sentence, clicking on the special character (▢) following each of them; this opens a selection of representative / typical renderings from the translations by 15–20 students in the past.

The selected translations displayed for the above sample sentence are as follows:

- (1) James Baldwin Brown, v čele náboženského hnutí Independentů [Note], se pokusil ve své knize „First Principles of Ecclesiastical Truth“ (1871) posoudit probíhající „revoluční dobu“. [Note] větev puritánů, nevěřili v autoritu církve a státu, volili si své vlastní ministry, kteří stáli v čele a jejich post nebyl časově omezen.
- (2) James Baldwin Brown, přední kongregacionalistický ministr, se tuto zmíněnou „revoluci naší doby“ ve svém díle Základní myšlenky duchovní pravdy z roku 1871 pokusil posoudit:
- (3) Přední představitel presbyteriánské církve James Baldwin Brown se v Základech církevní pravdy (1871) pokusil popsat „revoluci naší doby“.
- (4) James Baldwin Brown, významný duchovní kongregacionalistické církve, se snažil ve svém díle První principy církevní pravdy (First Principles of Ecclesiastical Truth) zhodnotit „revoluci naší doby“.
- (5) Jako první se pokusil posoudit „revoluci naší doby“ kazatel a přední zastánce kongregacionalismu James Baldwin Brown ve své knize „První zásady církevní pravdy“ (1871).

Comments

IV. Read the translations of the sentence carefully, looking for mistakes and good renderings; compare them to your own version. Only then click on the link *Comments* below them to see the comments on these solutions. Compare the comments to your own evaluation; you can write to the teachers to suggest changes and additions to the commentary, ask questions, etc.

The comments on the above translation are as follows:

- Minister: chybně verze 2, viz Congregationalist minister.
[Minister: wrong in version 2, see Congregationalist minister.]
- Viz poznámka k názvu díla: *First Principles of Ecclesiastical Truth* (chybně verze 5; ve verzi 1 by bylo vhodnější uvést český překlad, přinejmenším v závorce či poznámce).
[See note to the title: *First Principles of Ecclesiastical Truth* (wrong in version 5; in version 1, giving the Czech translation would be more appropriate, if only in parentheses or a footnote).]
- Poznámka pod čarou ve verzi 1 nemá náležitou formu a styl, zní spíše jako školní zápisky. Již samo doplnění „Independentů“ je však nadbytečné a nepřesné – pojem *kongregacionalismus* a jeho odvozeniny jsou v daném významu v češtině běžné (zná je i *Akademický slovník cizích slov*), a kromě toho hnutí Independents bývá spojováno především se staršími údobími.
[The footnote in version 1 is incorrect in form and style, rather resembling private school notes. The substitution “Independentů” itself is redundant and inaccurate – the term *kongregacionalismus* and its derivatives exist in Czech with the required meaning (they are found, for example, in *Akademický slovník cizích slov* [Academic Dictionary of Borrowings]), while the term *Independents* is usually connected with earlier periods of the movement.]
- Ve verzi 1 je zavádějící překlad *leading > v čele*, protože představa jednoho vůdce není slučitelná s ideou kongregacionalismu; překlady *čelný, přední* či i *vůdčí představitel* se již tomuto úskalí vyhnou.
[In version 1, the translation *leading > v čele* is misleading, the notion of one leader not being compatible with the idea of congregationalism; rendering them as *čelný, přední* and *vůdčí představitel* helps avoid this pitfall.]
- Kromě toho není přístavek ve verzi 1 správný syntakticky: buď musí jít o jmennou frázi („čelný představitel . . .“), nebo by bylo nutno přístavek rozšířit slovesem na vedlejší větu („který stál v čele . . .“).
[Besides, the apposition in (1) is not correct syntactically: it either has to be a noun phrase (“čelný představitel . . .“), or a verb must be added to change the apposition into a clause (“který stál v čele . . .“).]
- Z hlediska FSP jsou zdařilejší ty verze (2, 5), kde se *revolution of our times* nedostává do rematické pozice na konci věty – fakt, že docházelo k revolučním změnám, byl již několikrát zmíněn, nová informace je tedy to, kdo a kde se tyto změny pokusil popsat a zhodnotit. Kromě členění věty se dá koheze podpořit i použitím ukazovacího zájmena či např. výrazem „zmíněná“ (ne však obojím najednou jako ve verzi 2, dvojí odkaz k témuž referentu je neobratný).
[From the FSP point of view, the more successful renderings (2, 5) do not put *revolution of our times* in the rhematic position at the end of the sen-

tence – the revolutionary changes were mentioned several times before, and the new information is that about who and where tried to measure it. The cohesion can be – besides word order – also supported by a demonstrative pronoun or a word like “zmíněná” (but not both as in version 2: the double reference to the same referent is clumsy).]

- Není ani třeba zdůrazňovat paralelu mezi tímto citátem („the revolution of our times“) a názvem textu – měla by být samozřejmě zachována i v češtině. [Needless to say, the parallel between this quotation (“the revolution of our times“) and the title of the text should be noted and preserved.]

When appropriate, the comments make use of the hyperlinks created for step (2) above, like the two links in the first two comments. The FSP link in the fifth comment means “Functional Sentence Perspective” and it leads to a special page explaining the basics of this phenomenon; we link to this page from any sentence where a similar problem appears in a translation; this spares us the necessity to explain the same problem in many comments. Similar general pages are also available for other topics (collocations, cohesion, citation rules, dictionaries and other handbooks, punctuation, etc.).

This organization of the material is as close as we could get to real-life teacher feedback. As we can see, each single sentence leads the students – besides translating it themselves – to reading several translations by their peers from previous years, carefully selected to represent an even wider set of solutions. The pages offer material for many hours of independent work, and we believe they are a useful tool for self-improvement.

4.2 Other Interactive Texts

The Annotated Interactive Texts are not the only type of aid included in our *Materials to support teaching English-Czech translation*. There are also other texts that are based on students’ translations, but they are less unified in their layout than the aforementioned Annotated Interactive Texts. Some of them are based on a colour-coded system of feedback to students’ translations; some include commentaries written by the teacher as one common response to all translations; and some are translations evaluated by other students on peer-to-peer basis. Altogether there are 26 source texts in this category and over 70 students’ translations, plus commentaries by both teachers and students.

All of these types of interactive texts may be seen as good examples of how a corpus of learners’ translations can be used in translator training. The collecting of these translations began in 2004/2005 and is relatively easy thanks to the Learning Management System we use to support all our courses. However, a more sophisticated system for storing, describing and tagging this collection

needs to be introduced to facilitate the collection's long-term maintenance and application.

4.3 Terminological Glossaries

Terminological glossaries from various areas, compiled by students in courses and in diploma theses,⁶ represent another category of material; they include terms in English and Czech, documented by sentence-length passages from original texts in the respective languages. We found these glossaries very useful in training students to extract and collect terminology as part of their working method. Needless to say, the Wiki environment makes it easy for other students to gradually add material and improve the individual glossaries; a brief manual for this is included. To date, nineteen glossaries are available – some of them English-Slovak rather than English-Czech⁷ – from areas such as *construction*, *Cold War terms*, *physical mineralogy*, *Roman-Catholic liturgical terminology*, or *statistics*.

5. Final Remarks

In closing, we would like to emphasize that we see the most efficient use of these alternatives to classic training options as a complement to other translation training methods within translator training programmes. Our hope is that these methods will help students of translation make their learning more useful, efficient, and enjoyable.

⁶ The creation of all glossaries was supervised by Jarmila Fictumová.

⁷ Slovak students can choose to produce their glossaries in Slovak; this makes the activity more useful to them, and the closeness of Czech and Slovak makes it easy for teachers to check their work.

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Methodological Value of Self-Reflection in Translator Training. Student Empowerment

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ABSTRACT: The article investigates actual and potential applications of self-reflection as a methodological tool in translator training, and responds to the question of how translator training reflects the “creative turn” in translation studies. Research in the discipline has recently been dominated by social and strategic paradigms in which the category of strategy, a term somewhat ambiguously defined and subject to various taxonomies, has appeared prominently. One of the areas to be affected by the strategic impact is the methodology of teaching translation, which is realised dually: as professional translator training and as instruction towards academic degrees in the field of translation studies. The two models obviously follow two different research paths, and this article, focusing on the latter, addresses the issue of the translator decision-making process in translator training methodology and didactic practice. In this kind of pedagogical environment the key notion of self-reflection is considered. Self-reflective strategic training in authentic classroom settings is proposed, which brings to light its relevance for the aspect of student empowerment to be a possible teaching goal.

KEYWORDS: methodology; strategic translating; student empowerment; self-reflection; strategy; translation research; translator training

1. Introduction

A few general remarks on the most pertinent issues in translation studies (TS) research need to be given in order to initiate and properly contextualise the discussion on self-reflection in translator training (TT) with special focus on student empowerment. Obviously, no exhaustive or in-depth presentation is possible within the scope of this paper; however, adequate location of the presented phenomena in their research and teaching context is a well-motivated introduction into the topic.

The article aims to offer some insight into the self-reflective stance on translation and to contribute modestly to the critical debate on one of the key issues in the methodology for teaching translation. Interrogating the usefulness of self-reflection in translator education should bring forth some valuable conceptual implications for TT on the contemporary translation services market and within the framework of European Higher Education Area (EHEA) which emerged after the Bologna agreement was signed in 1999 by several European

countries with reference to their educational systems and diploma and course transfer possibilities (EHEA 2012).

The explosive growth of TS at the turn of the millennium has produced a proliferation of theoretical paradigms, research areas and types. Translation scholars inevitably encounter a variety of approaches, theories and methodologies, sometimes dramatically divergent within the field of TS, which is stereotypically labelled an interdisciplinary, an eclectic field of study and a heterogeneous humanistic branch of knowledge. Such a variety poses many problems with respect to the discipline's reliability and consistency, and yet thanks to it, translation investigations never cease to offer new challenges and new opportunities for fascinating discoveries. Hence, new research initiatives are started and new projects are undertaken, which enriches the field and expands its boundaries.

The globalization of communication and business, growing interdisciplinarity supported by synergic trends in the humanities, and new scientific developments have all had their impact on the nature and structure of research in general, and translation research in particular.

There have been several acknowledged shifts in translation research. From linguistic, textual, contextual and cultural paradigms, translation studies have become more focused on process analysis. Recent developments are characterised by a transition from written to multimodal translation forms. Interpreting research, a parallel to translation research, has recently been joined by studies into audiovisual media, virtual texts and other new forms. One of the contemporary turns, too recent to have yet gained any ontological status, bearing the name of 'the creative turn', has centred around personal aspects of translation, the central role of the translator in the translation process and such capabilities and competences that may go beyond strictly linguistic, textual or cultural boundaries. New process studies enquire into cognition, knowledge, expertise, as well as motivation and other psycholinguistic aspects of understanding, remembering and learning.

New forms of research are followed by modernised dimensions in teaching, and new vital areas of training are created in response to professional developments and the expansion of various types of translation activity, such as public service interpreting. "Community interpreters" work in the areas of health, law, education, housing and other fields. This is a new branch of the profession, rapidly developing thanks to people's increasing mobility, and requiring attention especially in countries in which multiculturalism contributes greatly to the society's character and development. Meeting the needs for linguistic assistance is urgent in such societies, in order to eradicate any disadvantageous treatment of immigrants and to guarantee access to educational and other life opportunities. Community interpreting, of course, is merely one example of

many translation work environments that inspire applied translation research, and consequently lead to new avenues of theoretical thinking, the creation of new models and theoretical paradigms.

2. Consideration of Duality in Translator Training

Within a large spectrum of modern research types, research on TT has emerged as one of the applied sub-branches of TS. It has undergone considerable changes in its profile and basic assumptions. It has greatly expanded from “read and translate” didactic instruction, incorporating feedback from linguistics, FLT methodology and other disciplines to build its own methodology with specific classroom procedures, teaching methods and materials (cf. Kiraly 2000; Kelly 2005; Colina 2003).

Contemporary translator education in the framework of EHEA is characterised by universalism, credit systems, compatibility of curricula and programmes, transferable skills and the recommendations of Directorate-General for Translation¹ (DGT 2012). In the macro European environment, particular local education markets possess their own peculiar features. It might be argued whether there is anything specific about local educational markets, e.g. is there any reason for identifying a specifically Polish methodology for TT? Is there a specific Polish context that is distinct from general European (Western / Eastern, English / German / Spanish) methodology for TT? How universal are or should be TT programmes and curricula? The dilemmas of local vs. European or global TT methodologies are in a continual process of negotiation.

To consider briefly a local academic arena, let us comment on institutional regulations in Poland concerning TS and TT. Formally, TS specialisation is not considered within academia in Poland. University degrees are conferred in applied linguistics or literary studies. Although there is a proliferation of translation modules in various teaching frameworks, the academic status of TS (e.g. no PhD in TS in Poland as of today) is not acknowledged. BA and MA papers on translation subjects are written in rising numbers, more and more students receive some kind of translation education, and yet formally TS does not appear as an autonomous discipline on the list of humanities disciplines of the Ministry of Science and Higher Education in Poland (2012). Such clashes between the authentic existence of academic translation and its lack of formal identity certainly do not contribute to the growth of TS.

One of the characteristics of contemporary TS is its professionalization. Various international and global businesses need translation services, and

¹ Directorate-General for Translation is a body of the European Commission dealing specifically with issues of translator education, such as programmes, qualifications, quality assurance, etc.

that is why professional training, sometimes in very specific domains, is offered by schools for translators. Universities, on the other hand, looking at hindrances with some consideration, are more and more interested in TT at graduate and even post-graduate levels. Translation specialisation is geared towards academic degrees, and besides educating language specialists, with traditional philological departments being frequent birthplaces of modern translation education, another aspect of translation teaching is its focus on research.

In profiling TT, two lines of methodology have evolved (cf. Piotrowska 2005):

- training in response to the demands of the contemporary translation services market;
- educating in response to growing TS research.

To summarise, translation education is realised dually: as professional translator training and as instruction towards academic degrees in the field of TS. The two models obviously follow two different research paths, and this paper, focusing on the latter, addresses the issue of the translator decision-making process in TT methodology and didactic practice.

Due to the professionalization of the discipline and vocational aspects occurring in TT, recently there seem to have appeared some components in teaching aiming to bridge the gap between traditional course content and career. Vocational components of curricula cover marketing and project management, translation work in authentic workplaces, commercial aspects, certified translation, worktools and others. In 2006, in an unpublished doctoral dissertation, John Kearns – commenting on Polish TT – wondered: “I was interested to know whether a degree of vocationality . . . could be introduced into an education system that occasionally (albeit to me as an outsider) seemed ossified in a tradition of rational humanism” (Kearns 2006, 15).

Responding to the dynamic shifts in approaches to translator education, the professional translator of tomorrow seems not to be a language specialist and all-round expert, but a competent professional with specific areas of expertise. However, entering into a meaningful debate on competences and expertise would undoubtedly be a diversion from the main conceptual thread of this article.

Considering important issues in translator pedagogy, the key ideas can merely be introduced as the key doubts which concern the following aspects:

- implications of the educational environment for the educational profile;
- considerations of the uniqueness of the educational environment within a larger frame of reference and creating or maintaining a settled practice;
- the meaning of self-reflection as a TS notion.

“The present situation is a midway stage in a continuum of change, and the profession is responding to the pressures of contemporary social needs” (Corsellis 2005, 154).

3. Self-Reflection

In the move from constructivism to empowerment (Kiraly 2000), a reversal of the teacher-centred position in TT methodology has taken place. Modern translation process-focused analyses in which cognition is investigated have discovered the importance of inquiring into oneself and one’s own thought processes. Observing, contemplating and exploring the feedback coming from one’s own translation work are mental activities that translators have engaged in for centuries and explicitly verbalised as meta-texts and para-texts accompanying translations and constituting valuable material for study. A linguistic inventory of terms related to self-reflection contains numerous lexemes and can be illustrated with the following: SELF-CONTEMPLATION, SELF-EXAMINATION, SELF-OBSERVATION, SELF-QUESTIONING, SELF-SCRUTINY, SELF-ANALYSIS, SELF-AWARENESS, SELF-CONSCIOUSNESS, SELF-RECOGNITION, INTROVERSION, SELF-INVOLVEMENT, SELF-ACTUALIZATION, SELF-EXPLORATION, SELF-KNOWLEDGE, SELF-CONCEPT, SELF-IMAGE, SELF-PERCEPTION.²

The key concept is also linked with self-esteem, self-efficacy, translation motivation, extroversion / introversion, externalisation, translation quality, human critical reflection, introspection, metacognition / metareasoning and thinking aloud (TAPs in TS). The wide scope of the semantic field in which self-reflection is localised carries the risk of ambiguity and obscurity of meaning intentions. Blurred boundaries between particular interconnected verbalisations on self-reflection signal a certain obscurity of the term. A question arises which of its cognitive aspects and psychological features and scopes are actually covered.

For the purposes of this analysis, the designations of self-reflection as a theoretical concept or terminological reference are abandoned; the main consideration is of its applications in TT methodology. The investigation focuses on whether actual and potential applications of self-reflection as a methodological tool in TT and its implementation in dynamic, socio-constructive teaching methodologies and strategic translating is symptomatic of the “creative turn” in TS.

The origins of the concept are in cognitive and educational psychology for teachers, from where it was transplanted onto the ground of psychology for translators and subsequently to psychology for translation trainers. The con-

² Taken from Merriam-Webster online dictionary. Accessed March 12, 2012. <http://www.merriam-webster.com>.

structivist foundations of self-reflection in FLT contributed to the image of the teacher as a reflective practitioner. Perceived as a critical skill in personal development, it may be useful both in the authentic or virtual translation classroom, as well as benefiting the individual professional growth of a translator outside of any educational framework.

A reflective approach to language teaching pedagogy has emerged relatively recently, with great emphasis put on experiential expertise. Such an applied science approach and vocational orientation highlights the reciprocal relation between received and experiential knowledge. TT pedagogy has lagged behind FLT methodology in emphasizing a student-centred approach and experiential expertise where reflection features prominently.

The craft model of a trainee imitating his master – the teacher-translator – is no longer valid in recent reflective pedagogical approaches. Reflective learning occurs when students gain and reinforce their own insights by analysing their own work. In a profession like translation, this is a key to flexibility and personal growth. Developing a self-reflective stance means exploring new dimensions of understanding and awareness of one's reasoning, strategic translating, intuitions and rational processes. Abstract thinking and acting in texts and through texts are subdued to one's own analytical thinking and evaluating.

It is generally argued in European pedagogy that critical self-reflection enhances personal growth, for which merely experiencing something is not enough. Reflecting on experiences, and coming to grips with intellectual fusions and psychological tensions that may occur during translation processes, is what makes self-reflection valuable in the context of translation.

Nowadays, many disciplines use elements of reflection in didactic implementations. Students and researchers self-reflect and study reflective accounts which are written reports on thoughts and considerations emerging during or on a given process. This supposedly leads to improvements in motivation, the skill of critical thinking and generally the development of professional abilities.

There is a strong personal tone in reflective accounts as they bring insight into the individual's motivated choices, preferences, decisions and ideas. The reflecting agent gives his or her personal view on investigated matters, commenting on reactions and opinions about those reactions. These comments and considerations may, in turn, affect future translation choices and decision.

The organisation of the reflective report, with circular phases of the statement of activity, its description, evaluation of one's own performance, reconsideration of knowledge used in practice and a translator's reactions and finally future input, are provided in Gillett, Hammond, and Martala-Lockett's (2009) model (see Figure 1).

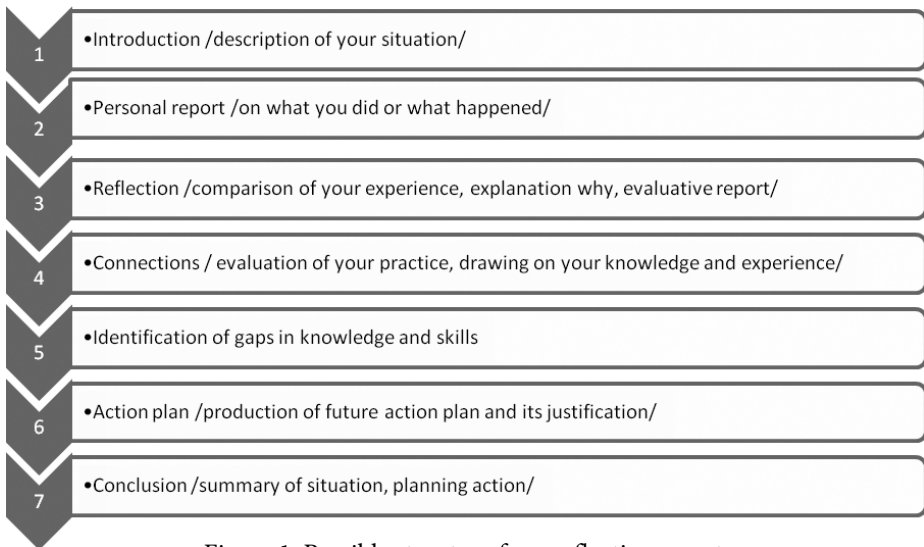


Figure 1: Possible structure for a reflective report.
Adapted from Gillett, Hammond, and Martala-Lockett (2009, 237).

The main purpose of reflective thinking is to learn from practice and that is why the interface between practical and more abstract, theoretical thinking is essential. Reflection then gives reason to the link between what we learn theoretically and how this theoretical knowledge can be implemented in action. Reflective, in this way, also becomes reflexive – mutually interlinking the theory and practice of translation. By reflecting on what and how the translators did something right or wrong, they can make observations, draw conclusions, and consequently, improve their future actions.

Implementing the self-reflective component into actual translation practice may be done:

- concurrently – which means that reflection occurs as a given translation task is being carried out (reflection-in-action). Amendments and corrections are still possible as they follow immediately from observation and understanding;
- retrospectively – which means that reflection occurs after the task was completed (reflection-on-action).

Questions that can be self-addressed during both processes are:

In reflection-on-action:

- What happened?
- What did I do well so that the target text functions adequately in the target language?

- What procedures can be implemented to make my translation better?
- Where / what were the problematic issues and how can I prepare for tackling them next time?
- Where is there room for my improvement?
- What general observations at the strategic level can I draw from this translation task?

In reflection-in-action:

- Is there anything I can improve now?
- Is the message getting across properly?
- Are the procedures implemented suitable for the task?

More holistic thinking as a result of self-reflective sessions aids translators in acquiring better awareness of their abilities and weaknesses. Such an increased level of self-awareness is particularly valuable for professional advancement. Challenging stereotypical comprehension tracks may contribute to a higher level of error avoidance, and consequently better performance and effectiveness. Reflection is an established translation methodology and some self-reflective practices have been investigated using Think-Aloud Protocols, a method of enquiring into the translator's "black box" largely developed in the last two decades of the 20th century. Self-reflection, apart from being present in translator self-training, is also a strong element in contemporary translator trainer education.

Several reflective modes may be used: personal logs, diaries, journaling, or self-reflective accounts in the form of recording one's own insight or critical comments on the solutions of translation problems, procedural use, and the strategic impact of one's own decisions. Such practice helps us notice some patterns and regularities. We learn to observe what kinds of translator behaviour seem to be more productive than others. Training in self-reflection is a path from doing and noticing, through inferring and understanding to making positive generalisations and drawing conclusions. A self-reflective attitude may both assist in particular translation jobs and be helpful in choosing the right career by determining one's psychological profile. What is valuable is the personal view, learning from experience and critical evaluation of received authentic feedback.

3. Strategic Translating

Research in the discipline has recently been dominated by social and strategic paradigms in which the category of strategy, a term somewhat ambiguously defined and subject to various taxonomies has appeared prominently. One of the areas to be affected by the strategic impact is the methodology for TT, where

considerations of a more general character about how to conduct self-reflective strategic training in authentic classroom settings can be provided (e.g. Piotrowska 1998). Such considerations bring forth interesting observations on the dynamics of TS in general, the pace of socially constructed methodological change in TT (specifically signalling a tremendous growth of TT educational environments), greatly increased awareness of translation problems and the culture-formative role of translation.

Chesterman (2005) formulated four types of problems connected with the notion of strategy:

- terminological;
- conceptual;
- classification;
- pedagogical.

Avoiding any attempt at systematizing the terminological dispersion of strategic language, for didactic purposes, a simplified, two-level model has been applied, with strategy denoting global decisions and techniques, and procedures denoting local ones. The strategy is a global purpose- and context-oriented approach used by the translator in order to make the ST–TT transfer; the translator's policy (comprehensive and adequate method) adopted for a message transfer in a translation assignment. Procedures are particular problem solutions, techniques which the translator uses when dealing with translation problems in the process of rendering a message in a translation assignment. Such a clear-cut and transparent delineation helps at the level of acquiring a better understanding of what translation assignments mean, and how implementing conscious strategies and procedures adequate for doing those assignments, through direct verbalisation and open discussion, may serve educational ends of sensitising translator trainers to specific problem situations and making them generally more aware of what solutions work better than others.

Thus, strategic translating refers to the decision-making process that the translator is engaged in, in any act of communicating across language barriers with rational use of translation solutions to problems. Self-reflection is naturally present in these decision-making processes.

4. Conclusion – Empowering Students with the Meta-Cognitive Skill of Self-Reflection

Empowerment, the notion proposed by Kiraly (2000) in his social constructivist approach to translation pedagogy, means maximising the strengths of learners. It also carries an element of flexibility and potential to adjust and adapt to new learning needs and objectives. Just as translator educators widely voice the

need to teach the instrumental skill of openness to technological tools and innovations rather than advocating expertise in any one specific CAT tool, for example, adaptability and willingness to self-educate on a permanent basis in the translating professions are inherent professional motives which are “increasingly complex and disperse in recent years” (Kelly 2005, 24). In this kind of empowerment, self-reflection is definitely well-located.

Training should cover a comprehensive repertoire of skills and abilities needed for translators. Comprehensive training programmes, being not a very realistic option, can be supported by programmes in which mobility and flexibility skills are trained. What is of crucial importance in TT, especially at elementary stages of training, is the development of strategic competence, which is to be recognised as a necessary component of translator competence. Familiarising trainees with the existing frameworks of procedures, acquainting them with conscientious use of available techniques, is part of elementary training. Since translation practice is various – the kind of translation we do depends on a myriad of variables – the translation skills we teach our students must be flexible. . . . They should know how to be flexible in their translation style, to assess the translation situation, and to look at all the pragmatic variables of the commission and adapt their translations accordingly. They need to know how to produce the best translation possible for a particular client, for a particular time, and for a particular need. Our translation pedagogy has to merge the pragmatics of translation with the psychology of translation. If we have to teach flexibility in translation, we need to understand how professional translators adjust and adapt their skills to meet the demands of a job; this implies that we have to understand how the cognitive skills and processes of translation intersect with the pragmatic knowledge that encloses the source text, the act of translation, and the target text-to-be. (Shreve in Kiraly 1995, xiv)

What methodological value of self-reflection are we talking about? Is there any impact of self-reflection on translation action and product quality? It appears that a more involved, responsible and holistic approach to a translation assignment (constructed as a didactic activity in the translation classroom) causes a more conscientious identification of translation problems and prediction of the outcomes of using procedures. In general, by confronting our failures and achievements as translation students, we develop better awareness, and by being more flexible and developing a self-reflective stance, we become empowered with meta-cognitive skills. Thus, self-reflection serves self-educating purposes and is an important factor in the student-empowering process. That is why its role should be properly acknowledged.

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New Trends in Training Would-be Translators and Interpreters in the Light of Current Market Demands

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ABSTRACT: The present paper discusses the development of translation and interpreting training programmes in Slovakia and tackles the problems of harmonisation in training would-be translators and interpreters. It concentrates on the translation and interpreting study programmes at Constantine the Philosopher University in Nitra and presents their objectives and structure. The paper also focuses on the practical aspects of Master's degree study programmes placing emphasis on the employability of graduates as one of the criteria of the quality of training.

KEYWORDS: translation and interpreting training; market demands; MA study programmes; employability

1. Introduction

Slovakia has a long tradition of translation training and well-established training programmes traditionally oriented towards literary translation. This trend was based on traditional research activities in literary translation (the Nitra School) reflecting the needs of the Slovak translation market before the political and economic changes in 1989.

As the European Union is a major employer of translators and an important player in the European translation market, it is important for Slovakia to develop translation and interpreting training programmes producing highly-qualified graduates who are able to meet the requirements of the current translation market in Europe and elsewhere. That is why the translation and interpreting study programmes of Slovak universities (there are five of them so far offering this kind of training) need to be harmonised with the latest trends in professionally-oriented translator and interpreter training.

2. Translator and Interpreter Training in Slovakia

Translator and interpreter training in Slovakia goes back to the late 1960s when a branch of the University of 17th November in Prague was opened in Bratislava, Slovakia. The university, among other specialisations, also trained would-be translators and interpreters. In 1973, the university was closed as

a consequence of the political “normalisation” that followed the Prague Spring of 1968. In 1974 the students and teachers of translation and interpreting moved to the Comenius University, Faculty of Arts, Bratislava. Up to the 1990s, Comenius University in Bratislava was the only higher-education institution in Slovakia training translators and interpreters. Professor Rakšányiová, who remembers the beginnings of this field of study in Slovakia, considers the conception of these study subjects to have been “well prepared and acceptable from the viewpoint of their use in practice” (2009, 64). According to her, that is why “the conception of these study subjects has not changed in principle from the beginning” (*ibid.*).

After the political and economic changes in the 1990s, translation and interpreting also began to be studied at other universities in Slovakia (Matej Bel University in Banská Bystrica, Constantine the Philosopher University in Nitra, Prešov University in Prešov and recently Šafarik University in Košice). The study programmes of all Slovak higher-education institutions oriented towards translating and interpreting follow a new law: the Higher-Education Institutions of the Slovak Republic Act introduced in 2005. The law reflects the Bologna Accords between EU countries. Slovak universities have accepted a structure based around a three-year Bachelor, two-year Master, and three-year doctoral degree as well as the European Credit Transfer System (ECTS). In addition, all the study programmes are obliged to follow the Contents Standards (so-called “study cores”) approved by the Ministry of Education, containing subjects both in translation and interpreting.

Market demands show that Slovakia needs more and more qualified translators and interpreters able to work for commercial institutions, banks, EU institutions, and international organisations. Compared to the previous period before 1989, there has been a change in the range of text-types to be translated and the languages used. Moreover, translation has become more and more affected by technological progress and the development of computer assisted translation (CAT) tools. It comes as no surprise that translator and interpreter training for present and future markets has had to take account of these changes.

At present, complex market-oriented translator training should cover the following areas of study:

1. language preparation in language A and language B and C;
2. preparation in market-oriented subject areas (economics, law, science, technologies);
3. preparation for using reference materials and technical aids (CAT tools);
4. translator’s and interpreter’s rights, liabilities, and status;
5. translation and interpreting practice (visiting practitioners, compulsory placements of students, internships).

These areas of study also reflect the documents of the European Master's in Translation (EMT) network project, which recommend universities to train students in the following competences (cf. European Commission 2010):

1. language competence;
2. thematic competence;
3. technological competence;
4. Information-mining competence;
5. intercultural competence;
6. translation service provision competence.

These requirements for translator training have also been taken into consideration in the translator training scheme at Constantine the Philosopher University in Nitra, which became a member of the EMT Network in 2011.

3. Presentation of the Programmes

The study programmes (both at Bachelor level and at Master's level) offered by the Faculty of Arts, Constantine the Philosopher University (CPU) in the field Translation and Interpreting by the Department of Translation Studies are provided to students majoring in English, German, Russian, French, and Slovak in combination of two of the above-mentioned languages both at Bachelor and Master's levels. The Faculty also has accreditation for a doctoral study programme in Translation Studies and it has the right to appoint associate professors and university professors in the field of translation and interpreting. The graduates of the three-year Bachelor study programme can apply for two-year Master's study programmes within the same field of study and study programme as those in which they graduated at Bachelor level. According to our statistical data, of three sets of Bachelor graduates, 90% of them went on to continue their studies at Master's level, which proves the interest of students in achieving a Master's degree in translation and interpreting studies and in being better prepared for current translation and interpreting market demand.

Although a Bachelor degree in translation and interpreting is a necessary preparation for the profession of translator and interpreter, in the next part of this article we will concentrate more on Master's degree studies because we consider this level to be vital for students seeking to become professional translators and/or interpreters.

3.1 The Objectives

The objectives of the Master's degree study programmes in translation and interpreting are to provide students with training that will ensure they find work

as professional translators and interpreters in a variety of professional contexts. These studies aim to enable students to develop knowledge, skills, abilities and cognitive skills (analytical skills and critical understanding of translation studies theories and concepts, substantial autonomy and ability to use information to support and substantiate claims), and subject specific skills (mastery of skills and techniques of translation and interpreting fulfilling professional standards, ability to use a range of CAT tools, critical awareness of ethical and professional issues in translation and interpreting relevant to cross-cultural communication). The students are awarded the title Master¹ after passing their final exams (theoretical and practical parts) and defending their diploma thesis.

3.2 The Structure

The structure of the Master's study programmes reflects the competences the professional translator and interpreter should acquire to become successful in the translation and interpreting market. Students are trained to acquire the knowledge and skills that will be important in their future careers. The study programme in combination with two of the languages mentioned above in Part 3 consists of two types of courses: (i) common core mandatory and optional courses for students of all combinations of languages (e.g. Social, Ethical and Legal Aspects of the Profession, Computer Assisted Translation Tools, Lexicography and Terminography, Text Editing) as well as Translation and Interpreting Practice (a minimum two-week internship in Slovakia or abroad); (ii) mandatory and optional courses in the languages the students study (translation and interpreting seminars focused on different types of texts (political, social and cultural, business and economic, legal, technical, etc.) that are held in labs equipped with computers and specialised software to simulate real situations, and in booths for simultaneous interpreting.

3.3 Practical Training

Practical training of students is provided in two ways: in-class (practical translation and interpreting seminars) and out-of-class (internships in translation agencies and non-governmental organisations and companies). Practical translation and interpreting seminars are planned for each semester (a semester lasts 13 weeks), with four lessons a week for each of the two studied languages (e.g. English and German). The topics of the texts translated or interpreted are relevant to the needs of the Slovak and international translation and interpreting market. To keep students in touch with the market, minimum two-week long internships in translation agencies, non-governmental organisations, or companies either in Slovakia or abroad are mandatory. The study programme takes

¹ In Slovakia, the title is abbreviated as Mgr.

account of market developments.² We have signed agreements of cooperation with the Association of Translation Companies of Slovakia (ATCSK) – a member of the European Union of Associations of Translation Companies (EUATC) and the Nitra Theatre Festival. Moreover, our students and teachers took part in two two-year Leonardo projects based on internships of students and teachers at Euroscript Hungary Ltd. based in Budapest (2007–2008).

In the practical training of students, we respect the peculiarities of Slovak market demands. The Slovak translation market is specific in its needs for translators of literary texts and audiovisual texts as well. That is why, as an option, students can choose literary and audiovisual text translation seminars. The results of the research of two doctoral theses (Mačura 2008; Djovčoš 2011) help us better reflect the market needs of Slovakia. Their research has, for example, shown that about half of the translations in translation agencies and companies are those into a foreign language, mostly English, and the texts translated are mostly technical in character.

Because the main objective of the Master's degree translation and interpreting study programmes is to prepare translators and interpreters for market demands, one of the important criteria in the selection procedure of teachers is their contact with translation and/or interpreting practice. That is why teachers of practical translation and interpreting courses are practitioners as well – either they translate or interpret for Slovak and/or international translation companies or they are official translators and/or interpreters. In addition, we employ part-time pure practitioners (having their own business in translation / interpreting) and managers of translation companies, and host visiting translators from the Directorate General for Translation of the European Commission. The teachers of practical courses are supposed to be constantly trained to improve their practical skills (CAT tools, international summer schools) to keep their practical skills and teaching methods in touch with the latest developments.

3.4 Employability

Employability is one of the vital criteria of the quality of a study programme. It is connected with careers guidance, courses in job searching, courses on setting up and running a business, relations with market actors and job / internship placements. To get our students closer to the market, we organise workshops with practitioners and market actors, i.e. representatives of translation agencies, European Commission's Directorate General for Translation (DGT) and Directorate General for Interpreting (SCIC), and send students out to do internships at translation agencies in Slovakia and abroad via Leonardo and Erasmus programmes. We regularly gather data on the employability of our

² We analyse job vacancies and recruitment criteria of Internet-advertised positions (e.g. www.profesia.sk), European institutions recruitment vacancies as well as vacancies in the press.

graduates. We have gathered the data from two sets of graduates (2008/2009, 2009/2010). The statistical data has shown that the job situation one year after graduation for graduates in 2008/2009 is as follows: employed – 74%, translation related – 62%; self-employed – 3%, out of which 100% are translation related; unemployed / job seeking – 11%, full-time education – 12% (doctoral students), out of which 75% are translation related. With 2009/2010 graduates, we have received the statistical data five months after graduation. The data has shown that there are 67% employed graduates, out of which 75% were in translation-related fields, self-employed – 0%, unemployed / job seeking – 33%, full-time education (doctoral studies) – 0%.

The respondents were employed in the following translation-related jobs: translator, interpreter, translation technical support, translation project manager, editing, translation internship (DGT – Slovak Department).

The time between graduation and finding a translation-related job is as follows: before graduating – 27%, 0–3 months – 46%, 4–6 months – 21%, 7–12 months – 0%, 1–2 years – 6%.

The sector of employment in translation-related activities is as follows: private – 82%, public – 9% (out of which central government – 0%, local / regional government – 0%, libraries – 3%, institutes – 3%, DGT – 3%), full-time education (doctoral students) – 9%. The statistical data has shown that one year after graduation, the jobs of 62% of respondents answering the questionnaire were translation-related; with the graduates of the 2009/2010 set of graduates, after five months 75% of those employed were employed in translation-related jobs.

These figures have shown that the employability of our students in translation-related professions is satisfactory. Of course, the questionnaires should be sent to the graduates again to detect changes and developments for the respondents in the job market.

4. Conclusions

Compared to the situation in translator and interpreter training in Slovakia more than 20 years ago, the number of universities offering this kind of study has increased. The profession of translator and interpreter is still attractive for students and thanks to the openness of Slovakia, translators and interpreters are constantly needed in different areas. The changes in text-types translated, languages used as well as new technologies affecting the work of translators and interpreters should also reflect in the training of would-be translators and interpreters. Universities should prepare “high-calibre” quality translators and interpreters that are able to succeed on a very competitive job market.

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Translating Idioms: An Interdisciplinary Issue Versus Fun

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ABSTRACT: Idioms are a natural part of contemporary texts in various areas of written and spoken English. They authentically reflect the culture and its society. To acquire cultural and language competence, students have to tackle various tasks as part of their preparation for translation competence. The translation of idioms is a specific area which causes substantial problems to young translators and interpreters. Therefore, as part of the educational process several disciplines are concerned with idioms and finding their proper translation solutions. Each discipline uses a different approach to teaching idiomatic expressions. They are an interdisciplinary issue connecting several subjects within translation studies to build a common basis for improved language skills. The authors outline various methods and approaches to translating English idioms based on research carried out during various lessons. At the same time, the paper examines in creative techniques for teaching interdisciplinary and practice-oriented subjects, and suggests methods that make learning idioms more fun.

KEYWORDS: idioms; translation; interpreting; classroom activities; interdisciplinarity

1. Introduction

The competition human versus machine has already started. There is no need of science fiction; now we can already keep score. No doubt, the breakthrough happened on 11th May, 1997. The Deep Blue, chess-playing computer won the game against the world champion Garry Kasparov: 1:0. The conclusion is: computers calculate faster than humans.

Calculation aspect is solved; however, humans and machines started to challenge one another. Can a human have a conversation with a computer without realising he is talking to a machine? The Turing test, for example, shows that we are still far from this point and even if today many of us speak to the famous Apple Siri assistant, there is still something missing . . . Computers can calculate faster, work cheaper and more efficient than us; and yet, they cannot think or feel. It is human uniqueness and it is the way our translators and interpreters can still lead in the race – using their intuition and “feeling”. If people want to succeed, they have to offer more added value to their work than computers. In our case we prepare human translators and interpreters who are able to conquer translation software in a computer or a service offered online. One advantage is that computers still cannot translate or interpret in a way people can. Not yet.

To make our students more competitive, to improve their language and translation competence, and to add value to their knowledge, we decided to focus on the acquisition of idioms. Idioms are often used in either texts or speeches that the students have to translate or interpret. Idioms are a stable part of a language; they can be seen as part of cultural heritage. People often use them unconsciously, i.e. they are a natural part of the native speaker's active vocabulary, and he or she uses them when judging or expressing his or her own opinion, or to express an emotion or a certain expressivity in a statement. In written statements or official speeches people usually use them with a certain purpose, e.g. to make the speech more figurative, to avoid addressing some negative aspects directly, to make the speech or text more interesting, to make it sound more intellectual or to attract the attention of the listener or reader. Currently, idioms are more and more often used in speeches given on special occasions, in lectures, in conferences or in communication among experts. The aim is to use effective means of language in order to approach the recipient on a different level and to show mastery of a language.

Idioms are often metaphorical. *The Collins Cobuild Dictionary of Idioms* (Collins COBUILD 1995, iv) states that “they are effectively metaphors which have become ‘fixed or fossilized’”. Often it is not easy to recognize the connection between the idiomatic meaning and the literary meaning. Therefore, we can help students to remember idioms by supporting their imaginativeness and explaining these connections.

It is not our aim to analyse linguistic theories and various definitions of idioms (or idiomatic expressions) in this paper; however, it is worthwhile to give some definitions that specify what the term idiom means:

An idiom can be defined as a number of words which, when taken together, have a different meaning from the individual meanings of each word. Idioms take many different forms or structures. An idiom can have a regular structure, an irregular or even a grammatically incorrect structure. The clarity of meaning is not dependent on the “grammatical correctness”. (Seidl and McMordie 1991, 13)

Idiom – a group of words in a fixed order having a particular meaning, different from the meanings of each word understood on its own. (Procter 1995, 701)

Idiom – an institutionalised multi-word expression (a phrase or a sentence) with semantic integrity, certain imagery, and certain lexico-grammatical fixedness – an ideal and relatively fixed complex of variants (allophrases) and grammatical forms used in concrete utterances. (Kvetko 2006, 17)

But as Kavka (2003, 3) suggests, “the study of idiomaticity deals with multiword complexes which carry unitary meanings – and these need not be only idioms proper!” Therefore the term “idiom” used in this paper does not comprise only pure idioms but also other types of idiomatic expressions and frozen figurative forms.

2. Interdisciplinarity Versus Fun

Why are idiomatic expressions such a problem for students? It is probably because it is not always easy to see the link between them and the reality they express. If students do not know the particular expression they might not understand the meaning of a sentence or even the context. Then they might have a problem translating or interpreting a text. Several cases can exist. First, when the idiom is totally unknown and the student is unable to understand it or to figure out its meaning within the text. Second, when the expression is unknown but the student can figure out its meaning within a context. There is no problem if the idiomatic expression has an equivalent in the mother tongue of the student or if the student is aware of the idiom’s meaning. Therefore, we have included the topic of idioms in various subjects and courses within the study programme, e.g. English Phraseology, English Lexicology, Applied Lexicology, Special Language Seminar, etc.

Translating idioms represents a problem on various levels of linguistic analysis – semantic, lexical, syntactic and pragmatic. Students / translators in the process of translation have to:

- understand the meaning of an idiom (semantic level);
- find an equivalent in the target language (lexical level);
- find its correct position in the structure of a sentence (syntactic level);
- use it in an appropriate way (pragmatic level).

2.1 Research

To find out how students are able to deal with idiomatic expressions when working with a text, we carried out research on various groups of students. Their task was to translate or interpret a text full of idiomatic expressions. This text was created on the basis of 50 real political speeches given by English native speakers on the topic of the global environment, the financial crisis and social issues. The final text included altogether 30 quite frequent English idiomatic expressions. Here are some examples:

- (1) (a) *on the brink of*
 (b) *food for thought*
 (c) *to give somebody the green light*

- (d) *in the long run*
- (e) *to learn one's lesson*
- (f) *to square the circle*
- (g) *to strain at a gnat but swallow a camel*
- (h) *to count one's chickens before they are hatched*

The text was edited in such a way that it looked like one coherent speech. This is a piece of the final text:

*Now, I would like to change the subject and speak about the global environmental crisis. I have to say, that we are standing **face to face** the biggest challenge in our history. Climate changes are connected with the global warming and together they can lead to a rise in global sea levels, changes in vegetation zones **as well as** in ecosystems and an increase in disease levels. You have certainly heard that some islands like for example Maldives may disappear from the Earth. This should be really our **wake-up call**. If we will not solve these problems, the results will be devastating because we are now **skating on a thin ice**. For so many years we have been exploiting our planet and now we have **to pay the price**. The situation will not get any better, if we don't **take steps** which are necessary to cushion the impact of climate changes. **With respect to** the results of the Copenhagen summit we are now trying to reduce the greenhouse gas emissions in order to slow down the effects of the environmental changes. This initiative should become **the part and parcel** of the environmental policy in the countries throughout the world. We have **to bear in mind** that concerning climate change issues, we **are in the same boat**. We should act quickly because we may not get another chance. That is the reason why the heads of states and governments are going to meet at the EU energy summit in February 2011. The discussions of the politicians should **open the door** to define the future direction of the EU energy policy.*

This text was given to second-year Bachelor students for translation. Before attempting the full translation, however, they were given a list of the 30 idioms and their task was to translate them without knowing in what context these idioms would be used. The instruction for this quiz was to indicate which idioms they knew, understood or had heard before, then to give a Slovak equivalent or at least a meaningful translation, if there was no exact Slovak counterpart.

The results of the quiz were as follows:

- 36% of students were able to translate 10–14 idioms out of 30;
- 50% of students successfully translated 15–19 idioms;
- 14% of students gave a correct translation of 20–24 idioms.

None of the second-year students knew all 30 idioms; no student was able to translate more than 24 idioms.

2.2 Classroom Activities

Since the majority of students had serious problems with understanding the idioms and finding an appropriate Slovak equivalent, we decided to try out some classroom activities to teach the students idioms in an entertaining way while at the same time applying the semantic, lexical, syntactic and pragmatic aspects. Here we give examples of various teaching activities that help students to see, hear, understand, acquire, use in context and, subsequently, memorize idioms.

The aim was to find out if the alternative methods of learning are more effective than the traditional ones which were not so effective. We prepared various analytical, visual, verbal and audio activities that help students to comprehend and use idioms in the correct context. We chose several idioms from the text and first tried to elicit their meanings from the students. Some of them required clarification or even explanation. It is useful for students / translators to discuss the equivalents in their mother tongue.

2.2.1 Linguistic / Analytical Activities

It is worth allowing future translators to develop linguistic experience by comparing the idioms in different languages. As an example we give idioms in English, German, French and Slovak. Considering the translations, students can observe and subsequently discuss particular functional, lexical, morphological, syntactic, and metaphorical distinctions. Here are some examples:

| English | German | French | Slovak |
|---|--|---|---|
| Count one's chickens before they are hatched. | Man soll das Fell des Bären nicht verteilen, bevor man ihn erlegt hat. | Il ne faut pas vendre la peau de l'ours avant de l'avoir tué. (Planelles 2007, 872) | Nekrič hop, kým nepreskočíš. Nerobme unáhlené závery. |
| Give the floor to | Jemandem das Wort geben | Donner la parole | Odovzdať slovo |

In all the juxtaposed languages the first example is clearly metaphorical. However, the metaphor's vehicle in each language version varies – English talks about hatching chickens, German talks about dividing a bear's fur before killing the bear, French about selling a bear's skin before killing, and Slovak about

leaping. In the second example – to give the floor to – one can see few changes. In each language version the verb is virtually the same – to give. What varies is the object. While German and Slovak uses “word”, the French idiom contains the word “speech” and English uses the word “floor”.

By analysing and pointing out the semantic, syntactic and metaphorical differences, the student acquires translation and linguistic competence. It also re-enforces students’ memory and gives them a creative understanding of language.

2.2.2 Visualization Activities

To re-enforce semantic understanding and create an entertaining activity, we can prepare the visualization of some idioms. There are websites that allow us to copy and use them freely.¹

Another possibility to practise idioms is the game of Pictionary. The class is split into two teams and each team chooses a “painter” who draws on the whiteboard the idiomatic expression shown by the teacher. Other students should not see the idiom. The painter should give the best visual clue so that other students can guess the right idiom. The student should not write any words on the whiteboard, obviously. The team whose student first says the idiom correctly gets one point.

Our third visualization activity is drawing by individual students. Each student tries to sketch an idiom that is difficult to remember or use in context. Students can exchange their drawings and try to guess what they mean.

2.2.3 Audio-Verbal (Follow-up) Activities

One of the traditional writing tasks is to use idioms in a sentence in order to realize their contextual meaning. Afterwards, students read their sentences to their colleagues. Our next suggestion is to prepare a debate on a trivial topic such as solving the problem of smoking in front of the university building. Students are split into groups of four or five students, while one student is the chairperson. Each group gets a set of idioms – each on a strip of paper. While trying to solve the problem, students should use idioms written on the strips of paper. Once a student says the idiom, he or she can take the strip of paper. This means one point for him or her. The nature of the competition makes stu-

¹ Examples of these websites include www.commonswikimedia.org or www.flickr.com/photos/tags/copyleft. The following are the visual idioms from the aforementioned websites:

- *Uphill struggle* (http://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Flickr_-_Rainbirder_-_Uphill_struggle.jpg)
- *To square the circle* (http://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Squared-circle_postmark_1890.jpg)
- *Food for thought* (<http://www.flickr.com/photos/stylesheet/3539527994>)

dents flexible, and quick-thinking, and the work is dynamic. They also forget for a while that they are at school, which creates a natural ambience.

Another possible follow-up activity is writing a lengthy sentence consisting of a high number of idioms they have learned. This is more a demanding activity but some students enjoy it a lot. Some of the lengthy sentences can entertain the other students. Here are two examples written by our students:

- (2) (a) *As we stand here side by side on the brink of giving this proposal the green light, we should speak with one voice because it will give the green-collar workers some food for thought and then it will be a different kettle of fish.*
- (b) *We have to speak with one voice if we don't want to pay the price for giving somebody the green light and we should stand side by side to solve this uphill struggle, because if we strain at a gnat but swallow a camel I'm sure we will learn our lesson in the long run for counting chickens before they're hatched.*

One can argue that the sentences are decontextualised or have a low semantic value, yet it could be observed that students are able to use the selected idioms in a sentence and they remember their meaning.

2.3 Students' Translations

After carrying out these activities, the students were asked to translate the full text comprising idioms. We gave them the opportunity to use any available resources, like dictionaries or the Internet. We then compared the number of correct translations of idioms in the quiz and in the Slovak translation.

The results for correctly translated idioms in the text were much better. All students were able to find an appropriate solution for 25–30 idioms in their translations.

When evaluating the students' solutions of translated idioms we observed various ways in which students dealt with them. Mostly, they tried to find an appropriate Slovak phraseological equivalent. If they did not find such an equivalent, they either used a non-phraseological equivalent or used a description.

Here are some examples of those idioms that caused problems to the majority of students, but for which the final translations were appropriate.²

- (3) (a) *go through the roof* : *stúpať do závratných výšok* [to rise to dizzying heights] / *prerastať cez hlavu* [to grow over one's head]

² For better understanding, there are literal translations from Slovak into English in the square brackets.

- (b) *square the circle* : *rozťať gordický uzol* [to split open the Gordian knot]
- (c) *uphill struggle / battle* : *tvrdý oriešok* [a hard nut] / *sizyfovská práca* [Sisyphean task]

Some of the final translations by our students have intensified meaning. The following translations are appropriate in our context. The translation of the first example is intensified by a rather archaic idiom in Slovak; in the second case the meaning in the Slovak translation is intensified by emotive connotations.

- (4) (a) *a wake-up call* : *zvony bijú na poplach* [the bells are sounding the alarm]
- (b) *take on board* : *vziať si k srdcu* [to take to one's heart]
- (c) *uphill struggle / battle* : *boj proti veterným mlynom* [to fight against a windmill] / *ísť proti prúdu rieky* [to swim upstream]

On the other hand, some of the final translations by our students are characterized by expressive reduction. These idioms have lost their original metaphorical value in translation. Here are some examples of those we still regard as appropriate.

- (5) (a) *uphill struggle* : *nelahká úloha* [an uneasy task]
- (b) *a different kettle of fish* : *to už je iná vec* [that is a different thing] / *to už je o niečom inom* [that is about something different]

Some of the translations by our students were inappropriate, however, we can always laugh and take them as jokes. The students will definitely remember them.

- (6) (a) *strain at gnat but swallow a camel* : *robiť z komára somára* [to make a donkey from a gnat] / *vodu káže víno pije* [he preaches water while drinking wine]
- (b) *in a row* : *v hádke* [to have a quarrel]
- (c) *go through the roof* : *ísť cez mŕtvoly* [to go through dead bodies]
- (d) *square the circle* : *chodiť okolo horúcej kaše* [to walk around a hot porridge] / *chodiť dokola* [to walk around]
- (e) *to pull one's weight* : *pribrať na váhe* [to gain weight]

We carried out a similar experiment with first-year MA students, whose task was to simultaneously interpret the given text, which was transformed into a recording by one of our students. We let the students interpret the recording

twice. The first time, it was a completely unknown text for the students and they did not know what to expect. We only told them the topic and that the speaker uses a lot of idiomatic expressions. In the first round, we achieved the following results:

- 6% of the students adequately interpreted only 10–14 idioms;
- 13% of the students used appropriate equivalents to 15–19 idioms in their interpreting;
- 42% of the students successfully interpreted 20–24 idioms;
- 39% of the students could even interpret up to 25–27 idioms in an appropriate way.

After the first interpreting, we gave students the same quiz with 30 idioms as we gave to the Bachelor students. The results were not very satisfying:

- 10% of the students adequately translated only 10–14 idioms;
- 32% of the students found appropriate equivalents for 15–19 idioms in the quiz;
- 29% of the students successfully translated 20–24 idioms;
- 29% of the students could translate up to 25–30 idioms in an appropriate way.

To be able to compare if the knowledge of idioms influences the quality of interpreting we also gave the students various possible Slovak equivalents which they then could use in a second interpreting of the same recording. After students became acquainted with all 30 idioms, interpreting was much easier for them because they knew what expressions to expect and how to interpret them. So it is no surprise that almost 40% of the students appropriately interpreted 20–24 idioms and more than 60% of the students successfully interpreted up to 25–30 idioms.

Since interpreting is different from translating we applied slightly different rules. In this part of the research we observed various ways how students dealt with idioms.

First, they used Slovak phraseological equivalents, for example:

- (7) (a) *to count one's chickens before they are hatched* : *nekrič hop, kým nepreskočíš* [don't say you have jumped before you jump]
 (b) *an uphill struggle* : *sizyfovská práca* [Sisyphean task] / *boj proti veterným mlynom* [fight against a windmill] / *plávať proti prúdu* [to swim upstream]
 (c) *to hit two targets with one shot* : *zabiť dve muchy jednou ranou* [to kill two flies with one shot]
 (d) *to be in the same boat* : *byť na jednej lodi* [to be in one boat]

These solutions are the most difficult ones because the students must possess a system of equivalents in this particular area. They must know the exact idiom and should automatically suggest its phraseological form known and used in the target language. They can, however, be influenced by lack of time or other stress factors in the process of interpreting.

Second, they used non-phraseological equivalents like for example:

- (8) (a) *food for thought* : *témy na premýšľanie* [topics to think about] / *podnetné návrhy* [constructive suggestions] / *zaujímavé informácie* [interesting information]
 (b) *part and parcel* : *dôležitá súčasť* [an important part] / *neoddeliteľná súčasť* [an integral part]
 (c) *a different kettle of fish* : *iný problém* [a different problem] / *iná kategória* [a different category] / *iná téma* [a different topic]
 (d) *we shouldn't lose sight of* : *nemali by sme zabudnúť* [we shouldn't forget about] / *nemali by sme zanedbávať* [we shouldn't ignore]

This solution was the most frequent way in which students interpreted the idioms when they did not find an appropriate phraseological unit in their memory.

The third way was the description of idioms in the target language in cases when students did not find a suitable equivalent, were under stress or had not much time to think. This way still indicates that they identified and understood the English idiom and tried to find an appropriate solution to transform it into the target language. Here are some examples:

- (9) (a) *to count one's chickens before they are hatched* : *nemali by sme sa unáhliť v našich názoroch* [we shouldn't rush to give our opinion] / *nemali by sme robiť unáhlené závery* [we shouldn't jump to hasty conclusions]
 (b) *on the brink of very hard times* : *žijeme v ťažkých časoch* [we live in hard times] / *čakajú nás veľmi ťažké časy* [very hard times are ahead of us]
 (c) *green-collar workers* : *ekologickí pracovníci* [ecological workers] / *pracovníci v oblasti životného prostredia* [workers in the area of environment]
 (d) *a wake-up call* : *mali by sme sa prebudiť* [we should wake up] / *aby sme sa konečne zobudili* [to wake us finally up] / *mali by sme sa spamätať* [we should react]

Another way, in which students solved the communication situation was that they did not interpret the idiom as such but interpreted the meaning of the sentence, which means that even if they did not understand an idiom, or understood it but did not know its equivalent, they still could manage to keep

interpreting and did not stop or remain silent. In these cases we did not count the solutions as successful interpreting of idioms, because they were actually omitted.

3. Final Remarks

We all know that not all students like to learn things by heart. And it is scientifically proven that learning is more efficient when it is performed by the means of a game, when students are having fun, and are actively, personally and emotionally involved in learning. The teaching activities we have applied definitely created a lot of fun, caused laughter during our classes, and therefore prepared a basis for a natural learning environment. Besides, the examples of the activities we have described in the paper could be applied when teaching other academic disciplines, especially when teaching other problematic lexemes such as collocations, phrasal verbs, proverbs, sayings, bywords, similes, binomials, trinomials or complicated phrases.

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INTERPRETING

Pronunciation Skills of an Interpreter

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ABSTRACT: In order for a good interpreter to be intelligible to everyone, her or his speech should not be marked by conspicuous regional or foreign features. If the goal is to help students develop unmarked pronunciation, we need to establish what such pronunciation is like. An error analysis of a student's interpreting performance is presented and discussed in terms of intelligibility and foreign-accentedness. This is compared with evaluations of intelligibility and accentedness by non-expert listeners. We show that a Czech accent in English reduces intelligibility for non-Czech listeners with various first languages as compared to Czechs (which is in line with the so-called matched interlanguage intelligibility benefit; Bent and Bradlow 2003). However, the accent is neither less noticeable nor less irritating to Czech listeners.

KEYWORDS: foreign accent; intelligibility; neutrality; Czech, English; interpreting

1. Achieving Intelligibility and Neutrality

An ideal interpreter understands everyone and is understood by everyone. On the perception side, this means interpreters can cope with the enormous variability in pronunciations they encounter. For their own speech production, then, this means not being marked by noticeable regional or foreign features.

In the English phonetics courses for interpreters at Palacký University designed for Czech students with English as a second language (L2), we strive to develop both types of skills. There are two phonetic courses in the Bachelor program: a required seminar in *English Phonetics* and an elective course *Phonetic Training*. The required course focuses entirely on perception, for two main reasons. First, we work on the assumption that in L2 speech learning, perception precedes production, or in other words that accurate L2 perception is a prerequisite for accurate production. This is an intuitive and empirically well-supported view (see e.g. contributions to Strange 1995) although it is possible that in some stages of L2 acquisition and under some conditions, production skills in fact exceed perception; see Højen (2003) for a review. Second, our idea is that achieving native-like production is not essential as long as marked regional, foreign or idiosyncratic features are avoided.

On the other hand, good perceptual skills, perhaps native-like perceptual skills, are desirable for an interpreter. The aim of the required seminar in

English Phonetics is to provide students with that flexibility of the ear which allows them to make instant adjustments to the speech of various speakers. In fact, exposure to variation is not beneficial only for interpreters. It is necessary for successful acquisition of L2 sound patterns in general, as has been shown repeatedly by studies adopting high variability phonetic training (HVPT) (e.g. Lively et al. 1994; Iverson, Hasan, and Barnister 2005). The underlying notion of HVPT is that learning new contrasting sounds and their phonetic variants is enhanced by exposure to sufficient variability.

As suggested above, in the elective seminar *Phonetic Training*, even if native speaker models are used, the goal is not necessarily native-like pronunciation. Some foreign-accentedness is not detrimental to a good performance of an interpreter. When it comes to what an interpreter should sound like, we suggest that there are two principal concerns. First, the topmost priority for an interpreter is obviously *intelligibility*, that is, how easy or demanding it is to follow the interpreter, to recognize speech units and retrieve the lexical meaning. It is important to note that intelligibility is a scalar phenomenon. The interpreter's accent may increase the processing load on the part of the listener less or more, throughout the delivery or only locally. Even if a native-like standard is not insisted on, this is not to say that interpreters' accentedness can be completely ignored as long as they make themselves understood. Foreign accent has received attention not only in terms of its causes (Piske, MacKay, and Flege 2001; Gluszek, Newheiser, and Dovidio 2011) but also its consequences (Derwing and Munro 2009; Gluszek and Dovidio 2010). Accent contributes a great deal to how a speaker is perceived, and a strong foreign accent may draw attention away from what is being said as well as generate attitudinal reactions on the part of the listeners. Good interpreters do not draw attention to themselves. In sum, a second rather important quality of an interpreter's pronunciation is *neutrality*.

Our paper was inspired by a recording of a press conference where a graduate of our program acted as an interpreter. We carried out a phonetic / phonological analysis to identify the features of Czech accent in his English. The recording was also used to elicit information about perceptions of intelligibility and neutrality. Our focus was purely on pronunciation and not on other interpreting skills. There was a general agreement among colleague interpreters that the interpreting task was tackled very professionally.

2. Features of Czech-Accented English

The Czech accent in English has its identifiable properties and it has received considerable attention, both with respect to segments and suprasegmentals (e.g. Volín and Skarnitzl 2010a; Volín and Skarnitzl 2010b). Some characteristics of

Czech-accented English are sketched in Table 1. However, there is no empirical evidence as to how the individual features contribute to specific positive or negative perceptions of the accent.

| Consonants | Vowels |
|---|---|
| <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. <i>substitutions</i>: /θ/ and /ð/ > [s, f, t] and [d]; /w/ ~ /v/; word-final /ŋ/ > [ŋk] 2. <i>realization</i>: /ɹ/ as a trill; /h/ as voiced; /t/ and /d/ dental; absence of vowel duration adjustments with respect to voicing of the following consonants 3. <i>allophonic realization</i>: absence of aspiration; dedication to releasing stops; word-final devoicing and voicing assimilations 4. voicing of intervocalic /s/ | <p>Transfer of the Czech vowel system with 6 vowel qualities into English:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 5. absence of the /ɛ/-/æ/ contrast 6. different realization of vowel qualities (lax and tense vowels, e.g. /ɪ/-/i/, /o/-/u/, /ʌ/-/a/) 7. high back vowels firmly rounded <p>Suprasegmentals</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 8. <i>syllables</i>: [ʔ] insertion in onsetless syllables; absence of linking 9. <i>melody</i>: monotonous delivery; compressed pitch range 10. <i>rhythm</i>: non-reductions of unstressed syllables, inappropriate reductions; considerable final lengthening; misplacement of stress |

Table 1: Some characteristics of Czech-accented English.

| Consonants | Vowels |
|--|---|
| <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. <i>three</i> [fri]; <i>that</i> [dæt̚]; <i>with his</i> [vɪz hɪz]; <i>one</i> [van]; <i>visit</i> [vɪsɪt]; <i>strong</i> [strɔŋk] 2. <i>proud</i> [prau̚]; <i>held</i> [hɛld] 3. <i>planned</i> [plɛnt]; <i>proud</i> [prau̚]; <i>thank you</i> [θɛŋjuː]; <i>if I go</i> [ɪ.vaj gou] 4. <i>anniversary</i> [ˌʔɛniˈvɜːzəri] | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 5. <i>that</i> [dæt̚]; <i>planned</i> [plɛnt] 6. <i>committee</i> [komitiː]; <i>one</i> [van]; <i>on behalf of</i> [ʔon bɪfɑːlv ʔof] <p>Suprasegmentals</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 8. <i>syllables</i>: <i>grown up</i> [ˈgroun ˈʔap]; <i>honored us</i> [ˈonət ʔas] 10. <i>again</i> [ʔɛˈgen]; <i>president</i> [ˈprɛzɪdɔn]; <i>there is no one</i> [ˈnouvaːn ɪ] <i>international</i> [ˈɪntɪneɪʃə] |

Table 2: Examples of Czech accent in our recording.

The 45-minute recording of the conference was examined by both authors. Each turn of the interpreter was analysed for features of Czech accent. Practically all of the features listed in Table 1 were present in the sample. Some examples are given in Table 2, structured analogically.

Of course, it was not the goal to analyse the pronunciation of a single speaker. Our aim was to select a sample of spoken English produced by a Czech interpreter who has achieved a high level of proficiency in English but at the same time displays typical features of Czech accent. A portion of this recording was then presented to non-expert listeners who spoke English as an L2 in order to evaluate the intelligibility and neutrality of the Czech accent in English.

3. Effects of Czech-Accented English on Listeners with Various L1s

Considering our two key criteria for evaluating interpreters' pronunciation, i.e. intelligibility and neutrality, we found the speaker relatively intelligible although his accent sounded to us far from neutral and possibly rather obtrusive and distracting. Our assessment of intelligibility may have been biased by a shared first language (L1). It has been proposed that foreign-accented speech is more intelligible if the listener's L1 background matches that of the speaker (Bent and Bradlow 2003). This is why it was important for our listening test to recruit participants with different L1s. Our perception of obtrusiveness, then, might be put down to us being phoneticians, in other words critical experts. A lay listener may be more tolerant towards the accent. In addition, the impression of obtrusiveness of an accent, its non-neutrality, may also vary as a function of listeners' L1. To a listener who has the same interlanguage or who often hears Czech learners speaking English, features of Czech-accented English may be less noticeable and thus less distracting. Besides capturing the extent to which listeners notice the accent, we also wanted to determine in which respects the pronunciation departs from neutrality.

Our listening test addressed the following research questions: (1) Is the interpreter's speech more intelligible for a Czech audience compared to a non-Czech audience? (2) Is there a difference between Czech and non-Czech audiences in the degree to which they notice a Czech accent in the interpreter's English? (3) Is there a difference between Czech and non-Czech audiences in the perceived neutrality of the interpreter's pronunciation?

3.1 Participants and Procedure

An approximately 1-minute long, uninterrupted portion of the interpreter's speech was presented to 60 listeners in total who formed 3 L1-background groups: (1) 33 Czech undergraduates majoring in English, (2) 11 Japanese undergraduates learning English as a foreign language, and (3) a mixed group of 16 graduate students or faculty at two foreign universities who had Spanish,

Italian, Portuguese, Brazilian Portuguese, Romanian, Polish, Russian, German, Dutch, Korean or Chinese as their L1.

The recording was accompanied by a questionnaire containing seven multiple-choice questions about intelligibility and accentedness that are summarized in (1), as well as two content questions and two questions about the speaker's interpreting skills.

- (1) Q1. Estimate how much in percent you understood.
- Q2. How hard did you have to concentrate to follow what was said?
- Q3. What makes the recording difficult to understand?
- Q4. Rate the speaker's "foreign-accentedness" on the following scale.
- Q5. To what degree did the speaker's accent make it difficult for you to understand his words?
- Q6. To what extent would you describe the speaker's pronunciation as . . . ?

The sound clip was presented to the listeners individually via headphones. The procedure was always the same. First, the participants listened to the sound clip once and answered the content questions. Next, they answered questions Q1–Q3 from (1). Then they were instructed to listen to the clip again while concentrating on the speaker's pronunciation and to answer the remaining questions.

3.2 Results and Discussion

The results are reported below in Tables 3–8. The overall intelligibility is reflected in the percentage of correct answers to the two content questions as well as the self-estimated intelligibility score (Table 3). One observation is that the self-reported degree of understanding corresponds well with the correctness of the responses to the content questions. More importantly, for all these three variables, i.e. Content questions 1 and 2, and Self-reported % understood, separate Kruskal-Wallis Analyses of variance (ANOVAs) found a significant effect of language group; the resulting H and p values are given in the last column of Table 3. Czechs have the highest self-reported percentage of understanding and they were most likely to give a correct answer to the two content questions. Post-hoc multiple comparisons showed that compared to the Japanese listeners, a significantly higher number of Czech listeners correctly answered Content question 1 ($p = .0164$) and that Czech listeners' Self-reported % understood was significantly higher than that of the Mixed group ($p = .0236$), which was in turn higher than that of the Japanese group ($p = .0312$). The results are in line with the predictions of the interlanguage speech intelligibility benefit hypothesis (Bent and Bradlow 2003). It

seems that in order to understand Czech-accented English well, it is useful to be Czech.

| | Czech | Mixed | Japanese | Kruskal-Wallis ANOVA |
|---------------------------------|-------|-------|----------|----------------------------|
| Content question 1 (% correct) | 66 | 31 | 9 | $H[2, n=59]=12.2, p=.0023$ |
| Content question 2 (% correct) | 100 | 81 | 64 | $H[2, n=59]=11.2, p=.0038$ |
| Self-reported % understood (Q1) | 94 | 82 | 44 | $H[2, n=60]=32.4, p<.0001$ |

Table 3: Overall intelligibility.

This conclusion is corroborated by the self-assessed degree of comprehension difficulty (Table 4). For this variable, a Kruskal-Wallis ANOVA found a significant effect of language group ($H[2, n = 60] = 13.919, p = .0009$). Although multiple comparisons only found the difference between Czech and Japanese responses significant ($p = .0022$), the percentages in Table 4 show that the Czech participants tended to choose response options closer to the “easy” endpoint, the Mixed group preferred intermediate responses, whereas the Japanese tended to choose options from the “difficult” endpoint.

| Q2: <i>How hard did you have to concentrate to follow what was said?</i> | Czech | Mixed | Japanese |
|--|-------|-------|----------|
| Easy, I just listened | 24 | 12 | 9 |
| Sometimes had to concentrate | 61 | 44 | 9 |
| Concentrate most of the time | 15 | 44 | 64 |
| Concentrate really hard | 0 | 0 | 18 |

Table 4: Self-assessed processing load (in %).

| Q3: <i>What makes the recording difficult to understand?</i> | Czech | Mixed | Japanese |
|--|-------|-------|----------|
| Careless pronunciation | 45 | | 18 |
| Monotonous speech | 36 | 44 | |
| Lack of fluency | 36 | 38 | |
| Unfamiliar context | 27 | 19 | |
| Unfamiliar pronunciation | 21 | 81 | 36 |
| Unfamiliar vocabulary | | 13 | 55 |
| Not seeing the speaker | 18 | | 27 |
| Poor quality of the recording | | 19 | 18 |

Table 5: Factors increasing processing load mentioned by at least 10% of listeners (in %).

The next question explores the factors which may have increased the processing load for the listeners. Their responses show that not only did the groups differ in their assessment of the comprehension difficulty but they also tended to name different causes of difficulty. Table 5 only reports factors mentioned by at least one tenth of the listeners in each group (with the most frequently chosen factor within each group in bold). An obvious difference between the groups is that Czech participants did not select “unfamiliar pronunciation” as often as members of the non-Czech groups. Although it is difficult to generalize, Czech listeners seemed to find the source of difficulty in the properties of the interpreter’s speech, naming “careless pronunciation”, “monotonous speech”, and “lack of fluency” most often. The Mixed group also perceived the source of difficulties to be the speaker’s pronunciation but the main factor was not carelessness on the part of the speaker, rather it was the fact that they were not familiar with such pronunciation. The Japanese listeners tended to avoid negative evaluations of the speaker altogether and most often connected their comprehension difficulties to “unfamiliar vocabulary”.

The next two questions, Q4 and Q5, asked explicitly about the speaker’s accentedness. As can be seen in Table 6, the majority of all listeners perceived the speech as strongly accented or at least heard a noticeable accent. Interestingly, the Czech participants, who had the same L1 as the speaker and who were familiar with Czech-accented English, rated the speaker as strongly accented 82% of the time, even though their understanding did not appear to be hampered by the accent (see Tables 3 and 4 above). Moreover, in response to Q5 (Table 7), sixty-four percent of the Czechs said the speaker’s accent was not a problem for comprehension. Our interpretation is that intelligibility of an interpreter’s speech is indeed separate from its neutrality, that is, how accented it sounds. As regards differences between language groups, a Kruskal-Wallis ANOVA found a significant effect of language group on overall perceived accentedness ($H[2, n = 60] = 13.428, p = .0012$). Multiple comparisons found no significant difference between the Czech and the Mixed group. All listeners from these two groups rated the speech either as noticeably or strongly accented, although the Mixed group was slightly more tolerant about the accent. On the other hand, multiple comparisons found a significant difference between the Czech and the Japanese group ($p = .012$). The Japanese listeners’ responses were more spread out across the scale. Although another Kruskal-Wallis ANOVA found a mild significant effect of language group on responses to Q5, i.e. the perceived effect of accentedness on intelligibility ($H[2, n = 59] = 9.41, p = .0091$), no multiple comparisons found significant differences between language groups for this variable.

| Q4: Rate the speaker's "foreign-accentedness" on the following scale. | Czech | Mixed | Japanese |
|---|-------|-------|----------|
| No foreign accent (FA) | 0 | 0 | 9 |
| Barely detectable FA | 0 | 0 | 9 |
| Slight FA | 0 | 0 | 27 |
| Noticeable FA | 18 | 56 | 18 |
| Very strong FA | 82 | 44 | 37 |

Table 6: Overall perceived accentedness (in %).

| Q5: To what degree did the speaker's accent make it difficult for you to understand his words? | Czech | Mixed | Japanese |
|--|-------|-------|----------|
| Accent was not a problem | 64 | 27 | 18 |
| Missed some words because of accent | 30 | 60 | 64 |
| Had to think twice about what was said | 6 | 13 | 9 |
| Very much a problem | 0 | 0 | 9 |

Table 7: Perceived effect of accentedness on intelligibility (in %).

The aim of the next question, Q6, was to determine in which respects the pronunciation was perceived as departing from neutrality. Listeners were asked to rate the speech in terms of the following descriptors on a 5-point scale, where 0 stood for "not at all" and 4 for "very much": educated, charming, original, cute, funny, posh, labored, pretentious, odd, unpleasant, irritating, and unintelligent. Whether or not we interpret a given descriptor as negative, none of them (perhaps with the exception of "educated") are desirable characteristics of an interpreter's pronunciation in the sense that they can draw attention away from the content and provoke conscious or subconscious judgments of the speaker. Table 8 gives only descriptors scoring 2 or more on average in each language group, that is, above the middle of the scale. In the Mixed group, only the descriptor "educated" averaged above 2. None of the other, clearly negative, descriptors scored that high. In the Japanese group, the descriptor "educated" also received the highest mean score, even though some negative descriptors scored 2 or more. To the Czech listeners, on the other hand, the interpreter did not sound educated and they gave relatively high scores for "odd", "unpleasant", "irritating", and "funny". The scores for the 7 descriptors in Table 8 as dependent variables were submitted to separate Kruskal-Wallis ANOVAs with language group as the grouping variable. A significant effect of language group ($p < .05$)

was found for the descriptors “educated”, “odd”, “unpleasant”, “irritating”, and “funny”. The significant ($p < .05$) between-group differences, found by post-hoc multiple comparisons, were as follows: the differences between the Czechs and the Mixed group for all the 5 descriptors and the difference between the Czechs and the Japanese for “educated”. It is interesting that although the Czechs and the Mixed group did not differ significantly in that they all labeled the interpreter’s accent as noticeable or strong (Table 6), the patterns of subjective evaluations of the accent (Table 8) were different in that the Mixed group were more tolerant and the Czechs were harsher with the accent. First, the tolerance of the Mixed group may be attributed to empathy, to the fact that 13 out of the 16 participants were living in a foreign country at the time of testing and they probably have had first-hand experience of sounding foreign-accented themselves. Second, the harsher judgments of the Czech group is exactly the opposite of what we had hypothesized. The Czechs were familiar with the accent, yet still that did not increase their tolerance toward it.

| Q6: To what extent would you describe the pronunciation as . . . | Czech | Mixed | Japanese |
|--|-------|-------|----------|
| Educated | | 2.5 | 2.9 |
| Odd | 2.5 | | 2.2 |
| Unpleasant | 2.4 | | |
| Irritating | 2 | | 2.0 |
| Funny | 2.4 | | |
| Labored | | | 2.0 |
| Original | | | 2.0 |

Table 8: Subjective descriptors of the speaker’s pronunciation (mean score on a 5-point scale).

4. Conclusion

This study was primarily motivated by the need to make pronunciation training of Czech interpreters into English at Palacký University more efficient. A short recording of an interpreter with a Czech accent was presented to listeners with various first-language backgrounds. The objective was to explore the effects of the accent on the intelligibility as well as perceived neutrality, or unobtrusiveness, of the interpreter.

Our first question was whether the interpreter’s speech would be more intelligible for a Czech audience as compared to a non-Czech audience. The Czechs

indeed seemed to have an advantage over other listeners, as evidenced by self-reported understanding, percentage of correct responses to content questions and self-reported comprehension difficulty. This can either be explained as an effect of the so-called matched interlanguage intelligibility benefit (Bent and Bradlow 2003) or as an effect of experience with the accent. The finding that the Japanese listeners showed different patterns of results than the other non-Czechs can be ascribed to a possible difference in English proficiency (which had not been controlled for).

Next, we wanted to determine whether Czechs and non-Czechs would differ in the degree to which they noticed the accent in the interpreter's English. Our hypothesis that the accent would be less noticeable to a listener who has the same interlanguage or often hears Czechs speaking English was not confirmed. The Czechs were not less likely to notice the foreign-accentedness than other language groups; in fact, they were more likely to do so.

Finally, the difference between Czech and non-Czech audiences in the perceived neutrality of the interpreter's pronunciation was explored. Our expectation that Czech listeners would be more tolerant toward the accent than non-Czech listeners was contradicted by the results. Czechs in fact turned out to be the most critical group.

In sum, the Czech accent in English was neither more inconspicuous nor more neutral to Czech ears. It appears that familiarity with a foreign accent does not automatically increase tolerance toward it. Nevertheless, we find it necessary to point out that this conclusion is based on findings about small samples of subjects, that there were possible confounding factors (second-language proficiency, cultural differences), and that findings about Czech-accented English may not be straightforwardly generalizable to other contexts.

Acknowledgements

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Seeking a Dynamic Model of Interpreting Applicable in Interpreter Training

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ABSTRACT: The article looks closer at the benefit of the cognitive approach to the theory of interpreting, as the contribution of cognitive sciences can open up new horizons in interpreting studies. The suggested model is based on the following assumptions: the interpreter cannot start “conceptualizing” the speech as the primary mental representations of the ideas are not available to him or her from the very beginning of the interpreting process. Unlike in consecutive interpreting, where the mental representation of the speech is more or less clear to the interpreter (or any listener) after the speaker has finished delivering his or her speech or the respective section of the speech, in simultaneous interpreting this mental representation is fluid, continuously changing through the process of listening and analyzing. My model aims to show that the act of interpreting happens on the interface between source and target culture, as a series of cycles of listening-analyzing-anticipation-creating a mental image – first producing a hypothesis to be proved or corrected and continually back-checked against context and against source and target culture, relying on the personality of the interpreter and his or her cognitive potential and capacity.

KEYWORDS: theory of interpreting; models of interpreting process; cognitive approach; simultaneous interpreting; mental representation; source and target culture

1. Interpreting as a Process of Approximation to the Source Text

In this paper, I shall try to bring together a twofold experience gained in interpreting and teaching how to interpret. The impulse for writing this article was my teaching experience, where I realized that we must make clear to students that knowing theory does not immediately improve their performance, but when you want to look back and assess what they did, to gain understanding of what in fact they do when they interpret, a theoretical framework is an essential tool. I sought inspiration from a range of methodological foundations, from Jean Herbert to Daniel Gile’s theory of effort, from almost tangible working experience to more abstract concepts, retaining all the time a clear vision of practical applicability.¹

¹ Although teachers would agree with the principle that interpretation is communication, we often see interpreting courses across Europe transformed into courses focused on improving knowledge of the language or acquiring specialized terminology. Discussions on students’ performance sometimes end up in mere superficial comparison of the content of the source text and the result of the students’ interpreting or in a search for lexical equivalents and the “right expression”. (Jones 2004, 15; translation is mine)

The effort to visualize some mental procedures, like those occurring in interpreting, is demanding for many reasons: an abstraction – and models are examples of abstraction – of interpreting processes means dealing with notions that are already abstractions: because interpreting as such means abstracting from the original language material and transferring it, via cognitive activity, into another language material. Also, in a sense, designing a model of interpreting processes is a kind of inter-semiotic translation – a graphic representation of a mental activity (interpreting), translated into words (a description of the activity) or translated into symbols, charts or pictures (models of interpreting processes). Having in mind the rule of translation loss, we can see how challenging this task is.

1.1 What is the Function of a Model?

Pöchhacker (2004, 84) says that “a model can be described as some form of representation of an object or phenomenon. Models usually indicate the type and number of components which are assumed to form part of the object or phenomenon under study, and reflect the way in which the components fit together and relate to one another.”

Any model, apart from explaining the interaction of components under investigation, also points out what components the author of the model believes to be involved in the process described by the respective model. Any model can also be seen as a part of a meta-language that is more or less specific, according to the conceptual level on which the model is realized.

Besides the scheme input – processing (of text) – output (linguistic operations), there have been efforts to describe interpreting as a mental activity from the psycholinguistic point of view, or as a communicative process (the interpreter shaping the communication) from the perspective of semiotics, or as a discourse, analysed by means of pragmatics. A comprehensive summary of models presented in scientific literature over the last 60 years can be found in Pöchhacker and Schlesinger (2001), and Pöchhacker (2004).

1.2 The Reflection of Mental Processes in Some Chosen Models

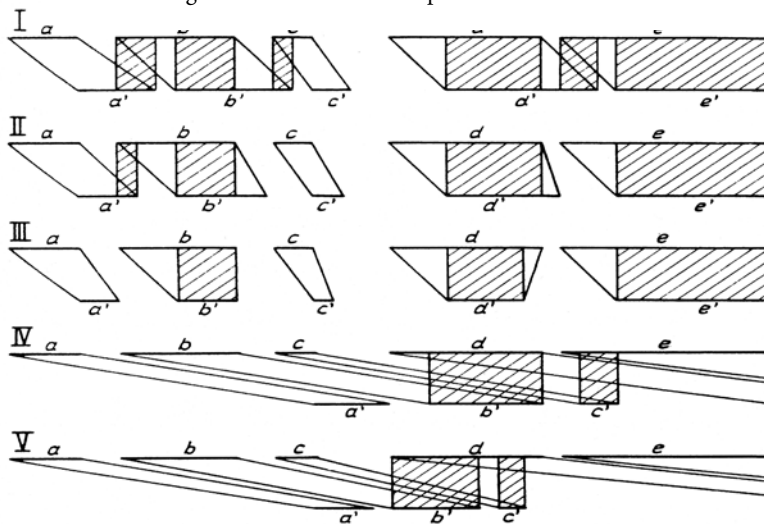
Regardless of their basis, models of the interpreting process undergo an ongoing development as our insight deepens and our perspective changes with new input by outstanding scholars.

Starting with the theory of Jean Herbert (1952), we can see that his ideas form a foundation for later theories. Though Herbert stresses the simultaneity of the stages in simultaneous interpretation (SI), his model design is linear, depicting merely the cognitive activity of the interpreter (Phase 1 – Understanding, Phase 2 – Conversion, Phase 3 – Delivery), not including the repetitive pattern of the whole process or all players included in the communication.

Later, in the 1950s, an Austrian scholar who studied and worked in Britain, Eva Paneth (1957), suggested another model. She carried out empirical research based on her experience as a professional interpreter. In 1957 she published her thesis, in which she presented her model of simultaneous interpreting. She observed that in SI it is usually assumed that the interpreter repeats in one language what he hears in another, but a closer observation of the actual correspondence between smaller groups of words reveals a different pattern, showing that the interpreter says not what he hears, but what he has heard (cf. Paneth 1957).²

We can see how the lag of the interpreter behind the speaker is projected in the model and how it changes with the different ear-voice span. By including the aspect of time, Paneth gave her model a dynamic aspect which is absent in many others. However, the model is realised in the tradition of seeing interpreting as an isolated act, a kind of interpreters' virtuosity, resembling more a performance of music than a complex cognitive procedure with many outside influences. From our contemporary perspective, Paneth's (1957) model represents more a process of shadowing than of interpreting.

AN INVESTIGATION INTO CONFERENCE INTERPRETING The Timing of "Simultaneous" Interpretation



Five techniques are illustrated. Word groups in the original speech are represented by a, b, c, d, e. Their interpretation is shown as a', b', c', d', e'. The abscissa represents time.

Figure 1: Eva Paneth's (1957) chart of *timing* of simultaneous interpretation. Taken from Pöchhacker and Schlesinger (2001, 33).

² Taken from Pöchhacker and Schlesinger (2001, 30ff).

Gerver (1976) modelled his diagram as a flow diagram of the temporal course of SI. He uses notions like INPUT, FULL BUFFER or DISCARD, and their diagrams resemble a scheme of a computer-controlled process. It playfully reflects the reverberations of structuralism, the belief of structuralists that language exists independently of the subject as a structure, and also a fascination with computer technology typical of the 1970s. Unlike Paneth’s model, it does not include the original text at all, or rather, it includes it only implicitly as some kind of input filling the “buffer”.

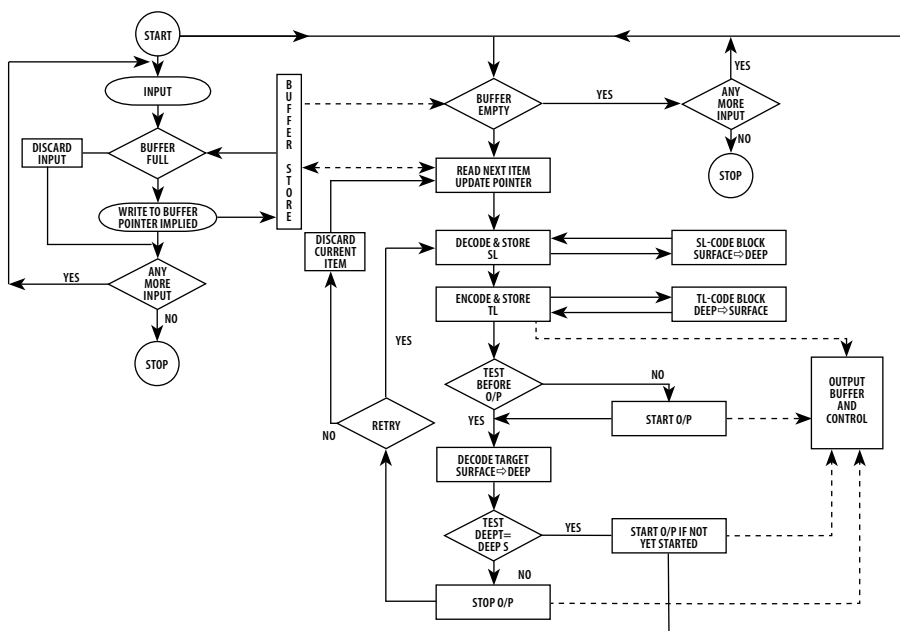


Figure 2: Gerver’s (1976, 182) model of the simultaneous interpretation process.

Ghelly Chernov (1979), known among interpreters first of all for his Anticipation Theory, was also a dedicated interpreting teacher, and together with his colleagues he studied the hypothesis that *probability prediction* was the major psycholinguistic mechanism underlying SI. As a result of this and more research in the field, he describes the process of interpreting as a *Cumulative Dynamic Analysis* and suggests the involvement of the probability prediction field. In an experimental study, Chernov obtained a “compound real time representation of the related ST and TT messages”.

Again, it is a psycholinguistic model, which in fact shows only a suggestion of the decision-making and mental processes in the mind of the interpreter. It is not a chart of the interpreting process as such, but I have chosen to present it,

as the diagram perfectly reflects the haphazard decision-making and the non-linearity involved in thinking during interpreting.

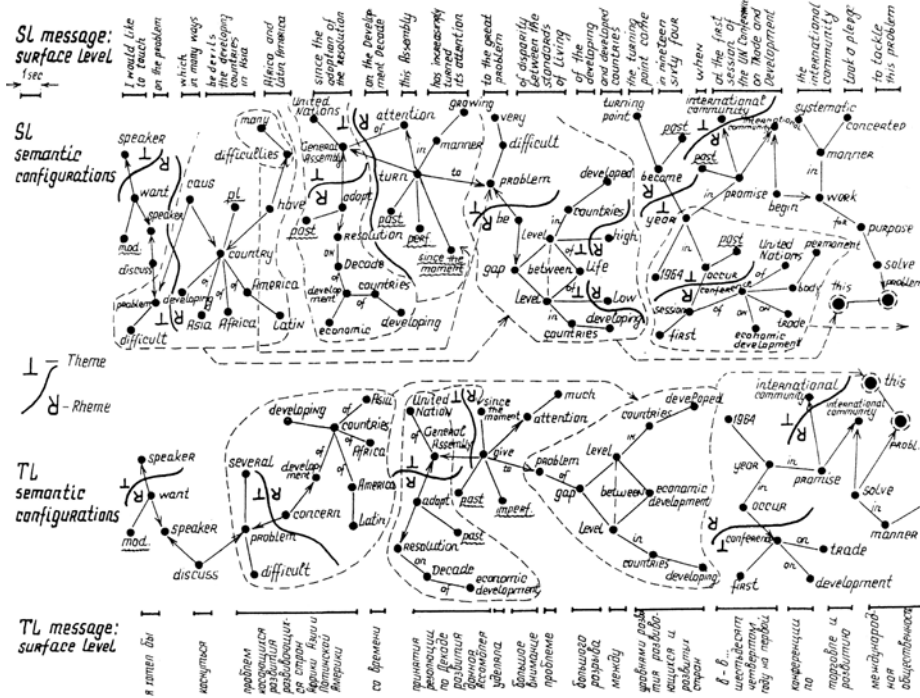


Figure 3: Chernov's (1979) model of real time representations of the related SL and TL messages. Taken from Pöchhacker and Schlesinger (2001, 103).

In his article on understanding for interpreting, Charles Tijus (1994) describes – from the point of view of psychology – a scheme of mental operations, which “take place in less than a split of a second and we are not always aware of them”.

The model in Figure 4 shows that understanding helps current word-to-word translation, but also helps prepare the interpretation of the sentences to come by activating knowledge that could be relevant in advance. This mechanism has the effect of disambiguating the source content that is provided by sounds.

Tijus (1994) points out the system of references from visual input, sounds (and words heard) and the activation of contextual knowledge to sentences and syntax (structural background). The model is annotated as a sociolinguistically sensitive in Pöchhacker (2004), though I would rather say that in Cokely's (1992) model the operations going on in the mind of the

interpreter are embedded in a broader context of the individual interpreter’s personality, taking into account factors like cultural awareness or contextual knowledge.

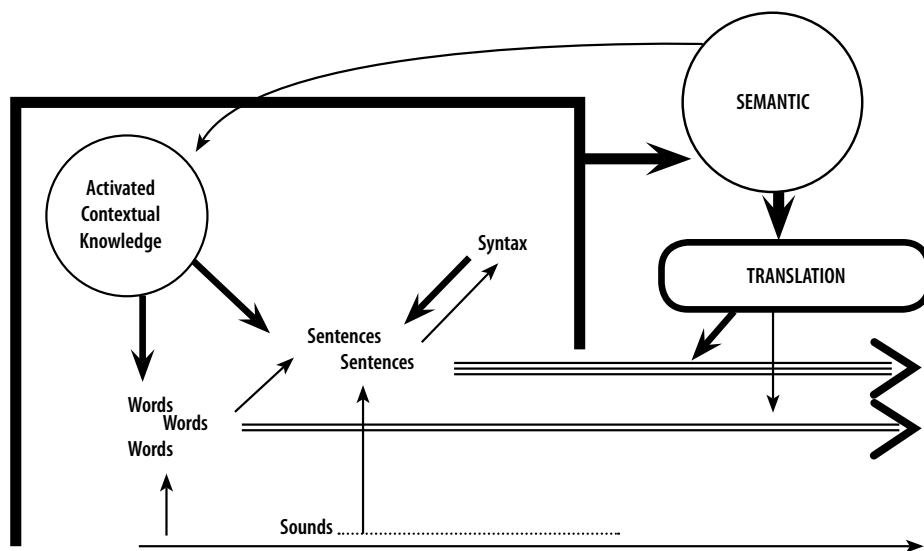


Figure 4: The effect of meaning in translation (Tijus 1994, 45).

1.3 Setton’s Cognitive-Pragmatic Model

The model proposed by Robin Setton (1999), which he qualifies as a “cognitive-pragmatic model”, focuses on the level of *intermediate cognitive representation* of meaning. The foundations of his extended corpus-based research are relevance theory, speech act theory and cognitive semantics.

Setton (1999) hypothesized that a single contextualised model of the discourse should be constructed for interpretation, which would allow for a more unitary account of coordination. His model is based on a corpus analysis of the language pairs German-English and Chinese-English.

It features a model of the act of SI, which attempts to show graphically the “incremental assembly of meaning over a string of incoming discourse” (Setton 1999, 82). It seeks to integrate three variables included in the existing SI models – subjective knowledge, on-line strategies and stylistic preference – into a unifying characterization of SI performance which combines linguistic processing models with cognitive and pragmatic principles. Mental Model theory, a cornerstone of the characterisation, proposes that the mind of the interpreter does not merely “receive” concepts, perceptions and affect:

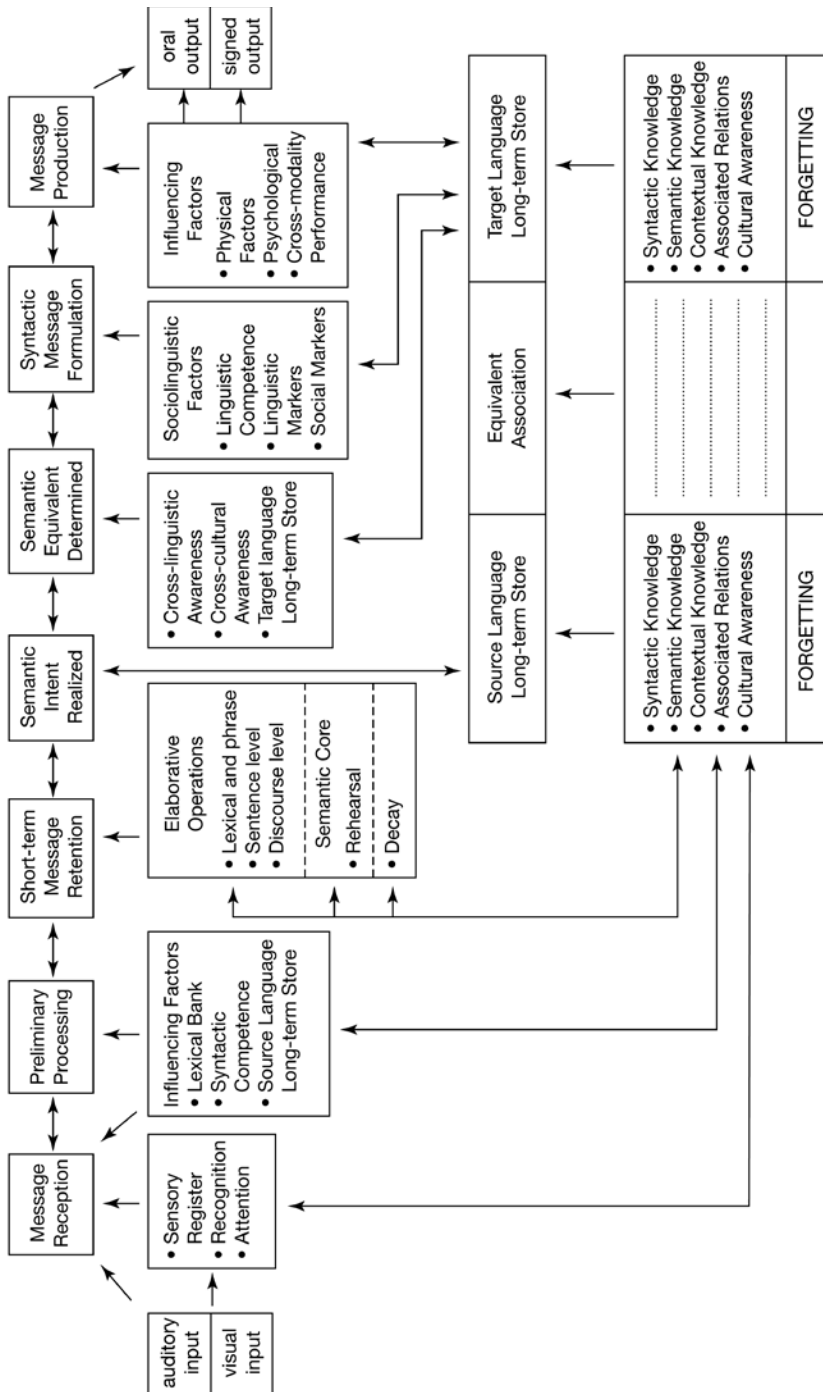


Figure 5: Cokely's (1992) sociolinguistically sensitive process model.

Not an in vitro exercise, SI attempts to identify with the speaker's intentions, attitudes and content through a process of exploiting available evidence. The array of available evidence allows the interpreter to begin building a mental model of each portion of discourse even before its representation is complete in the speaker's speech. (Anderson 2000, 672)

Setton (1999) also attempts to apply his findings from SI research to understanding language, but his generalisations are based on too small a corpus

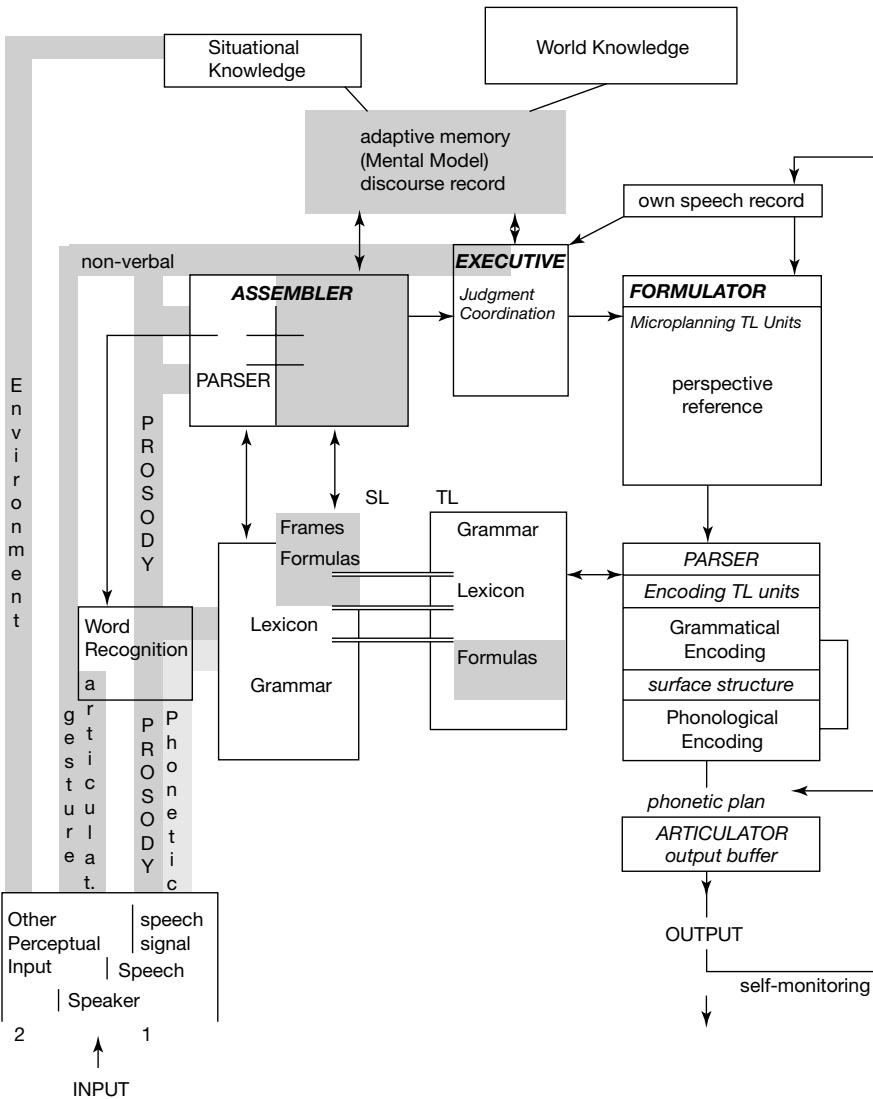


Figure 6: Setton's (1999, 65) model of processing in simultaneous interpreting.

(consisting of five interpreters) and the corpus itself is based on interpretations from only three languages. This exemplifies the problematic quality of all corpora, namely that the samples are so diverse that it can be difficult to generalize about the occurrence of errors and their origins; additionally, the corpus does not consist exclusively of speeches originally interpreted in a real conference setting, as some of them were performed only during simulations. Setton tries to combine a practitioner's approach (see Gile (1994) and his SI research classification) with cognitive science. His corpus research presents an enormous wealth of examples with commentaries and classifications. The intention of the author to extend research on SI more into the field is invaluable, though the amount of very detailed observations make the results rather incomprehensible.

1.4 The Cognitive Approach

Cognitive sciences can open up new horizons in interpreting studies and could be part of what Gile (1994) calls a Renaissance in research on interpreting: "Most of the research work is still done by practicing interpreters, but they are increasingly attempting to use findings and ideas from studies on written translation and from the cognitive sciences" (1994, 3).

1.4.1 The Three Stages of Interpreting as Three Stages of Cognitive Activity

I would like to examine and discuss a paper on the cognitive approach to the theory of interpreting, by a team of Spanish researchers – Presentación Padilla, Maia Teresa Bajo and Francisca Padilla (1999). In their Proposal for a Cognitive Theory the authors identify three stages of what they call language mediation (1999, 61):

- 1) The communicative function established between the speaker or writer (the first sender) of the source text or discourse and the mediator as first recipient.
- 2) The mental activity of the mediator processing the message received (either written or spoken).
- 3) The communicative function established between the mediator as second sender of the target text or discourse and the final recipients of the message.

As in many previous models, beginning with Herbert 50 years ago, three stages of interpreting are identified in our consideration:

- I) analysis and understanding of the source text or discourse in L1;
- II) translation or reformulation of the source text or discourse to L2;
- III) production of the text or discourse in L2 once reformulated.

Padilla, Bajo, and Padilla (1999, 62) take as their starting assumption a well-known axiom, that of “causing the same reaction in the final recipients of the translated or interpreted message as that which they would have received if they had understood it in its L1”. Leaving aside the sociological implications of this statement (it would mean the complete understanding of the original message with the whole socio-cultural and linguistic environment), for the authors it means understanding on many levels – phonological, lexical and semantic, textual and the discourse level. This is a position of traditional linguistic and pragmatic analysis; I would like to look closer at the benefit of the cognitive approach that is announced in the title.

Looking at the outline of three stages in interpreting, which I believe the authors have borrowed from older research in order to be able to frame their real matter of interest – the mental activity of the mediator processing the message received (see above) – I would consider only stage 2 to be relevant for research from the position of cognitive psychology. Yes, there certainly is a communicative function established between the speaker and the interpreter, but I believe that the speaker does not have the interpreter in mind as the first receiver of his or her speech, or in very rare cases, usually when the speaker himself or herself is an interpreter, the receiver is in fact the real audience or what the speaker supposes to be the general or typical listener of his or her speech. The notion of a communicative function is more a virtual one.

The same applies to the third stage: the interpreter has the receiver – the audience – in mind, but there is no real communication going on between the interpreter and the audience as the interpreter does not wait for any feedback from the listeners; still, in some cases interpreters can monitor the reactions of the audience visually and even though the content of this visual feedback is too general (everything is all right – something is going on), the influence of this feedback on the interpreter might be a slowing down or reformulating of what has already been said or bringing in more detail, etc. Still, I would say that statistically these cases are of little importance for any generalization. I purposely shall not include the visual feedback between the interpreter and the audience in the model, as it has little influence on the mental activity of the interpreters; only in the sense of distracting their attention or making them insecure – and these are influences every interpreter consciously tries to avoid. Let us take an example: the speaker from stage one gets this visual feedback, too, with some time-lag, and has the opportunity to explicate his or her message if he or she detects that audience may not be understanding or following. I do not want to go into detail here on the confusion such feedback reflection might cause, as it is not a very frequent case.

Let us inspect stage 2) – the mental activity of the mediator processing the message received: As already stated, to interpret the received message in such

a way as to cause the same reaction in the final recipients as if they had received the message in their language, the interpreter must fully understand the message linguistically, proceed to the discourse level, and take into account any other influences known from sociolinguistic models like that of Cokely (1992).

Padilla, Bajo, and Padilla (1999) state that the way of achieving this goal is the creation of a propositional structure in which the propositions must connect. Having analysed all levels, the interpreter creates what is called a *mental representation* of the text in their mind. Their following argumentation is based on Kintch's (1988) notion that a text or discourse is processed in a series of cycles and on the *seven propositions per cycle* count, reflecting the 7 +- 2 pieces of information traditionally considered to define the capacity of a +- trained interpreter. They assert that in each cycle "linguistic overlapping or coherence is sought between the propositions involved" (Padilla, Bajo, and Padilla 1999, 63). If there is overlapping in the argument they contain, these propositions are connected. If there is no overlapping, the propositions are not connected and a "series of micro-processes take place (inferences, searching in the long-term memory, etc.)" (Padilla, Bajo, and Padilla 1999, 63). I would like to focus on the terms *linguistic overlapping* or *coherence*. Overlapping is usually used to refer to temporal simultaneity of processes, as when in consecutive interpreting listening and note-taking are overlapping activities. Linguistic overlapping would refer rather to text cohesion, the grammatical or lexical means that hold a text together. So, to eliminate the rather vague term of overlapping, Padilla, Bajo, and Padilla (1999) say that there must be cohesion and coherence present in the original message to make it possible for the interpreter to follow the message.

The authors then involve the top-down and bottom-up approach, stating that on the level of macro-processes, "relevant previous knowledge stored in long-term memory is recovered, following the 'theory of schemata'", and on the micro-structural level, "micro-propositions of lesser importance are eliminated, a summary is made of the main part of the text and inferences are made" (Padilla, Bajo, and Padilla 1999, 63). The top-down process starts, in their view, with the conceptual representation and continues to the analysis of the input. The inference of starting with "conceptual representation" is rather problematic, as at the beginning of the interpreted section of speech (let us use their concept of a cycle), the conceptual representation is as yet unknown; it evolves in the course of the section of speech, so the "conceptual representation" necessarily has the form of a hypothesis, which is proved, or corrected, or rejected and reformulated in the process of interpreting. The authors further suggest that during these processes (bottom-up and top-down analysis), "interpreters make use of previous knowledge and of what we shall call the structure of expectations of the 'mediator'" (1999, 64).

1.4.2 The Constructive of Serial Comprehension

Here comes another point I would like to examine: having arrived at this conclusion, the authors think that “the way in which these levels are presented could indicate that they occur serially” (Padilla, Bajo, and Padilla 1999, 63), but their approach – shared, as they assert, by other psycholinguists and translation theorists – is that comprehension in translation and interpreting is a *constructive*, not *serial*, process, so that the mediator / recipient constructs a mental model of what is being communicated.

I would like to carry on the argument of comprehension being serial and constructive in interpreting. For the time being, I just shall suggest that the understanding of the text is constructed in successive cycles that contain a “unit of meaning”, formed by propositions and evolving until a previously hypothetical construction is proved, rejected or reshaped in the process of interpreting.

Another view Padilla, Bajo and Padilla (1999) bring into the discussion is that of Danks (1995), indicating a series of factors that characterize comprehension in translation and interpreting:

- 1) the way in which the mediator reads / listens and analyses the text is conditioned by his or her previous knowledge of the subject, the type of recipients the translation or interpreting is meant for, the circumstances that give rise to or motivate the text or discourse, etc. (orienting conditions);
- 2) the use that is to be made of the translation or interpreting also determines the manner in which the task of comprehension is approached, since those factors in the text or discourse which are important and relevant are emphasized (Skopos Theory).

Therefore, comparing the tasks of translation and interpreting leads to the observation that both share the analysis of linguistic input at the levels mentioned. They also share the creation of a mental model; for this to be implemented it is especially relevant to combine information from the text with previous knowledge, to understand the intention of the writer / speaker and communicate it to the reader / listener in an appropriate way.

I would like to use this and other findings to support my suggested model, but before I start constructing it, I will bring in findings from the opposite bank of research that corresponds with my understanding of how speeches are designed and how a speaker constitutes the mental image (as a counterpart to mental representation in interpreting) contained in each speech.

1.4.3 The Three-Stage Model of Speech Construction

One of the models describing the process of speech production is the one formulated by Willem Levelt (1989) as the three-stage model. In this model, the

conceptualizer generates *preverbal messages*, in the second stage the *formulator* encodes them as *internal speech*, and an *articulator* produces *overt speech*.

The same process could apply in the production of an interpreted speech, with one difference – the interpreter cannot start *conceptualizing* the speech as the primary mental representation of the ideas is not available to them from the very beginning of the interpreting process. Apart from consecutive interpreting, where the mental representation of the speech is more or less clear to the interpreter (or any listener) after the speaker has finished delivering their speech or the respective section of the speech, in simultaneous interpreting this mental representation is fluid, continuously changing through the process of listening and gaining more pieces of information, so that the interpreter basically has no chance to work with clear concepts and their *internal speech* resembles a track followed by a moving object, facing the necessity to make a quick decision at forking paths at every moment of carrying out their task. As a result, the *overt speech* is more or less *an approximation to the mental image* that was clearly in the mind of the original speaker, before they started conceptualizing and formulating it.

We can find this notion in Ghelley Chernov's (1976) article about psycholinguistic research:

A simultaneous interpretation model framework, such as the one that I have suggested, is based on the assumption that probability prediction concerns the successive units of sense (semantic components and their relationship) in the SL message, while the interpreter is engaged in the anticipatory synthesis of verbal components of the TL message he is in the process of regenerating. (Chernov 1976, 106)

This is a fact in simultaneous interpreting, and in the process of approximating and optimizing the formulation of the concepts that the interpreters use as reference for their internal speech, shortcomings must occur. It is impossible to achieve an identical mental representation, even if the wording (materialization of the concepts) were different. Approximation to the original is the most an interpreter can do in any setting, any discourse, any situation.

The shortcomings caused by the complexity of the above-mentioned process become obvious – that means audible – only in the third stage of speech production, the overt stage, or in terms of interpreting, the production of the text or discourse in L2 once reformulated (see above). Due to the nature of the interpreting process, the interpreter can seldom go back, change the concept in their mind, adjust their *internal speech* to the new concept and re-produce a new, more exact representation in the corrected *overt speech*. Most of all, they have to make the most possible use of anticipation, but again, due to the

nature of anticipation, deficiencies occur, which usually cannot be instantly cleared up.

That brings us to the first conclusion:

- As a result of the nature of the interpreting process, the receiver of the message, the audience, has to rely on the “approximate” rendering of the original mental image behind the original speech.

And the second conclusion:

- Interpreting is a consequent process of approximation to the mental image that the interpreter has been constructing on the basis of linguistic, textual and discourse features, which the interpreter can identify only in the course of interpreting.

1.5 The Cognitive Model of Simultaneous Interpreting

Let us suggest a model that will try to include anticipation and the predictive formulation of thoughts, but also the retrospective self-corrections that help the interpreter to approximate to the ST as much as the process allows:

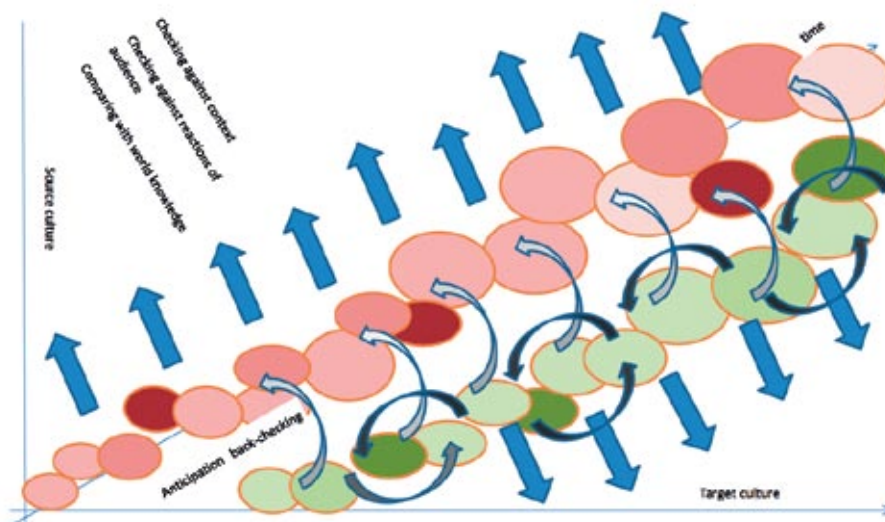


Figure 7: Cognitive model of simultaneous interpreting.

Simultaneous interpreting is an activity that happens in time. Simultaneity, however, is just a socially agreed concept, a metaphor. In fact much of the mental activity of the interpreter must happen in the very short period of time between auditory reception and speech production, i.e. the presentation of the

result of the interpreter's analysis of the mental representation of the original speech in their mind.

The time lag between original and interpreted speech, as demonstrated in Figure 7, is represented by the shift between pink (original) and green (interpreted speech). In fact it could be captured better in a 3D model, but for our purposes let us declare that axis z is time. For better understanding, the whole space between axes x and y should be understood as a field, three-dimensionally, not as a vanishing line locked to the intersection of x and y , as in stereometry.

The different shades of original (pink) and target (green) units of meaning, represented in our charts by ovals, refer to the different density of each unit, in terms of the number of cognitive processes that must be carried out before the interpreter arrives at a decision and formulates their rendering of that particular unit. The overlapping of these ovals (units) refers to the simultaneity of working (in terms of the cognitive activity of the interpreter) on subsequent units of meaning. Their zig-zag ordering refers to the compromises an interpreter must make within the dichotomy between source culture (respecting the speaker's cultural background) and target culture (approaching the listeners' cultural background).

The frame in which interpreting happens could be described by many concepts from the cognitive sciences, such as environment, setting, discourse, communicational intent, contract, etc. I have decided to embed the act of interpreting in the anthropological concept of culture, as it can serve as a polarized benchmark. It can clearly be bi-polarized, as it is mutually understood what we mean by source and target culture, whereas it would be impossible to define the source and target communicational intent, source and target discourse, or to describe how the contract of the source client corresponds with the needs and expectations of the target client.

For this reason, axis x and y shall be defined as source and target culture, as abstract as it may seem. Still, I believe that these represent all features that could be demanded to be contained in conditions defining the act of interpreting: sender coming from culture A, receiver from culture B, environment agreed by members of culture A and B (conference locations and premises are a wonderful example of intercultural negotiation), a contract assigned by a member of culture A but with the order to fit members of culture B, discourse that must be universal enough to be understood by A and B language communities, etc.

The act of interpreting happens on the interface between source and target culture, as a series of cycles of listening-analyzing-anticipation-creating a mental image-producing a hypothesis – to become a proved or corrected provision

that is continually back-checked against context (on axis z) and against source and target culture, unified in the personality of the interpreter as *world knowledge*.

What connects these cycles is the already discussed *overlapping of provisions*, though I would rather bring in a concept from the cognitive field, a certain narrativity – I would especially like to refer to Mark Turner (1996) and his understanding of narrative processes³ – of the speech that enables the receivers / listeners to follow the development of the speech / construction of the text from the mental representation being constantly hypothesized, checked and back-checked and finally, when the cycle closes, declared valid.

2. Conclusion

Interpreting can be defined as a time-bound communicative act consisting of a series of interconnected cycles of cognitive activities happening on the contact field (interface) between two cultures, the source and the target culture, and two languages that emanate from these cultures.

My intention is to present interpreting as a process involving a set of cycles of cognition and decision-making that constantly has to adjust to changing conditions, following the line of thought of the speaker and reflecting on any semi-otic “hint” such as an allusion or reference to the cultural context. The ST is gradually changing and so interpreter, in their effort to construct the TT, must constantly be on the move as well, planning and anticipating ahead, alert to what is happening and back-checking their formulations against finalized sections of the original speech and including omissions in sections-to-come; this process is repeated section for section. Its success depends on the cognitive capacity of the interpreter and on the interpreter’s ability to put identified and constructed mental representations into words that would lead to corresponding mental representations in the audience.

The way in which I constructed my model is quite different from the models I have commented on throughout this article, though I believe it is not less schematic, just more “organic”. As a human mind is much more influenced by outer conditions than a computer, which is in fact a closed system operating in a programmed algorithm and processing only data input, a human mind is more susceptible, more vulnerable, but also more creative and flexible. For these reasons I prefer to seek an analogy among living things, organisms and nature.

³ The scope of the article presented at the conference does not allow me to go into more depth; suffice to say that Turner (1996) understands narration as a series of parables that we carry in our minds, described as imagination schemes, or spatial stories.

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Teaching Community Interpreting

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ABSTRACT: Community interpreting is gaining scientific recognition. Nevertheless, its early development results from urgent needs of a particular community of immigrants in a host country to communicate with public institutions. Therefore, it seems necessary for the university curricula to respond to the challenge and prepare interpreters for working in the capacity of community interpreters. In my paper I would like to present my proposal for the classes for first level full-time students of the Spanish language section (for whom Polish is language A and Spanish is language B). As a sworn translator and court interpreter of the Spanish language in Poland, I have been providing such classes in the Institute of Applied Linguistics since 2008, getting each year more experience and trying to modify the curriculum so that to meet the expectations of both the students and the market. Moreover, the aim of this paper is to indicate the motivating value of the course for both the students and the teacher resulting from pioneering in the field, at least in Polish higher school education.

KEYWORDS: community interpreting; public institutions; immigrants; training program; ethics

1. Introduction

According to Roberts (1997, 7) “community interpreting is the oldest type of interpreting”. It is emphasized that it “refers to the type of interpreting which takes place in the public service sphere to facilitate communication between officials and lay people: at police departments, immigration departments, social welfare centres, medical and mental health offices, schools and similar” (Baker 1998, 33).

Other denominations for community interpreting used alternatively are: liaison interpreting, public service interpreting, cultural interpreting, dialogue interpreting, ad hoc interpreting, escort interpreting, contact interpreting, medical interpreting, legal interpreting and three-cornered interpreting (Tryuk 2006, 21–25). All of them either indicate the setting in which the interpreting is carried out, point out the characteristics of the interpreting, or emphasize the role of the interpreter.

In Poland the profession has not been recognized yet. Neither public institutions nor private clients who possibly use the services provided by community interpreters are aware of existence of such a profession. Even the interpreters themselves actually never admit they are community interpreters, instead they say they are (simply) interpreters. Therefore, the general understanding among

possible addressees of community interpreting is that there are translators and interpreters who in turn may interpret simultaneously or consecutively.

2. General Information about the Course

The aim of the course is to provide students with knowledge of issues relating to interpreting in various settings: police, court, hospital, asylum, etc. Important topics of the course include problems of applying ethical principles that should be observed by interpreters, as well as roles of the interpreter in the act of communication (Kierzkowska 2001, 74–78). The course is optional which means that the students may attend the class on voluntary basis however, once they have signed up for the course, the attendance is obligatory.

The course has a form of a 30-hour tutorial designed for the students of the fifth semester of first level full-time studies in the Institute of Applied Linguistics, University of Warsaw. The addressees of the tutorial are students of the Spanish language section (for whom Polish is language A, Spanish is language B, and English or French, or German is language C). It is worth mentioning that in the beginning the course was provided to the students of the fourth semester, it was however necessary to modify the program. It was decided that the course should be postponed as much as possible (to the fifth semester) as it could not be shifted even further on (the sixth-semester-students are supposed to focus on writing their BA theses). In my opinion it is a good time for the type of tutorial where students read scientific articles and books, prepare presentations on the basis of what they have read, discuss the topics in the classroom and have an opportunity to talk to experienced interpreters invited to the classes thanks to which they are getting more aware of the profession (thus, the theoretical component of the course prevails). At the same time, however, it is still too early for practical classes of community interpreting for the mere fact that it is only the sixth semester when the students shall have introductory course on interpreting (then, those who would be admitted to the interpreting section of the second level full-time studies program shall master the acquired skills) (Tryuk 2006, 182–85). A credit is given to those who satisfied the course requirements, such as:

- regular class attendance;
- regular and active participation in class activities and discussions, both assessed by the instructor;
- presentation on a selected subject.

As to the effects (knowledge, skills and attitudes), having completed the course the students will:

- be able to define the concept of community interpreting;

- carry out lexical and pragmatic analysis of the act of communication with participation of the interpreter;
- identify roles of the interpreter in the act of communication;
- correctly assess manifestations of the interpreter's creativity;
- understand the meaning of principles of professional ethics of interpreters.

From the above it results that the classes do not provide for gaining practical interpreting skills by the students but rather aim at only introducing the practical aspect, as well as familiarizing with the concept, context and deontology of the profession (Harris 2000, 1–5).

3. The Need for Teaching Community Interpreting

I have been providing community interpreting classes since 2008, with 21 graduates from the tutorial up to the present. My proposal to teach community interpreting resulted not only from my scientific and research interests but also from the fact that I have been a sworn translator and court interpreter of the Spanish language aware of both practical and theoretical aspects of court interpreting understood as a specific variety of community interpreting.

At the stage of designing the course it was necessary to consider a present situation in the field of teaching community interpreting in Poland:

[T]he skills of young graduates of translation / interpreting studies do not stand up to the needs of the community interpreting market. Sometimes, training is done intuitively; it comprises a lot of subjects, taught in a superficial way, and it focuses mainly on terminology. . . . We may hope that developments at the 'training' stage will boost changes at other levels of the professionalization process, mainly in institutionalization and cooperation between interpreters and representatives of public services who use their services: judges, police officers, medicine doctors and borders services officers. (Tryuk 2008, 100)

Indeed, there has been only one project to teach community interpreting in Poland. In the years 2007–2010 the Adam Mickiewicz University in Poznań launched Postgraduate Study in Community Interpreting designed for those speaking English and willing to work as community interpreters in Great Britain and Ireland. The training program covered 120 hours, including: lecture in community interpreting, as well as classes in economy, education and social issues, legal issues, public life and institutions in the British Isles, and

health care.¹ Generally speaking, the course adopted more lexical approach to interpreting rather than the one promoting attitudes and increasing awareness of the profession.

On the other hand, in spite of the fact that public institutions in Poland declare to be interested in the issue of training specialists who could provide services to both officials and immigrants, they fail to mention community interpreters among such specialists. A representative example of such viewpoint is the one presented by the Office for Foreigners which has been collaborating with the Polish Migration Forum to carry out the pilot project to support local communities hosting refugee centres to promote attitudes of mutual tolerance and understanding, e.g. intercultural workshops for the Poles who, due to their profession, may work with immigrants (teachers, social workers, medical personnel, etc.).² It is necessary to stress that in the Office for Foreigners “it is officers themselves who generally serve as interpreters. . . . They believe that . . . psychological knowledge is much more important than language competence” (Tryuk 2008, 93). Thus, the profession of the interpreter seems not to be recognized and considered as key for any communication between public administration institutions and immigrant communities. Services provided by community interpreters are underestimated, which in turn contributes to the fact that the picture of community interpreting in Poland leaves much to be desired. It is worth emphasizing that it is undoubtedly the economic dimension of community interpreting which makes the interpreters turn towards more lucrative conference interpreting due to the fact that “community interpreting alone does not provide an adequate source of income to most people in the field; it is, in many cases, a secondary or even tertiary activity . . . in most countries in the world” (Roberts 1997, 19).

I am perfectly conscious of the fact that my tutorial is just a drop in the ocean nevertheless I believe it is necessary to sensitize the students to the necessity to act in the field.

4. Content of the Course

The detailed program of the tutorial covers the following issues:

- definition and object of community interpreting;
- community interpreting within the context of interpreting;
- importance of community interpreting: historical background and future development in Poland and abroad;
- principles of community interpreting on the basis of a historical Spanish example – document “Recopilación de Leyes de los Reynos de las Indias” of 1681;

¹ Detailed information is available online at www.ifa.amu.edu.pl.

² Further details are available at www.udsc.gov.pl.

- principles of community interpreting on the basis of contemporary codes of ethics – in Poland and abroad (selected examples);
- professional and natural interpreters: the necessity for professionalize community interpreting – in Poland and abroad;
- interpreting in particular settings: police, refugee centres, therapeutic sessions, hospitals, etc.;
- court interpreting as specific type of community interpreting;
- interpreter: device or human being?

Each class is composed of both theoretical and practical elements. The motivating value is that, as it has been already mentioned, classes are based on theory but I strive for shifting the emphasis naturally from theory onto practice. The theoretical part usually includes a presentation prepared by one of the participants of the course on a topic to be discussed during a particular lesson. The practical part was originally supposed to consist of performing (by the student) the role of the professional interpreter in a given setting. Nevertheless, due to the fact that the students still do not have the interpreting course at this stage of their studies, I had to modify the design of the classes. Therefore, the practical component includes:

- performing (by the student) the role of the natural interpreter in a given setting. Such tasks are supposed to show how important it is for a foreign-language speaking person to count on a professional interpreter;
- compiling glossaries for possible settings. This element was not taken into account at the stage of designing the course, however, with the passing of time it appeared necessary as the students' knowledge of Spanish was at some points far from expected. It should be commented that this item of the course is carried out in the form of homework – the students then exchange their ideas under the instructor's supervision;
- interviews with interpreters working in various settings (who share their experience of community interpreting). From my observations it results that testimony given by professional interpreters is a valuable factor of the course.

In other words, the aim of the tutorial is to teach about community interpreting without actually teaching practical skills. The students are assigned the task to interpret, e.g. in a medical setting, playing the roles of participants of the act of communication (the interpreter, the patient and the doctor) to become familiar with the sociological situation rather than to acquire the interpreting skills. From the beginning of the course the attention of the student is drawn to importance of one of the notions used to describe community interpreting, i.e. three-cornered interpreting, where the three corners of the sociological and

cultural context of the act communication are: the sender of the (source) message; the recipient of the (target) message; and the interpreter. Furthermore, the students are told that the participation of the three parties in the act of communication is equally valid. Therefore, such an interaction is not a dialogue between principal speakers, but a trilogue (cf. Tryuk 2006, 145). This leads to the statement that the community interpreter is a rightful participant of the act of communication within the sociological and cultural context. The interpreter is not a transparent and glass-like device. Contrary to that, he or she is a visible human being, often called a sensitive transmitter, sensitive because of the human nature and transmitter because of the role consisting in transmitting the message. It is worth stressing that the interpreter's activities cannot be assessed only from the perspective of linguistic correctness resulting from linguistic competence and irrespective of the sociological and cultural context. The interpreter is the only link between the principal parties of the act of communication who knows the reality affecting the content of statements produced by those parties. Therefore, it is impossible to isolate the interpreter from the remaining participants of the interaction. It seems to be justified by behaviours of the parties who refer to the interpreter instead of speaking directly to principal parties (Biernacka 2008, 181).

The above is one of the issues discussed in the classroom. It is worth on such occasions inviting professionals so that they could share their experience. Thus, the community interpreting is presented from various perspectives, and by this, the students are able to compare the theory they have read about with practice commented by real interpreters.

5. The Instructor's Versus the Students' Hopes and Expectations

My philosophy behind the course is a paraphrased quotation: "Interpreters are used not to being seen, and sometimes pride themselves on 'disappearing' in the background. I would be happy if *this course* contributes to making them and their profession more visible" (Wadensjö 1998, xi; italics added).³

Moreover, one of the purposes is making a step forward on the way to professionalization of the community interpreter's job. I would like to make the students aware of the importance of the profession and inculcate the deontological principles in them so that they spread the sense of dignity of the profession.

In order to consider the students' expectations regarding the course, each year at the first meeting I ask them to complete a short survey containing three questions:

³ The original idea comes from an introductory part to *Interpreting as Interaction*, a real Bible for community interpreters by Cecilia Wadensjö, Swedish researcher in community interpreting.

- What is community interpreting?
- Why is this course important to you?
- What are your expectations and suggestions for this course?

From the answers it results that:

- approximately 40% of the students who signed up for the course are able to give a proper definition of community interpreting while the other 60% either say “I do not know”, or are confused by either English denomination of the concept (and believe that the course is going to be about interpreting for the European Community) or its Polish equivalent by which they understand this variety of interpreting has very much in common with environment;⁴
- the course is important because they will *learn new things*, improve their knowledge of Spanish, will possess interpreting skills and become professional interpreters;
- the students expect they will have possibility to speak Spanish and develop linguistic skills.

Thus, the conclusion is that the students who sign up for the course (although they have familiarized with the program available in the Internet) actually do not have any knowledge of what they shall be taught and their expectations are rather general, focusing on lexical content and language acquisition.

6. Assumptions Versus First Steps

The assumptions have been verified by pedagogical practice, although the clash between the two angles is far from violent. Below there are some major concerns that should be considered for the future developing of the course.

First of all it appears that for the majority of the students the course is the first contact with the community interpreting as a notion, concept and type of interpreting. Therefore, it is extremely important to introduce the issue properly so that the students have no doubts as to the aims of the community interpreter services.

Moreover, the students' level of Spanish has been often insufficient to be able to understand specific topics (especially the one related to historical background and roles of the interpreter) and/or to participate in pedagogical exercises such as performing medical interviews etc. Thus, it is necessary to elaborate on the lexical content of the classes by providing Polish equivalents.

⁴ *Community interpreting* is translated into Polish as *tłumaczenie środowiskowe* (tłumaczenie = interpreting, środowiskowe = community), however, *środowiskowe* literally means *environmental*.

Furthermore, at some point the students become impatient as they have acquired some knowledge but cannot bring the skills into effect. Indeed, the Spanish speaking community in Poland does not belong to the most numerous.⁵

Also, it is difficult to keep the balance between theoretical and practical component of the course: it is actually impossible to introduce the practical element just because the introductory course on interpreting is scheduled for the sixth semester of the studies. In other words, the course is not, and cannot be, a training course teaching practical interpreting skills.

7. Conclusions: Some Ideas to Develop the Course and Get Feedback

The essential issue that I reconsider each time a new edition of the course is coming is that I do not want the course to be pure art for art's sake.

As presented, the course is delivered at a very early stage of the translation and interpreting studies thus it is necessary to cope with the subject with special care to attract the students to community interpreting. The feedback I get from the students is that they experience a kind of enlightenment due to the fact the course widens their horizons.

What I constantly bear in mind is that it is indispensable to ensure cohesion between the course and real-life interpreting services.

First of all, it appears the right idea to invite visitors. In my opinion, throughout the whole pedagogical process not only interpreters but also officials, doctors, judges, and representatives of other professions who have experience of community interpreting could play an important role.

It seems necessary to collaborate with professional organizations associating professionals, such as Polish Society of Sworn and Specialised Translators and the Association of Polish Sign Language Interpreters, to mention just a few. The aim of such cooperation would be again to make it possible to share experience and to enable the students to enter the market once they have completed further practical courses in interpreting.

To conclude, my course is just one step ahead but I believe it will develop into a regular community interpreting course.

⁵ For comparison, immigrants from the Russian Federation are at the top with regard to a number of those asking for the refugee status in Poland. To be more detailed: in the years 2003–2010, 66,607 refugees applied for the refugee status in the RP, including: 55,890 Russians and 15 refugees from Spanish speaking countries – Cuba, Columbia and Venezuela (www.udsc.gov.pl). It is also related to the fact that the standard of living of Spanish speaking immigrants, their level of education and purpose for visiting Poland are totally different from the ones represented by immigrants from Eastern Europe (it is obvious that for the immigrants from Latin America, Spain, and not Poland, is the main country of destination).

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Teaching Active Memory Skills as Part of Interpreter Training

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ABSTRACT: In this paper I describe the rationale behind teaching active memory skills as part of interpreter training, and I present some of the strategies and resources we use in our courses. Reliable memory is undoubtedly one of the key tools interpreters use in their work. However, when our students enter the first course of their Bachelor interpreter training, their active memory skills are often not sufficient. Students are usually well equipped with vocabulary, grammar and cultural background information but as informal questionnaires distributed in the initial interpreter seminars show, until the students start their regular interpreting practice, they do not realise how poor their active memory skills are. This paper provides some of the reasons behind the insufficient memory skills of the present-day secondary school leaver and analyses the consequences this particular inadequacy may have on the process of interpretation and its final outcome. Further, I discuss why some of the generally recommended strategies are not applicable in the training of secondary school leavers entering the course. Also, I describe the strategies and resources we use instead to remedy the situation and improve the active memory skills and overall preparedness of students to enter a career in interpreting.

KEYWORDS: interpreter training; memory; stress; active memory skills

1. Introduction

Interpreting is a very stressful occupation – there is no doubt about it. There are several studies that elaborate on stress in conference interpreting (e.g. Kurz 2003). Concentration, quick thinking, quick decision making, a reliable operational memory and the ability to work under stress – these are some of the key tools interpreters use in their work. Different people cope with stress differently but one of the generally acknowledged results of working under stress is that it has a negative impact on the ability to think, analyse and to retrieve certain information from one's memory (Samuel 1999, 79). Part of the interpreter training provided by our department aims to help the students get used to working under the stress of split attention, constant information load and working under the pressure of being exposed to a group who assess their performance. Interpreters need a strong and reliable operational memory that will not betray them in difficult situations. A reliable memory not only helps the interpreter to retrieve information swiftly but it also assists in the phases of analysis, deverbalsation and efficient reproduction.

2. Structure of Interpreter Training at the Department of English and American Studies, Philosophical Faculty, Palacký University

In our department we start our interpreter training with consecutive interpreting on community interpreting topics with short segments of texts. In the following stages our students continue through consecutive interpreting in local and regional government settings to consecutive interpreting on a range of topics including natural sciences, information technology, humanities, banking and finance, politics and culture. The segments of texts are gradually extended up to 4 minutes and then our students move on to a similar range of topics which they interpret simultaneously.

When our students enter the first course of their Bachelor interpreter training they are usually well equipped with vocabulary and grammar in both working languages and even with cultural and background information. However, as informal questionnaires distributed in the initial interpreter seminars showed, until students started regular interpreting practice, they had not realised how poor their active memory skills might be. One of the questions in the questionnaire asked which part of the course they had found most useful for the development and strengthening of their interpreting skills. Most students answered that it was memory exercises and that these exercises helped them gain confidence in interpreting.

3. “Poor Memory” – Reasons and Consequences

So what is the reason for their poor memory? Is it that some of them are born with insufficient memory capacity? Or is it that some of them simply cannot remember much, just as some people cannot sing well or run fast? The answer to both questions is negative of course, because a healthy human is born with unlimited memory capacity. Although scientists differ in their research on how much of our brain capacity we actually use, some state it is one third and some state it is one quarter (Vašina 2001, 7–8). Therefore there is plenty of spare brain capacity within an average person – and these students do not have a handicap that would impair their memory. Furthermore, they are secondary school leavers, which means that they have been directed towards higher education during their secondary school study, they also have a so-called Maturita Certificate, they are linguistically gifted and they would have had to sit an entrance examination to test their language skills to get a place on our course. Could it be their age then that affects the quality of their memory? By asking this question I do not suggest that our students are getting older and that they tend to be more forgetful and suffer from benign

or natural memory loss due to older age. What I suggest is that the present system of Czech education steers students away from memorising facts and passages of text and data. Instead it prefers learning by experience. Before I give details of the consequences of such a way of learning, I will list the two main reasons behind the decline of memory skills in a healthy person: the first is that the brain is overloaded with information; the other is that it is not stimulated enough and it is becoming lazy (Vašina 2001, 10).

Currently the Czech Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports, which is the body governing secondary schools, does not issue a country-wide curriculum. Schools themselves design their curriculum in the form of the so-called school education programmes, and advice on how to teach a particular subject and what methodology should be used is available in the form of recommendations at methodological seminars and workshops. However, as I have already mentioned, learning by heart is currently not an advocated method of gaining knowledge in Czech schools.

I do not dismiss learning through one's own experience, but unless students enjoy poetry, unless they sing in a band or a choir or attend a drama group, they are not used to memorizing systematically and they are not systematically taught to combine individual and seemingly unrelated pieces of information into longer sequences in their mind. A proof of this can easily be obtained when students are asked – all of a sudden, and without any preparation – to list a dozen telephone numbers with names. The most common reaction you can observe is: “Why? I do not have to remember any; they are stored in my mobile.” The current generation of secondary school leavers is not used to engaging their memory beyond the scope of everyday routine because they simply do not have to do so, and therefore I am suggesting that their memory may not be stimulated enough. Further, to support my observation, there are numerous studies or publications that describe the harmful effect of storing information in alternative ways, i.e. mobile phones, computers, etc. (Samuel 1999, 80). These studies also recommend regular memory training as the best way to maintain or improve one's memory skills.

Practical exercises in seminars are supported by lectures where lecturers and students discuss the role, functioning and categorization of human memory. We start with the information on the well-known Ebbinghaus's (1885) forgetting curve and Miller's (1956) magical number 7 plus or minus 2 theory from which we move on to individual working memory models, namely Gerver's (1975), which is also one of the models considering the involvement of short-term memory in interpreting, and Gile's (1995). Of course there are many more models which focus on the role of working memory in interpreting and outside this field (e.g. Moser 1978; Cowan

1988) but since they were published 20 years apart, they clearly illustrate the development in cognitive research between the early 1970s and 1990s.¹

4. The Practical Impact

The practical impact of the lack of such memory training, which we can observe in our courses, is that once we start moving towards longer and more complicated sentence structures, the performance of students who do not train their memory starts to decline. The reproduction in the target language starts to be:

- (a) inaccurate – students focus on the less relevant parts of the message and omit the parts essential for conveying the general meaning;
- (b) chaotic – students lose the thread of the argument, wrongly connecting different pieces of information;
- (c) students remain silent because they could not recall the information or they invested so much effort in note-taking that they missed part of the message;
- (d) or, on the other hand, to avoid remaining silent, they add their own ideas which were not in the original message at all.

When, during our feedback, we analyse the rendering of problematic parts together with the students, we come to the point that the problem was not that students did not understand the original message or that their vocabulary was not sufficient to convey the meaning. The problem occurs due to the fact that they either do not remember the connection between individual segments and arguments or they just panic that the sentence is too long and they cannot remember it – let alone analyse it.

5. How to Remedy the Situation

The good news here is that all is not lost. There are various strategies to remedy the situation and they are also suitable for interpreter training. They can be combined to make sure that various skills are covered. I will comment on several strategies recommended for improving memory skills and explain how we use them in our courses.

There is, from my point of view, an indispensable publication, *Memory and Language Exercises for Interpreters* (Dingová 2008). It was intended as a training

¹ In this context it is worthy of note that since this paper was presented at the TIFO 2011 conference, a dissertation by Šárka Timarová (2012) on working memory in interpreting, offering a valuable and detailed overview of research on cognitive processes in simultaneous interpreting from the 1970s to the present, has been published.

resource for sign language interpreters but we successfully use it in our courses. The book is excellent as it combines training of both verbal and visual memory skills, analysing a text, its reformulation and also team work. We tend to use the exercises in every session for the beginner student interpreters and for the more advanced students approximately once a month. The author was inventive as she included materials to train remembering various kinds of information and their combinations that interpreters encounter in their work. The book offers exercises to test long memory skills (completion of sayings and proverbs; adding the missing partner from the famous pair – e.g. Adam and . . . ; completion of idiomatic expressions). To test their short term memory skills students can practice remembering letters and numbers in a table (where numbers can be replaced with various symbols), remembering numbers and their sequences (e.g. car registration plates) and many others. These exercises are fun and students can test which memory skills they are weak at. There is another important aspect which I would like to highlight in connection with memory training – it is peer pressure. Students naturally ask their colleagues about their score and it pushes them to improve their own because they do not want to be the “weakest link”.

Roderick Jones (2007) offers the strategies of mnemotechnics, tagging ideas with numbers and ticking points off in your mind, as well as visualisation, where students can visualise what the interpreter is saying. However, Jones himself warns that some texts may be too abstract, so they are difficult to visualise. I would like to comment on one more disadvantage of this strategy which I have encountered in interpreter training; this is getting carried away by the visualisation of a particular scene. For their practical Bachelor state examination task, our students were given a Yale Class Day speech by Tony Blair in which he looks back at his student years in Oxford. He describes the following scene:

- (1) *I remember, back in the mists of time, my Dad greeting me off the train at Durham railway station. I was a student at Oxford. Oxford and Cambridge are for Britain kind of like Yale and Harvard, only more so. It was a big deal. I had been away for my first year and was coming home. I stepped off the train. My hair was roughly the length of Rumpelstiltskin's and unwashed. I had no shoes and no shirt. My jeans were torn – and this was in the days before this became a fashion item. Worst of all, we had just moved house. Mum had thrown out the sitting room drapes. I had retrieved them and made a sleeveless long coat with them. My Dad greeted me. There were all his friends at the station. Beside me, their kids looked paragons of respectability.*²

² The sample is a part of the speech transcript which is available on the website of the Office of Tony Blair. Blair, Tony. 2008. “Tony Blair Delivers Yale Class Day Speech.” Accessed October 30, 2011. <http://www.tonyblairoffice.org/speeches/entry/tony-blair-delivers-yale-class-day-speech/>.

What we experienced with some of our students was that they had enjoyed visualising the scene so much that they started adding pieces of information that were not originally stated:

- (2) (a) *the speaker looked dirty;*
(b) *the coat was flowery and had tassels;*
(c) *the drapes were white and see-through;*
(d) *all his dad's colleagues were at the station with their families to greet the speaker.*

It is not desirable for interpreters to add their own ideas or be carried away by details of one particular event on the expense of the remaining message. Therefore the visualisation strategy may not be the best to recommend – particularly to beginners.

6. Conclusions

We prepare our students to perform well in a variety of situations and to be confident in different types of discourse. For this reason we aim at achieving more than just pure memory training by using memory exercises. We utilize such exercises as much as they can be utilised. Our goal is to improve our students' working memory skills, interpreting skills and also language skills. Therefore we do not rely only on external resources, but some of our resources are custom-made. We prepare these resources ourselves and we use them not only with beginners but also with more advanced students of interpreting. We attempt to connect a memory exercise to a relevant topic which students interpret in a particular seminar. In this way we can practise time-lag delivery as a preparation for simultaneous interpreting together with the analysis of the text or with practising idiomatic expressions and sayings. In the seminars students will be asked to complete missing parts of the text (both in Czech and English) in written and spoken form or to perform a transfer from English into Czech and back into English in order to acquire and memorize particular idiomatic structures and collocations.

Our goals are to prepare the Bachelor students for high consecutive interpreting of 5–7 minute-long segments of text and to develop accuracy in simultaneous interpreting in our Master's course. Even if some of them may not wish to continue in the Master's course and they may start their interpreting or translation career with just a Bachelor degree, we believe we have helped them to develop their interpreting skills and become confident and reliable interpreters.

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TRANSLATION TECHNOLOGY

The Role of Technology in Translation Studies

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ABSTRACT: Various representations of translation technology (TTy), as used now by transnational companies and cutting-edge aware translators of non-fiction / technical texts, considerably transform the translation workflow. This involves mainly the usage of translation memories (TM) being boosted by statistical machine translation (SMT), which is becoming more extensive by the day. In effect, translators are less and less required to *render* and more and more required to *post-edit*. This not only means a substantial change for translation practice, it also raises fundamental questions in regards of the nature of the translator's task, the translation process, and the translation product. The paper seeks to address these issues and reflects on the present role of translation technology in translation studies.

KEYWORDS: translation technology (TTy); machine translation (MT); computer assisted translation (CAT); translator training

1. Introduction

The massive impact of computer technologies on the translation industry in the past decade is a fact which is unlikely to be questioned by anyone aware of the situation in language service providing. Ever growing digital space¹ contains ever growing digital content, much of which awaits being mediated, i.e. translated, to audiences who are foreign to the language in which the respective content was authored. Once-natural boundaries between language communities no longer represent a hindrance in the globalized world, with its ever growing trade of ideas, knowledge, and goods. The concept of Globalization, Internationalization, Localization, Translation (GILT) has been incorporated as a standard marketing strategy by a majority of companies with international / global ambitions (see e.g. Lingo Systems 2009).

The continued acceleration of these global processes would not have been possible without more efficient means of facilitating cross-language communication. Despite the growing role of vehicular languages, out of which English is probably the most prominent, the demand for these services grows by the day, and forecasts (DePalma 2011; WinterGreen Research 2011) suggest the trend

¹ Within the past decade the estimated number of active Internet websites grew from 17 million in November 2002 to 175 million in January 2012 (Netcraft 2012). The estimated number of Internet users grew from 587 million in September 2002 to 2.27 billion in December 2011 (Internet World Stats 2012).

will continue. Since human resources are naturally limited, technology needs to step in. And indeed it does, today more radically than ever. This paper seeks to reflect on the recent developments and will attempt to define the role of translation technology in translation studies research.

Translation technology (abbreviated as TTy) will be used in this paper as a term encompassing a variety of eventualities involving computers in translation. Unlike some other terms in use (such as machine translation, computer aided translation, translation aids / tools), it can function as a cover term without the risk of being ambiguous or misleading (Quah 2006; Pym 2011a).

For purposes of this paper, *translation* then will be understood in its most general and broad sense as both the process and the result of transferring a message rendered in one human language into a message rendered in another human language. In this sense we will be able to use the term without a direct reference to any particular translation theory and it will be applicable to all kinds of function, conditions and scenarios where computers are involved in the process.

2. From the Beginnings towards the State of the Art

The penetration of technology into the domain of translation began shortly after World War II when the usage of computers for translation was suggested in 1949 by Warren Weaver (see Weaver 1955) actually as the first non-numerical computer application. Lack of linguistic knowledge on the part of computer engineers led to overly optimistic and naive assumptions that computational tractability of translation between natural human languages is basically nothing more than decoding a cipher – a task to which first computers were put to during World War II. The Cold War in the 1950s and the growing need for translation as an indispensable part of industrial and scientific espionage boosted research on both sides of the Iron Curtain. Expectations were rather high, no less than full translation automation, i.e. feeding the machine (hence *machine translation* – MT) a text in one language and (instantly) collecting a text in another language, the quality of which would fully match the performance of a professional human translator. The very poor results of the first MT systems and the involvement of actual linguists in the research abated the initial flush of enthusiasm. In 1966 a US government committee, ALPAC, issued a rather skeptical report (see National Research Council (US) 1966) about the (lack of) progress in computational linguistics – namely machine translation, which effectively led to a halt of funding for most MT projects in the US and around the world.

Skipping almost half a century forward to the present day, the translation technology landscape has changed remarkably. Computers have permeated ev-

ery single area of human activity and computing power available to individuals outranks the most powerful of computers from the 1960s. It was the accessibility of personal computers beginning in the 1980s that rehabilitated technology for translation purposes and re-introduced computers into the field. Since then the actual usage of computers in translation has grown into a multitude of applications.

This rehabilitation may be also attributed to the fact that full translation automation (i.e. replacing human translators) is no longer perceived as the ultimate task. Instead, computers are put to tasks where they are extremely useful because of their major strength – the accumulation, manipulation and processing of vast amounts of data in a very short time, incomparably faster than any human could.

Figure 1 represents an overview of the state of the art in translation technology as presently used in the translation industry. A detailed classification will be provided in section 3.1.

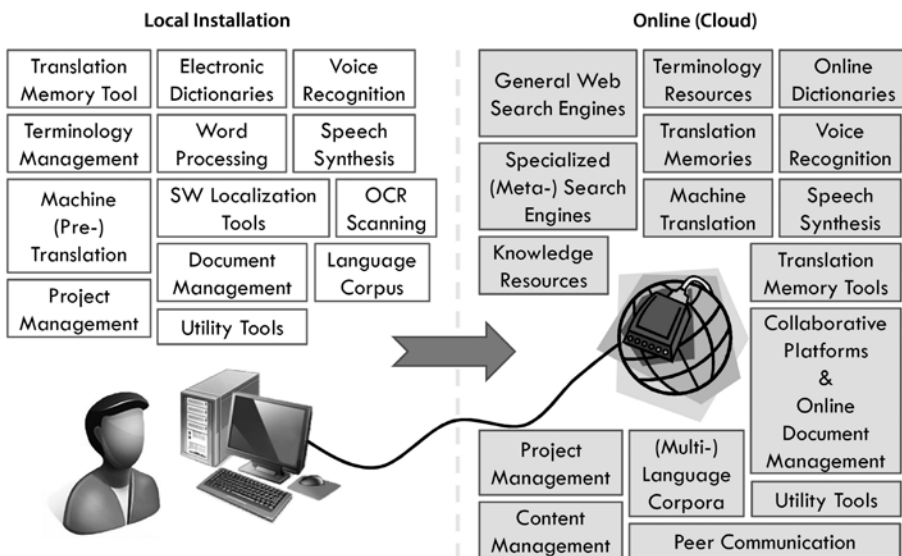


Figure 1: State of the art in TTy.

From the perspective of the translation industry (see e.g. Language Weaver 2008; Harpham 2010; DePalma 2011; WinterGreen Research 2011), the most important trend in TTy is the accelerated improvement of statistical machine translation (SMT). Unlike rule-based machine translation (RBMT) the SMT does not try to parse the original sentences in the source language and generate translated sentences in target language according to computationally tractable linguistic rules. Instead it computes the statistical probability that the sentence

Y in the target language is a translation of a sentence X in the source language and also the probability that the sentence Y is a well formed sentence in the target language. In order for the statistical computations to have any weight, large amounts of language data must be available. Firstly, the SMT system needs to train on an aligned bilingual corpus of original and translated-by-human sentences. The second corpus necessary is simply a collection of well-formed sentences in the target language. We now live at a time when multi-language translation data collected over the years by international institutions, organizations and corporations is readily available and the digital space of the Internet represents a vast ocean of texts in all human languages. So it is clear that the amount of “language fodder” which can be fed to the SMT systems is getting larger by the day.

Logically, the moment had to come where the sheer vastness of the language data combined with the processing power of today’s computers would prove the statistical approach right and SMT systems would start producing practical results. The history of translation technology is full of such excited and overblown statements, the first of them made as early as the 1950s, but developments in the past few years indicate that the moment is here, this time for real.

By practical results we mean that the SMT no longer serves only as a free and fast way of browsing foreign language web content and the like, but its applications are being launched across the translation industry, for the first time on a truly universal scale (DePalma 2011). The trend is to integrate automated (pre-)translation into translation memory (TM) based tools for translation professionals.

Translation memory is a database that stores all previously translated work done by a human translator in the form of sentence pairs: original sentence in one language + translated sentence in another language. If a translator repeatedly translates a certain type of text (e.g. contracts), then, in the long run, there is bound to be repetition. The purpose is not to waste the translator’s time and mental powers by making them translate the same or similar sentences over and over again. Every time when exact or partial repetition occurs during the translation process, the computer retrieves the previously done translation from the TM in a fraction of a second. Imagine a TM which stores hundreds of thousands, perhaps millions of previously translated sentences.

Back to SMT: the usability of the results depends on the languages involved, the direction of the translation (from which language into which), the domain of the translated texts, and the input data used for statistical computations. Nevertheless, real-life applications show that a SMT system integrated into a TM tool can be very efficient in suggesting translation solutions (see Figure 2). Estimations coming from the industry (e.g. Autodesk 2011), which are being increasingly supported by TS research (Arenas 2008; Plitt and Masselot 2010),

indicate that MT integration may allow translators to improve their throughput by as much as 30–80%.

| |
|--|
| <p><CZECH></p> <p>Tento příspěvek se zabývá modelováním proudění důlních plynů, zejména metanu, v oblasti čelby v hlubinných dolech. Emise metanu v hlubinných uhelných dolech jsou nadále nebezpečným jevem, který musí být odstraněn v co největší míře tak, aby byly splněny přísné bezpečnostní limity a nemohlo tak dojít za žádných okolností k ohrožení životů pracovníků.</p> |
| <p><ENGLISH></p> <p>Alpha</p> <p>This paper deals with modeling the flow of mine gases, particularly methane, in the face in underground mines. Emissions of methane in underground coal mines are still a dangerous phenomenon that must be removed as far as possible to meet the strict safety limits and so could not occur under any circumstances threaten the lives of workers.</p> |

Figure 2: Example of an automated translation produced by a SMT system (<http://translate.google.com>).

3. Perception of Translation Technology within Translation Studies

The scholarly undertakings of the discipline of translation studies are broad and wide. It inquires into translation phenomena from numerous perspectives, such as the translation process, translation resources, translation products, translation functions, translation conditions, et cetera. Trying to find out where the technology fits in is an interesting and, as has been demonstrated previously, increasingly relevant task.

As a departure point we will use Holmes's "map" of translation studies (see Figure 3), which presents an overall framework defining areas of scientific inquiry for translation studies. It is based on his 1972 seminal paper "The name and nature of translation studies" (Holmes 2004), and even though the discipline has evolved and there have been attempts to rewrite the map, it is still generally accepted as a practical model and as such will serve our purpose.

Holmes (2004) himself mentioned technology only when describing the *medium-restricted* branch of theoretical TS research and setting up a dichotomy between *human translation* and *machine translation*. Decades later, as the increasing penetration of technology into translation practice started to be reflected by translation scholars, TTy emerged on the map as a separate area of inquiry. For example, Munday's (2008, 12) classification in Figure 4 marks the use of TTy as CAT

tools, adding it into Holmes’s scheme in the applied branch of TS under *translation aids*. These tools are then divided into four categories: *machine translation*, *translation software*, *online databases* and *use of Internet*. This is an illustrious example of how a classification can be, to say the least, inconsistent, and the terminology used rather misleading. Do not online databases represent a use of the Internet? Is not translation software rather a generic term superordinate to the other ones? Which of the proliferated meanings of CAT (cf. Pym 2011a) is represented here? How does machine translation fit in?

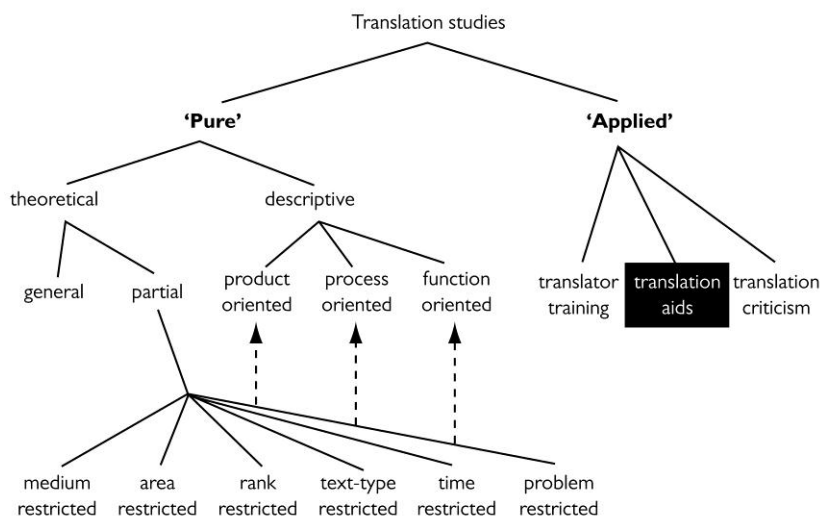


Figure 3: Holmes’s map of translation studies. Adapted from Toury (1995, 10).

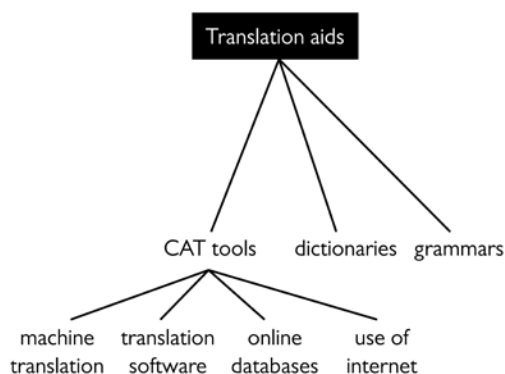


Figure 4: Elaboration on Holmes’s map classifying Translation aids. Adapted from Munday (2008, 12).

Efforts not to ignore technology and put it on the charts are laudable, but there is clearly a need to use overtly defined, systematic and consistent criteria for

classification. The same applies to terminology. The following two classifications represent more elaborate and more functional taxonomies. The first one is a “classic” of a long standing, since it has been around for several decades. The second is more recent and more closely reflects the present-day reality in translation technology.

Traditionally (cf. Hutchins and Somers 1992) the translation technology applications have been divided according to what stage of the translation process the machine (i.e. computer) enters at, and how large the part of the translation job the computer performs. This can be graphically represented as a continuum between two extremes: translation performed entirely by the computer and translation performed entirely by a human (see Figure 5).

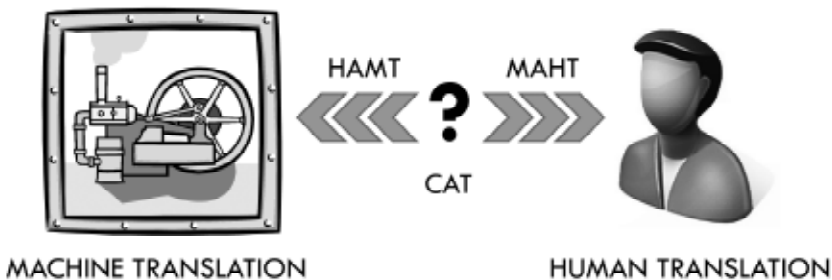


Figure 5: Classification based on the level of machine involvement.

The continuum is then populated by the following labels:

FAHQMTUT: *fully automated high quality machine translation of unrestricted text* – the original dream (which did not come true) of computer engineers in the 1950s.

HAMT: *human-assisted machine translation*, i.e. taking advantage of the undeniable assets of MT (high speed, low cost, accessibility) and economizing the translation by letting the computer do the bulk job and having the humans control the quality, either by post-editing the MT output, pre-editing the input into controlled language to make it more computationally tractable, or usually both.

MAHT: *machine-assisted human translation*, i.e. using a variety of computerized tools to improve the speed, quality and economy of a human translator’s work.

CAT: *computer-aided / assisted translation*, a more recent term that is usually used as a cover term for the previous two. Its suitability is, however, dubious, since practically all translation work nowadays happens with some form of aid / assistance from computers. Pym (2011a) even suggests that it be avoided as a misnomer.

The above classification is systematic and definitely works as a theoretical concept, however, from the practical perspective it is not very useful – it does not say much about the present-day multi-faceted reality of translation technology. If we tried to use these labels to categorize the technologies and tools listed in Figure 1, we would certainly meet with difficulties. FAHQMTUT is, as of today, nonexistent. How do we quantify the scale between HAMT and MAHT? Notwithstanding that for some translators even the suggestion of humans assisting computers may sound outright offensive.

The example in Figure 6 (Quah 2006) shows a further elaboration on Holmes’s map. The label *Translation aids* has been replaced with the more fitting *Translation technology* and the presented classification aims to reflect the variety of actual tools used by professional translators. Even though it is much closer to the present-day reality, we suggest that Quah’s scheme still leaves a lot to be desired. It completely neglects the area of “data mining and information retrieval” and the classification appears rather artificially imposed. What makes OCR a linguistic tool? Is document and project management limited only to the domain of localization? Are not glossaries a part of a TMS? Is the stand-alone / network dichotomy pertinent only to MT?

The bottom line of this criticism is that without overtly stating the purpose and criteria for TTy classification, basically any taxonomy takes the risk of being perceived as arbitrary and/or inadequate.

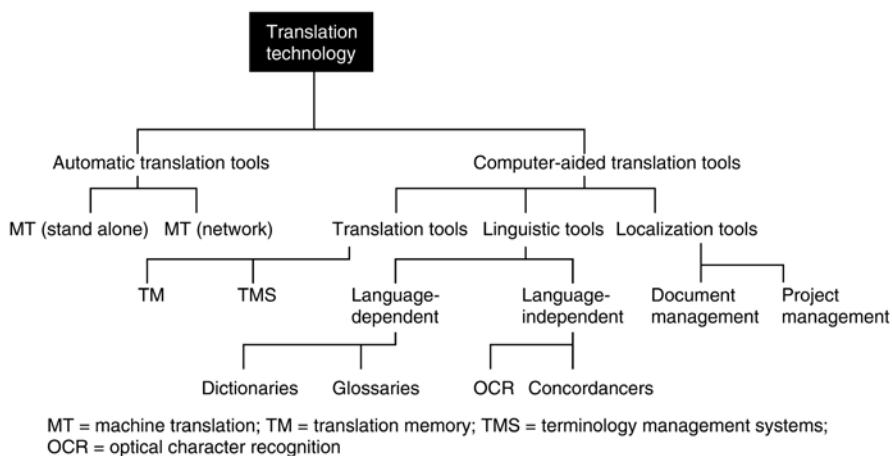


Figure 6: Further elaboration on Holmes’s map: “aids” replaced with “technology”. Adapted from Quah (2006, 42).

It must be noted, though, that Quah (2006) herself comments on the deficiency of this taxonomy and suggests that TTy cannot be perceived sepa-

rately, as some modern version of translation aids as outlined in Holmes's map. She suggests that TTy has become inseparable from other areas of TS research, such as process-oriented research, product-oriented research, translation criticism, theoretical research focusing on translation medium, area, text type, etc.

This is exactly the point we would like to make: researching translation technology, as it is, cannot constitute an area of inquiry separated from other research areas. The inquiry thus cannot be limited to summarizing what the individual representations of TTy are and trying to classify them. It extends to a much more important question: in what areas of translation research TTy significantly projects itself and what the impacts and implications are.

We will propose answers to both questions. To stick with our own maxims postulated above, we state our purpose, which is to define clearly the role of TTy within TS research. This will lead to two different classifications, depending on what criteria we use.

3.1 Translation Technology Economizing the Translation Process

The chart in Figure 7 presents a comprehensive listing of computer tools and technologies as presently used in the translation industry. It also reflects the fact that virtually ubiquitous computer networking has set a major trend, to which translation technology is no exception: a shift of computer applications towards cloud computing, i.e. replacing the functionality of locally installed software by an online provided service (cf. Vashee 2009).

| | | Local installation | Online (Cloud) |
|---------------------------------------|--|--------------------|----------------|
| Data Accumulation and Re-use | Translation Memory Tools (TM) | ✓ | ✓ |
| | Terminology Management Systems (TMS, TDB) | ✓ | ✓ |
| | General & Specialized Language Corpora, Concordancers | ✓ | ✓ |
| | Electronic Dictionaries | ✓ | ✓ |
| | Machine (Pre-)Translation (MT) | (✓) | ✓ |
| Data Mining and Information Retrieval | General Web Search Engines | – | ✓ |
| | Specialized (Meta-) Search Engines | – | ✓ |
| | General & Specialized Knowledge Resources/Reference/DB | ✓ | ✓ |

| | | | |
|-------------------------|--|---|-----|
| Workflow and Ergonomics | Project Management & Document Management | ✓ | ✓ |
| | Word Processing (formatting, spellchecking, grammar checking . . .) | ✓ | (✓) |
| | Optical Character Recognition (OCR) | ✓ | ✓ |
| | Speech Recognition (SR) & Speech Synthesis (SS) | ✓ | ✓ |
| | Collaborative Platforms & Online Content Management | – | ✓ |
| | Utility Tools (word count, extraction, alignment, tagging . . .) | ✓ | ✓ |
| | Software Localization Tools | ✓ | – |

Figure 7: Tools and technologies presently used in the translation industry.

The presented classification describes the state of the art in TTy. The technologies and tools are divided into three categories based on single criteria, i.e. what their major contribution to economizing the translation process is.

The first category encompasses technologies which take advantage of *accumulating and aligning multilingual data for the purpose of repeated re-use*. Their main function is to provide the translator at work with instantaneous suggestions of translation solutions ranging from single lexical units to whole paragraphs of text. It is then up to the translator to accept, edit or decline the suggested solutions.

The second category comprises *data mining and information retrieval* tools. Their main function is to supply missing information and thus help translators to make qualified decisions. General search engines rummage around for information in the whole Internet, whereas special search engines can narrow down the search to a specialized domain, media or source type, and meta-search engines combine several engines together. Knowledge resources, such as encyclopedias, reference document repositories or information databases, give access to general and specialized knowledge, usually in a full-text searchable form.

The third category embraces a large assortment of tools with various functionalities. These tools improve the *workflow and ergonomics* of the translation task by yet other means than language data re-use or efficient information retrieval. They range from simple utilities, such as spellcheckers or text extractors, to sophisticated systems such as translation project management or collaborative platforms. Even though some of these tools are not necessarily translation-specific, their impact on the translation practice is so substantial that TTy-oriented research cannot disregard them.

It must be noted that the division presented above is to some extent theoretical – it represents a taxonomy of functions rather than individual computer ap-

plications. In the present-day reality of translation practice, the software used by translators integrates many of these functionalities together. Thus it is common that a single product of a translation software developer combines project management, document management, translation memory, machine translation, terminology management, concordancer, search engine, alignment, spellchecker, and other tools into one robust computer application.

3.2 Translation Technology Changing the Translation Paradigm

It is obvious that the above-described technologies and tools have brought substantial changes into translation practice. Technology allows humans to translate larger amounts of text, from and into more languages, in a shorter time and at a lower cost, but the change is not only quantitative. On-the-fly re-use of language data by means of translation memories, terminology databases and statistical machine (pre-)translation brings about a major qualitative shift. Translators are less and less required to *render* and more required to *post-edit*, i.e. *proofread* and *correct*. Instead of producing the text from scratch and in linear fashion “in their heads” (Figure 8), the translators are being confronted with multiple suggestions provided instantaneously by the “machine”, out of which they opt to choose (Figure 9). The traditional dichotomy between the so-called *source text* and *target text* becomes blurred, and, of course, the whole cognitive set-up changes. Along the lines of the structuralist approach to language, Pym (2011b) calls this shift an imposition of the paradigmatic on the syntagmatic. Garcia (2009) observes it as a return from the top-down approach to text, as introduced by textual theory and discourse analysis, back to a bottom-up approach by concentrating on the segment.

In effect, technology does not comprise just another add-on component to the set-up of translator’s skills, however we may categorize them, but it changes the nature and balance of all other skills, and thus to the professional profile of the person we are still calling a translator (Pym 2012).

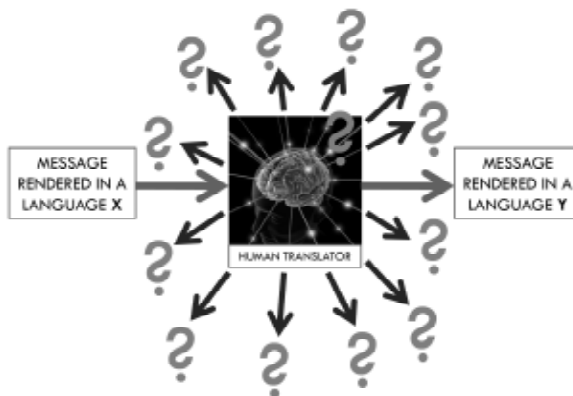


Figure 8: Cognitive set-up of “purely human” translation.

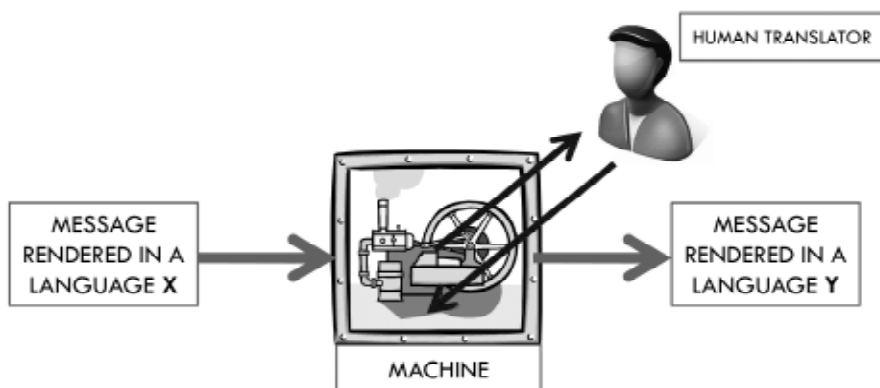


Figure 9: Cognitive set-up of “machine-aided” translation.

As we can see, the ever more extensive use of technology in translation raises fundamental questions with regard to the nature of the translator’s task, the translation process, and the translation product. The chart in Figure 10 seeks to illustrate the variety of TTy-related questions and issues and reflects the projection of TTy into various areas of inquiry within translation studies.

Once again, Holmes’s scheme is used as a practical departure point, which is also to say that the listing in the table should by no means be considered exhaustive. There are, and as both the technology and the TS discipline evolve, definitely will be, other issues deserving attention from translation scholars. Because inquiries concerning the role of TTy in TS originate in applied research, the chart is purposely organized in the following sequence: Applied TS, Descriptive TS, Theoretical TS. It is to be noted, though, that some of the issues and research questions, even though categorized under a particular heading, naturally span over several research areas.

4. Final Remarks and Conclusion

Use of technology perpetuated by the “digital revolution” has changed the translation profession for good: it not only affects the way translators search for information and produce their translations, but also how they communicate with their customers and get paid. The Director General of the European Commission’s Directorate General for Translation, Rytis Martikonis (2011), in the 5th EMT conference opening speech, asked about the near future of translation: “Will machines do most of the translating and leave just some editing work and the poetry to human translators? Or will they just make the work of translators easier and more efficient as they do already now?”

| Branch of Translation Studies | | General research questions | Specific issues (examples) |
|-------------------------------|------------------------------|--|---|
| Applied TS | Translation aids/ technology | What kind of TTy tools are used in translation practice? How to categorize them? | see 3.1 |
| | | How well do TTy tools do their job? How can they be improved? | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> defining suitable evaluation methods testing TTy ergonomics, measuring the impact on the workflow economy gathering feedback from professionals |
| | Translation training | How to incorporate TTy into the curricula? | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> defining the skills to be acquired defining the training methods solving practical technical issues (licensing, versioning, SW and HW compatibility . . .) |
| | Translation criticism | How does TTy influence the methods of assessing “translation quality”? | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> analyzing the impacts of TTy on: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> the accepted standards of quality the notion/definition of translation quality |
| | Translation policy | How does TTy change the landscape of the translation industry? | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> seeking solutions for legal issues around translation data authorship and copyright seeking open standards and open-source solutions for universal accessibility of TTy |
| Descriptive TS | Process-oriented research | How does TTy influence the translation process? | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> factoring and quantifying the impacts of TTy on: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> the total translation throughput the dynamics and staging of the process translation project management and distribution of tasks |
| | Product-oriented research | How does TTy influence the translation product? | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> factoring and quantifying the impacts of TTy on the translation product at various levels: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> terminology collocations and phrases sentence text cohesion and coherence intertextual parameters quantifying the input of TM/MT in a specified bulk of translated texts |
| | Function-oriented research | How does TTy influence what texts get translated? | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> quantifying the impacts of accessibility of “good enough” MT on the demand for translation services translating print vs. translating digital <ul style="list-style-type: none"> gathering statistical data |
| | | How does TTy influence who does the translations? | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> analyzing and describing the impacts of TTy on: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> translation jobs distribution and the balance among the language industry players the demographic development in the “translator population” |

| | | | |
|----------------|-----------------------------|--|---|
| Theoretical TS | Medium-restricted | What implications does the interaction between humans and technology bear for translation theory? | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> redefining the taxonomy: human translation / machine translation defining the role of technology in TS |
| | | What are the implications of TTy for the traditional dichotomy: translation of text / translation of speech (i.e. interpreting)? | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> researching the specifics of speech-to-speech TTy and predicting its future implications for human interpreting |
| | Area-restricted theory | What are the language-specific issues related to TTy? | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> machine translatability between specific language groups/language pairs paradigm influence of vehicular languages in localization of digital content |
| | | What are the culture/geography specific issues related to TTy? | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> role of TTy in preserving vanishing cultures/languages socio-economic factors of TTy implementation around the world |
| | Rank-restricted theory | What are the linguistic rank specific issues related to TTy? | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> analyzing the linguistic paradigm shifts <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – top-down > bottom-up – syntagmatic > paradigmatic blurring the traditional dichotomy of ST/TT |
| | Text-type restricted theory | What are the text-type specific issues related to TTy? | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> analyzing usability of TTy application in correlation with various text types (technical documentation, legal texts, news articles . . .) |
| | Time-restricted theory | How has the historical evolution of TTy influenced translation theory? | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> mapping historical stages of the relationship between TTy and TS postulating the TS paradigm shift brought about by the rapid TTy development in the first decade of the 21st century |
| | Problem-restricted theory | Research questions addressing specific theoretical issues | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> hybrid MT systems based both on SMT and RBMT leveraging translation memories on the sub-segment level issues of internalization, localization and translation of dynamic multilingual web content of transnational corporations etc. |

Figure 10: Projection of translation technology into TS research.

The answer, which this paper has tried to argue for and which probably instigates fear and frustration in a large part of the translation community, is that the “machines” will definitely play a major role. To abate this fear, it is necessary to add – so will humans. True, the task, the process, and the set of skills required of most of translators may change to such extent that we will rightfully ask if it still should be called translation. But no matter whether we decide

to keep the label or choose to give it up, numbers coming from the industry indicate that there will continue to be a massive need for language specialists facilitating cross-language communication, albeit of changed modality. The future is yet to show whether these facilitators are mostly going to come from the ranks of “professional translators” and continue to see themselves as such. The extreme but possible alternative is that this cross-language communication will persist as a skill and activity performed by various professionals, but will no longer be recognized or distinguished as a profession.

The challenge for translation studies is not to shy away from technology and its impacts but to fully embrace it. We have tried to demonstrate that translation technology is not a partial topic, which can be allotted a carefully delimited spot on the translation studies map, but that it has become a paradigm-changing factor. To address the challenge we have tried to identify the issues and define general research questions that need attention from translation scholars. Research results then should not only provide a better theoretical reflection of what is presently happening in translation practice, but should also produce some hard data and useful ideas which can be meaningfully fed back into the industry to help improve technologies, form best practices, etc. Should translation studies resign on such endeavors, for the discipline it would mean taking an increasing risk of becoming irrelevant and eventually falling into obscurity.

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Limitations of CAT and MT Technology

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ABSTRACT: Modern CAT (Computer Assisted Translation) and MT (Machine Translation) tools have flooded the translation industry with the aim of streamlining, organizing and to a certain degree replacing operations that were performed with pen and paper for centuries. Reliance on technology in the translation process means a great deal of it is outsourced to the computer. Despite the above advantages, translation technology suffers from a number of persistent problems that must be dealt with by translators on the go. This paper is a partial critical analysis of the available CAT/MT technology and its key representative functionality: 1) psychological problems related to CAT/MT use; 2) visual issues in some applications; 3) problems with consistency and uniformity; 4) cross-referencing; 5) absence of immediate context; 6) focus on technical aspects rather than text; 7) blind reliance on TM and its correctness, problems with terminological datasets, inconsistencies, MT operation and integration into CAT.

KEYWORDS: computer assisted translation; translation software; problems; visualization of text; terminology; translation memory

1. Introduction

Translation software is generally bifurcated into two main areas: CAT (Computer Assisted Translation) and MT (Machine Translation). The former focuses on the use of existing translation memories (huge bilingual sentence databases); the latter focuses on using sophisticated ways to autonomously analyse the original text and render the translation in a generative and synthetic way either through statistical or linguistic methods or as a combination of both. It is our understanding that the development in the above areas has brought about a great deal of progress, yet some aspects of CAT/MT functionality are still lacking the necessary finesse. It is therefore vital to take a critical look at how these tools can help translators and to clearly identify and name their drawbacks.¹

Translation these days is no longer a language operation focusing on the surface (or stylistic) level of language – it has become a phenomenon blending the social, cultural, political, ethical, philosophical, religious, linguistic and technical processes. The aim of modern translation is to provide a complex product compliant not only from the viewpoint of meaning, but also from the viewpoint

¹ The present paper will avoid mentioning particular brands; it will rather focus on concepts and functionality. The visualizations are only illustrative and their purpose is not to demean / promote any particular software or its maker.

of form, graphic layout and technological workmanship; i.e. translation has also become a technical operation. Therefore, it is vital to focus on the application of new technologies adopted by translation over the past couple of years, resulting from profound research in linguistics and translation technology, which started as early as during the Cold War. Translators active in the commercial translation chain should reflect on the changes in the area of technology with respect to text processing and the use of technological tools. It is sad that many translators are not equipped well enough in the area of technology. Experience suggests that translations are often sent back to the client in an inadequate format (sometimes disregarding the formal criteria) and they have to be sent back for review and/or reworking, often due to technical and technological non-compliance.

The implementation of modern software tools into the daily operations of translators is confronted with a number of barriers, ranging from mental and psychological to technical. Translation is undoubtedly one of the mental activities that has become subject to market changes – the current demands on translators are substantially high in terms of the volumes and technology. Commercial companies insist on the use of translation memories, terminology databases and similar tools to save money when the same (or similar) text is translated again. The use of CAT tools requires translators to undergo a philosophical transformation, a transformation of their working methods, file handling, thinking, use of terminology etc. Whereas in the past, all the above processes depended solely on the translator's memory and mind, nowadays, thanks to CAT/MT, a great majority of the processes are outsourced to the computer, which purportedly gives the translators more freedom to focus on the meaning of the translated text: it gives them the necessary speed and reduces their memory load. However, the adoption of CAT/MT tools is far from easy; it takes a fair amount of time and effort to master the software and its multiple functions.

2. Changes on the Translation Market

The advent of technological tools has forever changed the nature of translation.

This means that the typical translator has also changed. Instead of a highly educated, often anti-social scholar sitting at his table for months struggling to find the right word to translate some valuable poetry, today's translator is usually in front of a computer screen churning out thousands of words per day to translate documents whose timely translation may mean sumptuous sums of money in business to the client. (Monteiro 2006, 1)

Also, modern translation is not primarily based on translation theory – it is based on an efficient and streamlined process resulting in the delivery of

a product / service. The “modern age” of translation can be readily described in the following points (cf. Mačura 2007):

1. translation is a commercial product, not a piece of art, it is understood as a practical skill;
2. translation must meet certain formal criteria;
3. translator must be a multi-faceted personality (competences) with emphasis on practical skills and experience and not theoretical knowledge;
4. translator must be able to use a computer;
5. translation is governed by money and time.

2.1 Historical Perspective

After the boom in translation-related technology in the 1950s, the sobering 1966 ALPAC (Automatic Language Processing Advisory Committee) report held up a realistic mirror to the situation in MT research, when the father of machine translation, MIT scientist Yehoshua Bar-Hillel, presented the proverbial semantic barrier as an insurmountable obstacle for MT: computers are not able to understand the semantic difference between the individual words and terms used in the text. This means that from 1966 on, the role of computers was not primarily focused on the semantic understanding of terms and their translation; this process was outsourced to humans. The incapacity of computers to perform the full translation process was later described by Wills (1982, 212): “Whereas in human translation intelligence and language use are manifestations of dynamic interplay between a translator and the environment, a computer operates by breaking a task down into logical operations that can be carried out on binary numbers.” In other words, Wills suggests that there is interplay between the real-world translator and the environment, which the computer just cannot replicate. The translator is aware of the social, cultural, historical, religious, technical, historical etc. aspects of text; the computer is not. What is more, computers cannot plan their activities and evaluate the translation situation from a complex viewpoint. The planning element, or the translation strategy, is a key component of the transition process. The human translator is able to decide what particular linguistic tools to use in a specific text to maintain his or her general strategy and uniformity. Since the computer usually translates a text on a segment-to-segment basis, it is not able to perform advanced planning.

Contrary to the human translator, a computer does not carry out plans (unless we regard a program as a kind of “plan”). To “teach” the computer to “think” as people think is futile, despite all statements to the contrary. Its field of operation is so limited that, strictly speaking, one cannot talk of comparable preconditions for human translation and MT. (Wills 1982, 214)

The limitations of CAT/MT technology are obvious: computers are not able to perform advanced translation tasks.

3. Limitations of CAT / MT Software

Let us look at some of the main limitations translation software (or its users) struggles with in the modern era of translation:

3.1 Psychological Problems Related to CAT/MT Use

Some of the reasons preventing the widespread adoption and use of CAT/MT software lie in the area of human psychology. The first psychological barrier, as unlikely as it may seem, has to do with the use of computers in general. Although this statement may seem very questionable in the modern age of IT, some people (conservative translators, people with poor command of English etc.) find it very difficult to make friends with the PC on an advanced level. And, given the fact that translation is primarily a mental skill, they limit their computer use to the very minimum. Another psychological barrier is that the translators are afraid to “lose control” over the process and give it over to the machine, being afraid of sacrificing quality. The human psyche reacts very negatively to the constant changes and fluctuations in the area of software (e.g. people finally master one software version and another, often with a redesigned UI, becomes available). Still another reason, which is partly a matter of habit, lies in the fact that many translators have already streamlined their work without CAT and MT to the extent that any use of such functionality is literally pointless.

3.2 Visual Issues in Some Applications (Visualization of Fuzzy Matches and Segments)

It is evident that CAT software displays text in a translator-friendly way – or more precisely, in a way that is more appropriate for the process of translation. Standard blocks of text optimized for reading and typically shaped into paragraphs are presented to the translator in a more convenient way: each sentence, irrespective of its original layout and design, is displayed from the left margin, and the original text and its translation are put side by side so the translator does not have to continually look for the sentence ends and beginnings in the original text. This type of visualization, however, poses challenges in some CAT functionality, namely in the visualization of “fuzzy matches” (segments from the TM that do not match the currently translated segment 1:1). Depending on the individual software versions and products, fuzzy matches can be visualized in many different ways. In some products, a fuzzy match is not displayed in the editor window, but in a separate window.

The translator has to strain his or her eyes and play the “spot the difference” game a few hundred times a day. Other tools integrate fuzzy matches into the application window, but not into the sentence the translator is working on. This means the translator must visually compare the actual sentence and the sentence retrieved from the TM and decide about the final version of the segment based on the markup data. Of course, there are tools that incorporate the differences between the fuzzy matches and the actual segment into the translated segment itself.

Another problem with the visualization of segments is connected with the top-down or left-to-right sequencing. Although this sequencing may largely depend on personal preference, when comparing two sentences, it is easier to compare them one on top of another and not side-by-side: our eyes do not have to travel large distances hundreds of times per day and, what is more, when translating between the languages with similar syntactic structures, the sentence comparison procedure is much easier to perform. The fact that modern CAT tools began implementing the side-by-side structure is also fuelled by the emergence of laptops and wide screen monitors, which almost universally provide less vertical and more horizontal screen estate.

3.3 Problems with Consistency and Uniformity

Consistency of translation is one of the most frequently demanded parameters in modern commercial translation. CAT software can embed terminology directly into the translated text: it can effectively insert terminology units from previously assembled terminological databases directly into the translated text as the translator translates a particular segment. This is a huge advantage since the terms are processed and retrieved automatically by the machine and the human factor is completely eliminated from the equation – the terms are inserted automatically. The functionality, however, also poses challenges in terms of deciding which term to use in a particular context. If multiple translations are found for any given term in the TB, the software proposes the respective translations; however, it may be very difficult to decide which one to pick based on context, resulting in possible inconsistencies.

Another problem with consistency happens on the level of sentences. It seems that the very principle of TM use and reuse almost exclusively guarantees the use of correct sentences “from the past”; however, practical examples (and the very existence of software to hunt down inconsistencies after a text is translated using CAT) are proof enough to claim that inconsistent translations happen, and they happen quite frequently. The reasons for such inconsistencies can be many, ranging from post-editing of the translated text without the use of TM, accommodation of segments to a particular linguistic co-text, use of synonyms,

or sheer translator negligence. The problem is partly dealt with by automatic autopropagation of translated segments uniformly throughout the document (including its preceding parts) in those CAT applications where the text editor allows bulk processing of segments. Another reason for inconsistencies is the blind reliance on the TM, which will be addressed later in this paper.

3.4 Cross-Referencing

Modern text editors and DTP applications make extensive use of cross-referencing mainly in technical manuals, legal texts, technical documentation etc. Automatic linking and referencing is a very good tool making document navigation easier and more convenient. This advantage, however, poses issues to the translator, whose job is not only to deal with the text itself, but also with any technical aspects related to its formatting, including the cross-references. The problem of inclusion of cross-references into the translated text is very problematic when translating from analytical into synthetic languages, due to inflection. For example, what seems to be a nice and trouble-free cross-reference in the English language must be accommodated to the existing linguistic environment in languages like Slovak. And, given the fact that cross-references are typically offset at the beginning of a document in their grammatically neutral form and encapsulated by tags, the translator needs to monitor each and every occurrence of a cross-reference to make sure it blends well inflectionally with the existing linguistic environment.



Figure 1: Cross-references and their translations at the beginning of a technical manual.

In Figure 1, the tags enclose the template translations of cross-referencing strings, which are used uniformly throughout the whole document. In situations like these, it is more convenient for the translator to translate the cross-referencing string more generally in the document header, allowing for more “play” and “inflectional liberty” in the target language. The cross-reference can then be injected more easily into the target sentence, as is demonstrated by the following examples:

| | | | |
|------|---|---------|---|
| 832 | For details on the feed methods for each document type, [cxr value="see p. 267"] . | ↕ | Detaily o metódach na podávanie jednotlivých typov dokumentov sú uvedené na [cxr value="see p. 267"] . |
| 837 | For details on the eject methods for each document type, [cxr value="see p. 267"] . | ↕ [94%] | Detaily o metódach na vykladanie jednotlivých typov dokumentov sú uvedené na [cxr value="see p. 267"] . |
| 1945 | For details, [cxr value="see p. 537"] . | ↕ [CM] | Detaily sú uvedené na [cxr value="see p. 537"] . |
| 1948 | For details, [cxr value="see p. 527"] . | ↕ [CM] | Detaily sú uvedené na [cxr value="see p. 527"] . |

Figure 2: More “forgiving” translations of cross-referencing strings, providing liberty in the target segment.

3.5 Absence of Immediate Context

The absence of immediate context in translation is probably the most cumbersome issue any CAT user faces. Irrespective of how good the original idea of extracting texts from the original file format is, the fact of the matter is that the translators are robbed of the physical and visual context of the text they are translating and they are typically left with two columns of numbered segments, presenting the textual information in a visually limited way, often intertwined with formatting tags and other distracting visual elements. It goes without saying that the knowledge of whether a particular piece of text is a headline or table legend can have a material effect on how it is translated. The use of proprietary text editors in CAT tools is partly justified by the fact that the commonly available text editors are prone to freezing and unexpected behaviour when CAT functionality is integrated (usually via plug-ins). Some software makers still maintain the idea that texts should be edited in their original visual format.

Let us have a look at the example in Figure 3. The software processes the original text into columns; some segments are so short that the translator may have a hard time understanding where the segment belongs and what its immediate linguistic neighborhood is. Problems also arise with the grammatical inflection of such items (decisions on what gender, number and other adjectival categories are to use). In order to figure these out, the translator must either consult the client on the matter, or make a decision, which can go very wrong when the segment makes its way into the final version.

| | |
|-----|----------------|
| 795 | Feed method |
| 796 | Eject method |
| 797 | Remarks |
| 798 | Plain paper |
| 799 | Either |
| 800 | Either |
| 801 | Business cards |
| 802 | Either |
| 803 | Straight path |

Figure 3: Short isolated segments in a CAT editor.

Similar problems happen in the translation of charts with nested cells or cells that span across a couple of lines (see Figure 4). When such text is segmented into the CAT software, the translator has to manipulate and shuffle the words to achieve the right word order, often sacrificing linguistic clarity and naturalness of translation to accommodate the translated segments to their original wording.

| | | |
|-------------|--------|----------|
| 84 Terminal | ▲ 100% | Koncovka |
| 85 Position | ▲ 100% | Poloha |
| 86 OFF | ▲ 100% | OFF |

Figure 4: Spanning segments and their (wrong) translation into Slovak.

For these and other reasons, the translation industry has adopted the use of so-called “reference documents”. The translator is sometimes allowed to work with the CAT tool and the reference document side by side to be “filled in” on the context. However, reference documents are usually not provided for copyright and confidentiality reasons.

Some software takes the issue of visual context very seriously, allowing the translator to edit the text in its original visual layout. In Figure 5, the text is translated using a WYSIWYG approach.

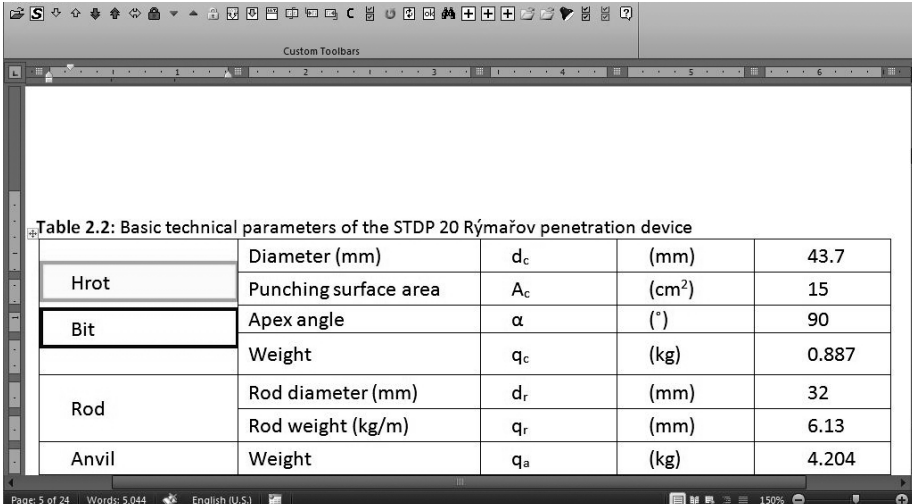


Table 2.2: Basic technical parameters of the STDP 20 Rýmařov penetration device

| | | | | |
|-------|-----------------------|----------|-------------------|-------|
| Hrot | Diameter (mm) | d_c | (mm) | 43.7 |
| | Punching surface area | A_c | (cm^2) | 15 |
| Bit | Apex angle | α | ($^\circ$) | 90 |
| | Weight | q_c | (kg) | 0.887 |
| Rod | Rod diameter (mm) | d_r | (mm) | 32 |
| | Rod weight (kg/m) | q_r | (mm) | 6.13 |
| Anvil | Weight | q_a | (kg) | 4.204 |

Figure 5: WYSIWYG approach in CAT.

This concept, however, has many technical disadvantages (background repagination, issues with displaying text, tag protection etc.), which have resulted in its general abandonment throughout the CAT industry. Also, editing text and manipulating the segments in the visual environment is much slower.

3.6 Focus on Technical Aspects Rather than Text

The advertisement propaganda of CAT software manufacturers in the area of document formatting is very clear: there is no need to focus on formatting; the software does everything for the translator. This misconception is another major limitation of CAT technology. With the aim of “helping” the translator to maintain the original formatting, the software floods him or her with thousands of unnecessary (to the translator, whose job is to translate) technical / formatting operations (e.g. tag manipulation) that could be easily performed by the software if it were sophisticated enough, causing the translator to focus on the technical aspects of translation rather than meaning and text.

The formal aspects of translation are tracked and evaluated relatively easily, providing an effective tool for the client to penalize the translator for non-compliance with the formatting requirements. This is why many modern translation tools incorporate the formal quality checking (or QA) functionality.

The example in Figure 6 shows us that the proportion of “translatable” and “non-translatable” in a single segment can be quite even.

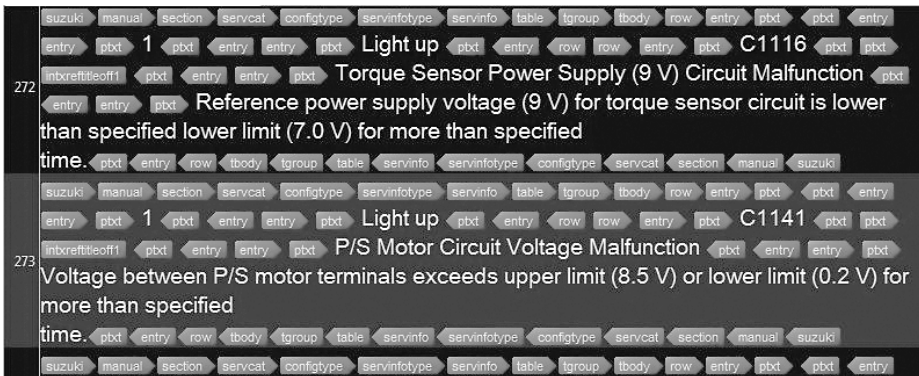


Figure 6: Translatable text and non-translatable formatting tags.

Translators can get lost in the endless sea of formatting tags, textual elements and segments, often to the detriment of clarity of thought, consistency and uniformity. The example in Figure 7 shows us part of a single segment ready for translation.

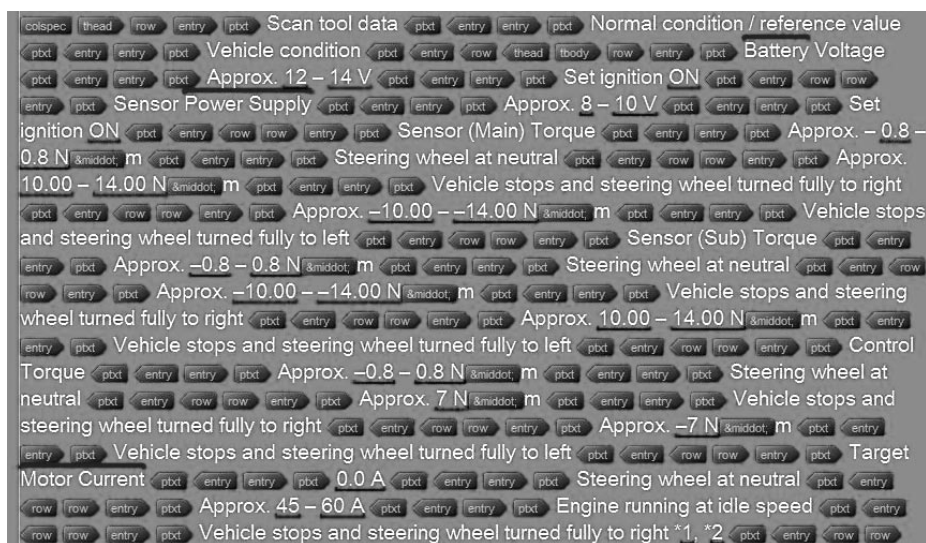


Figure 7: A single segment ready for translation.

3.7 Blind Reliance on TM (Translation Memory) and Its Correctness

In the modern era, translation is viewed as a chain process by many. The text is preprocessed, prepared, statistically evaluated, pre-translated using the available translation memories or automated translation systems, and subsequently post-edited, reviewed, proof-read and visually formatted (DTP). All this usually happens outside the scope of the translator's competence. In extreme cases, the translator is there to supply only the missing 0.5% of the existing translation, performed by somebody else, and pass the files on. Some translation projects arrive to the translator with ready-made deliverables, including translation memories. When the translator translates, he or she is presented with the results from the translation memory and usually, he or she is asked by the client not to modify such segments, i.e. to rely on them and use them "as is" (even without reading them!). In such cases, the translator is only paid for those segments he or she attends to, and although the other segments are part of the same text, the translator is not supposed to alter or change them in any way. This poses a serious problem in consistency, but also shapes the translator's mind to rely on anything provided by the TM as if it were necessarily correct. This kind of psychology is also fuelled by the software itself, which usually does not prompt the translator to check the 100% matches and it even displays them in a different color (typically green) signifying they are fine, or locks them completely. Some software tools implement the so-called "context matches" as a way to make sure the given 100% match is not only a mere hit from the TM, but it also matches

the neighboring segments, making the translator even more assured (or complacent) that the TM result is correct and requires no attention. This problem also directly relates to the quality of translation memories. The very fact that TMs consist of human translations, often made under pressure and outside of context, indicates we cannot take them for granted without critically evaluating them. Sometimes such evaluations go very deep when e.g. a translation memory is sent off to be revised for terminology and grammar before it can be used again in the translation chain. Another problem related to this issue lies in the fact that a TM hit can be implementing particular grammatical categories, e.g. a noun can be declined in a particular way, but the actual segment or linguistic neighborhood employs or requires different categories / declensions. The translation memories should therefore be viewed with a great deal of caution.

3.8 Problems with Terminological Datasets and Their Implementation into the Translated Text

Terminology is closely connected with the translation of technical, scientific and legal texts. Automatic incorporation of terminological units into the translated text is undoubtedly a major step forward in automating the translation process with computer software. Much like with sentence memories, the success of this functionality greatly depends on the quality of the databases and their size. The terminological databases, if available, are often incomplete, but they also exhibit other significant problems. The first major limitation is that the terminological software often fails to recognize the term in the original text because of its inflectional endings or other inflectional variations, since the terminological database usually contains its basic non-inflected form (lemma). Also, the software is quite non-responsive to the combinations of terms in the database or their alterations. The second limitation revolves around the way the term is presented in the target segment. Some software makers embed the recognized terminology directly into the target segment right where it belongs (even from the viewpoint of sentence structure), others let the translator decide when and where to use the recognized terms and they present them in a separate window.

3.9 MT Operation and Integration into CAT

It is fair to say that the use of autonomous and automated translation systems was given a big boost with the coming of web-based translation engines (Altavista's Babelfish, Bing, Google Translate to name a few). Automatic translation machines are capable of producing instantaneous translations of visualized text and they have also been integrated into some major CAT tools, which shows us a general tendency toward using automated translation in the CAT tools as a TM. However, the quality of the translations produced by MT systems often suffers from various viewpoints. Machine translation is "computerized and automated systems

responsible for the translation of texts from one natural language into another with or without human assistance” (Austermühl 2001, 157). Modern machine translation can be divided into: (1) theoretical / rule based systems implementing the interlingua approach, direct approach (PC Translator), transfer approach (Ariane, Systran) and/or intensive use of grammar rules, modules and dictionaries, (2) empirical / corpus systems implementing the statistical approach (IBM – Candide, Google), example based approaches (Makoto Nagao), limited use of grammar rules, statistical analysis of bilingual and monolingual corpora, and (3) hybrid systems. The theoretical model relies on preprocessing (idiomatic units, preparation of text, identification of sentences, lexical lookup in the termbase, tokenization, lemmatization and morphological analysis – grammar rules, identification of compounds), analysis (identification of sentence elements, homographs, syntactic structures and sentences, primary syntactic relations, coordination, subordination, subjects, predicates, etc.), transfer (establishment of basic semantic dependencies, establishment of propositional structures, restrictions, exceptions, idioms, oddities etc., and synthesis (insertion of lexis, application of morphological rules, word order).

On the other hand, the statistical model relies on the alignment of phrases, chunks of words and individual words in monolingual and bilingual corpora, probabilistic analysis of distribution patterns (e.g. co-occurrence of words, placement of words in a sentence, sentence length, etc.), large bilingual corpora and logical operations such as “if ‘x’ appears in a sentence with ‘y’ or ‘z’ in L1, will ‘m’ appear with ‘n’ and ‘o’ in L2”, n-grams, etc.

The most persistent problems in the MT arena include lexical ambiguity, selection of meaning (polysemy), syntactic complexity, sentence length, word order, idioms, lexical phrases, collocations, anaphoric and cataphoric references, abbreviations, genitive constructions, prepositions (translated literally), elimination of verbs, incorrect case endings, gender endings, preference of “of constructions”, elimination of the negative. Figure 8 shows us some examples of errors generated by MT systems.

Gumové tesnenie je navrhnuté v zmysle podkladov predávajúceho a bude spĺňať nasledovné požiadavky:

The rubber seal is designed in terms of reference and the seller will splat the following requirements:

vonkajší priemer prstenca:

outer diameter of ring:

Figure 8: Errors generated by MT systems.

4. Conclusion

Modern translation technology has done very much to help the translator perform his or her daily tasks. It is undeniable that the progress it brought outweighs the negatives. However, it seems that some aspects of CAT/MT functionality, including the points raised in this article, are persistently neglected by the software makers. We can only speculate about the reasons why these and other shortcomings have not been eliminated yet. One such paradoxical reason might be that the new software versions, as they appear, also serve as fixes of the old bugs, which eventually triggers buying. Another reason might be very practical – the programmers do not communicate with the translators. Whatever the reasons, the room for innovation and new features in CAT/MT software is always open for creative and inventive solutions for the benefit of human translators.

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