
# Fundamentals of Translation

SONIA COLINA

# Fundamentals of Translation

Clear and concise, this textbook provides a non-technical introduction to the basic and central concepts of translation theory and practice, including translation briefs, parallel texts and textual functions, cohesion and coherence, and old and new information. Colina focuses on the key concepts that beginning students of translation, practicing translators, language students and language professionals need to understand about translation practice. Numerous exercises (discussion, group and individual) at the end of each chapter and “Practice” activities throughout each chapter allow students to self-assess their practical understanding of chapter topics. In addition, examples, figures and text extracts from a wide variety of world languages contextualize chapter material and produce a lively and accessible narrative. Suitable for non-specialists with no prior experience of translation, it will also be of interest to practicing translators, language students and language industry professionals who wish to gain a wider and up-to-date understanding of translation.

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# Preface

## Purpose of this book

Overall, *Fundamentals of Translation* serves the purpose of disseminating up-to-date, fundamental knowledge about translation in an appropriate format for a non-specialist, broad readership.

More specifically, the purpose of this book is threefold. It intends . . .

1. . . . to offer a basic, easy-to-read introduction to concepts essential to translation practice.

Practitioners, language and translation students, and professionals in related fields (managers of translators, communication specialists, etc.) need to acquire a general understanding of basic translation concepts without having to read through pages of translation theory and scholarship or publications geared toward specialists or graduate students. This need for knowledge remains mostly unmet, as evidenced by the disconnect between the current understanding of basic translation concepts among translation scholars and that possessed by translation practitioners, students and language professionals. Many language professionals and students still refer to deeply entrenched and outdated views of language and of translation, at a time when research in translation has seen unprecedented growth and advances. It is our opinion that this situation is due not to a lack of interest but to the dearth of publications that make this information accessible to wide audiences, who often feel overwhelmed and discouraged when confronted with books that are too long, too theoretical and too complex for their purposes. Along similar lines, many believe that theory and other conceptual elements are irrelevant to practice, mostly because they have been presented in a manner that is too complex and too far removed from their reality.

2. . . . to reach out and introduce translation, in an accessible manner, to readers who may not intend to become translators but who work in fields that can benefit from informed knowledge about translation.

3. . . . to lay the ground for a better understanding of translation among language students and other language specialists, disseminating basic concepts and dispelling myths about translation.

The idea for this volume originated, in part, while teaching applied translation courses (e.g., medical, legal, business translation). The students, at a major research university in the United States, were often employed as translators and language professionals but had had little formal training. While the courses were mostly practical, and the program had a separate translation theory course (which the students may or may not have taken), it was obvious that some basic, common theoretical framework was needed. *Fundamentals of Translation* is based on some of the theoretical modules the author developed for those courses. These modules were also necessary for the eminently practical and professional, online certification developed by the author with funding from an Arizona Board of Regents grant. Additionally, *Fundamentals of Translation* draws on presentation materials created for professional translators, teachers and bilinguals who tested the Translation Quality Assessment (TQA) tool designed for *Hablamos Juntos* (see www.hablamosjuntos.org). Online training for the use of this tool required understanding of some translation/linguistic concepts with which these professionals were not always familiar.

The idea for this book also has its origins in the author's observations as a professor, professional translator and small-company owner. Throughout the years, it has become clear that many language professionals and students could benefit from some basic introduction to translation concepts. Students in large language programs also need to understand and use professional/communicative translation in their courses.

It is uncontroversial that translation means many different things to many different people. Beginning translators and students come to the field with various misconceptions that affect their work. Lay audiences tend to have a profound misunderstanding of translation as practiced by professionals today. Other language professionals have also developed their own views. *Fundamentals of Translation* originates out of the frequent interaction with these professionals and students, and out of the subsequent realization that some common ground among language students and other language specialists is truly needed. The book attempts to do this by disseminating basic translation concepts and dispelling myths about translation among a broad base of readers.

## Topic

*Fundamentals of Translation* covers basic concepts of translation necessary for translation practice and teaching. The criterion used for the selection of concepts is their centrality to the principled practice of translation, keeping in mind the needs of a general audience. Students of translation often need to know, for instance, about translation briefs, parallel texts and textual functions, cohesion and coherence, old and new information, etc. The book also includes basic concepts of language and linguistics that are relevant for translation practice. By means of definitions, short explanations and simple examples, *Fundamentals* addresses and develops the answers to such questions as:

- What does a beginning student of translation, focused on practice, need to know conceptually?
- What does a practicing translator, in particular if he/she does not have a formal education in translation, need to know to be able to operationalize, formalize and discuss his/her practice?
- What does the language student interested in understanding translation (as vs. grammar translation, i.e., translation as a language exercise) need to know?
- What do language professionals, who may not want to become translators, need to know to understand translation as a form of cross-linguistic communication?

*Fundamentals of Translation* can also be conceptualized as a basic college-level textbook about translation concepts and about the content knowledge needed to practice translation in the twenty-first century. It is not intended, however, as an overview of all topics in the field; in fact, comprehensiveness will be sacrificed at times in order to attend to the needs of a wide, less specialized audience.

In describing what this book is about, we believe it will be useful to explain how it differs from current books on the market and what makes it unique.

1. *Fundamentals of Translation* is a book in the area of applied translation studies and translator education, rather than translation theory or translation studies per se.

As we will see in Chapter 1, translation studies is the research and scholarly field that studies translation and related phenomena. Books like Munday (2012), Gentzler (1993), (2001) and others are about translation studies. Their goal is to introduce translation studies research to researchers, graduate students or advanced undergraduates who plan to do research in the field. Many concepts and ideas included in *Fundamentals of Translation* have their origins in the work of translation scholars, and can be found and studied in depth in the translation studies literature, including the aforementioned textbooks. Yet, *Fundamentals* differs from those books in that it is written for readers whose primary goal is to learn about translating and interpreting; in reading *Fundamentals* readers will learn concepts that originated with translation studies, but they will not necessarily have to know about how this knowledge developed and how it came to be. *Fundamentals* attempts to bridge the divide between the scholarship and theory of translation, on the one hand, and the practice, on the other, by developing applied knowledge and concepts that are pertinent to the practice.

A good parallel can be established with Second Language Acquisition (SLA) and foreign-/second-language textbooks. Although the latter depend on knowledge in SLA, they do not teach students about SLA, but rather about language learning/teaching. *Fundamentals of Translation* is, of course, slightly different, in that it does not focus on translation practice (language books are about learning/practicing the language), but on the concepts behind the practice.

Another example to illustrate the differences between a translation studies textbook and *Fundamentals of Translation* concerns the field of general linguistics: Graduate-level textbooks in linguistics tend to summarize theories (generative, structuralist, functionalist) and specific data analyses. They also teach students how to do linguistic analysis. By contrast, an undergraduate introductory textbook on linguistics (cf. Hualde et al. [2010]) does not introduce theories, but describes and explains content and current knowledge (what phonemes, allophones, speech acts, rewrite rules, phrase structure rules, etc. are). *Fundamentals* attempts to do for translation something similar to what Hualde et al. (2010) does for (Hispanic) linguistics.

2. *Fundamentals of Translation* is a book about basic concepts of translation, rather than a manual of translation techniques, strategies or tips.

Therefore, it is not meant to teach the practice of translation directly but to explain basic concepts that often remain unexplained in practice-oriented courses. In other words, the focus is on conceptual issues that facilitate the teaching, understanding and practice of translation. The accompanying exercises are meant to help with the understanding of these concepts by providing for a more interactive approach. They are not intended to offer translation practice.

3. *Fundamentals of Translation* is language-neutral (i.e., it is not language-specific), and it has a non-literary focus, although the concepts presented are relevant to all translation activity.

## Audience and courses

*Fundamentals of Translation* is for a broad readership, including translators and student translators, but also can include language students, teachers and professionals who are not translation specialists and/or who may not plan to pursue translation as a career. It relies on a view of translation as a form of mediation, a cross-linguistic communicative pursuit, which is relevant, at least at the general, non-specialist level, to all language professionals.

In more specific terms, *Fundamentals* is primarily for:

- undergraduate students enrolled in courses/certificates in translation, in particular for those who have not had major exposure to translation studies and/or to the theoretical concepts behind the practice
- translation practitioners/professionals
- bilinguals
- language learners
- language teachers
- linguists and linguistics students
- professionals in language-related or linguistically involved fields (communication specialists, business professionals, health-care professionals).

No specific level of proficiency in any particular language is required, other than a basic understanding of language and language structure in general.

*Fundamentals of Translation* explains basic concepts of translation to all of the above groups in what we believe is the right proportion to address their shared needs. In so doing, this book attempts to cover a common conceptual ground shared by these constituencies, while making the case that translation (in the broader, less specialized sense presented here) is relevant and pertinent to the professional and academic lives of all these readers.

For (beginning) students of translation, *Fundamentals of Translation* provides a basic framework for discussion of translation processes and products, obviating the need for extensive and complex readings on theory; the book helps language learners and teachers to integrate translation concepts into their language and teaching experiences through a wider and up-to-date vision of translation, allowing them thus to learn about this related activity and possible career paths. Under this view, translation is introduced earlier in the language-learning curriculum, because it is not considered as the exclusive realm of balanced bilinguals. Bilinguals and professionals, already in possession of language skills or translation experience, will find in the book the conceptual framework that will help them to inform their practice and their language competence. Similarly, professionals in language-related or linguistically involved fields (communication specialists, business professionals, health-care professionals) will acquire a broader, more flexible understanding of their professions and of the concepts at the intersection with other language careers/professionals. Finally, linguists and linguistics students will find in this book what they need to understand translation as a communicative activity, as opposed to a language or glossing exercise. Overall, *Fundamentals* bridges the divide between theory and practice in translation by *translating* theoretical and empirical findings in translation studies and relevant fields to the day-to-day concerns of the described readerships.

## Courses for which the book is intended

A significant portion of the intended readership for this book consists of independent readers seeking self-learning. However, another large group consists of students enrolled in a variety of university/collegiate courses. In this context, *Fundamentals of Translation* is intended as a companion textbook (i.e., generally complementing other books, language-specific manuals or customized course packets) for a variety of translation, language and linguistics courses. For illustrative purposes, we include some general descriptions of the subject areas and specific examples of course titles and areas:

1. Translation practice courses, which are part of a university language program or of a translation curriculum (e.g., minors, majors and certificate sequences), offered in a face-to-face, hybrid or online mode. These are predominantly practical courses in need of a basic, straightforward, theoretical and conceptual context to frame the practice. The textbook could be used for entire course sequences (certificates in translation, practice-oriented degrees, translation concentrations in language departments, etc.), to accompany language-specific manuals or translation packets, etc. Some examples are:
   - Introductory, survey courses: e.g., *Introduction to translation*
   - Subject-specific translation courses: e.g., legal translation, technical translation, medical translation, business translation, etc.
   - Language-specific translation courses: e.g., Spanish translation, French translation, Italian translation, etc.
2. Non-translation specific courses, i.e., those in which translation is covered as a related activity, not as the main focus of the course. For these, *Fundamentals* works as a complementary, short textbook that introduces a topic not normally covered in the core texts. These courses are the equivalent of third- and fourth-year undergraduate courses in the United States and parts of Europe. Many of them have such titles as:
   - Introduction to German/Spanish/Japanese linguistics (etc., language-specific)
   - Introduction to Linguistics (general, non-language specific)
   - Introduction to applied linguistics
   - Service Learning
   - German/Spanish/Japanese, etc. for Professional Purposes
   - Advanced German/Spanish/Japanese, etc.
3. Non-traditional and industry-teaching formats, such as professional workshops (one–two-day workshops on translation), independent learning, etc.

Teachers using *Fundamentals* as a supplemental textbook for a course should be aware that, in order for the book to work as intended, it must be integrated with practice. Teachers need to address crucial concepts without shifting the focus to the theory. The conceptual base must be present, but unobtrusive and at the service of practice.

One possible way to achieve this is to have the students do the reading on their own and then refer to relevant concepts during practice ("Do you remember. . .?", "How does this relate to X concept we read about?"). Also, once the concepts have been introduced by means of the readings, they can be integrated into classroom terminology and the lesson structure. For instance, let us consider a translation assignment that includes a translation brief. Students could be asked to read the relevant pages in *Fundamentals of Translation* (in place of a classroom lecture on translation briefs). This would then allow the teacher to refer to the brief in the course and to structure translation activities around it. Another possibility is to devote some time to the discussion of the readings and their relevance to the course and practice in the classroom. This, however, should not take more than 10–15 percent of class time.

*Fundamentals of Translation* includes exercises (discussion, group and individual) at the end of each chapter, as well as exercises with commentary throughout the chapter. Discussion and group exercises are meant for in-class readers. The in-chapter exercises are designed to make the reading more engaging. *Fundamentals* also contains multiple examples, figures and texts.

It is also possible, depending on the type of class, to use only relevant sections and chapters of the book. For example, a language class interested in introducing simple translation tasks as communicative exercises may consider Chapters 1 and 2 for outside reading, and set aside the rest of the book.

## Features of the book

- Straightforward, easy-to-read explanations of essential and up-to-date concepts
- Guided in-chapter exercises with commentary
- End-of-chapter exercises (individual, group, discussion)
- Answer key
- Multiple examples and figures
- Suggestions for further reading
- Chapter summaries
- Online exercises

## Organization/structure

### 1. The term "translation": Concept, definition and usage

Chapter 1 reviews various definitions of translation, addressing the difficulties involved in trying to define "translation." This chapter also provides an overview of types of translation, such as overt and covert translation, communicative, dynamic and formal translation, grammar translation, interlinear translation, etc. Equivalence and equivalence types are discussed in connection with the notion of translation, as well as the problems involved in trying to come up with an a priori definition of the term. Translation is situated within the wider context of cross-cultural communication, the language industry and language for specific purposes. In addition, the chapter reviews various types of translation-related activities (e.g., editing, proofreading for translation, machine translation, etc.) and translation competencies.

### 2. The functions of translation: Functionalism

Chapter 2 reviews functionalism (a.k.a. Skopos theory, from the Greek *skopos* meaning "purpose") and some basic notions associated with it, while also explaining how to apply them in translation practice and discussion. It addresses related topics, such as: situational features and how they affect both monolingual and translated texts; the translation brief and translation norms; changes in situational features, and how they influence and guide translation decisions; the "lifecycle" of a commissioned translation, etc. As in other chapters, examples and illustrations accompany the presentation.

### 3. The functions of translation: Pragmatics

Chapter 3 explains notions of pragmatics relevant for translation practice, such as speech acts, differences between grammatical functions and pragmatic functions, etc., always considering the implications for the practicing translator or person interested in the practice.

## 4. Texts and translation

Chapter 4 covers aspects of texts and textual linguistics that are useful for the practice of translation, such as: differences between sentences and texts; translating sentences vs. translating texts; cohesion and coherence, markers of cohesion and coherence, cross-linguistic differences in cohesion and coherence, and translation implications. Additional topics are textual functions (text types) and genres. Armed with these basic concepts, readers are given some tips on textual and parallel text analysis and shown how assistive texts (background texts, parallel texts) and online corpus tools can be used for translation tasks.

## 5. Reading and translation

Chapter 5 summarizes what reading as an interactive process means for the craft of the translator, including such concepts as background knowledge and its relation to specialized texts, new and old information, word meaning as activation of a potential meaning within a particular text, and the translator as a reader.

## 6. Social aspects of translating

Chapter 6 goes over notions of sociolinguistics that have implications for translation. Some examples are: register, dialectal variation, the nature of language change and variation, prestigious varieties vs. stigmatized ones, translating in multilingual societies, etc.

## 7. Translation quality

Chapter 7 reviews some of the difficulties involved in evaluating translations. It presents a flexible, customer-defined and easy-to-apply view of quality and explains the basic notions involved. The chapter offers some suggestions for translators and teachers on how to address the topic of quality in a systematic way, which is also crucially related to principles discussed in previous chapters: translation brief, source text, target-text norms, functional adequacy, specialized contents, etc. As in other chapters, the content presented attempts to dispel existing myths about the topic of quality, translation and language. It shows students how to review their own translations and monitor their quality on the basis of the translation brief and textual considerations, and how to use customer (and other types of) feedback to improve their performance in a principled way.

# Acknowledgements

Numerous people have played a part in the writing of this book, and I would like to express my gratitude to all who directly or indirectly contributed to it.

In particular, I need to thank the Department of Spanish and Portuguese and the College of Humanities at the University of Arizona for a sabbatical semester in the fall of 2012 that allowed me to jump-start this book. I am also extremely grateful to Sue Ellen Wright (Kent State University) for very extensive comments and for trying out sections of the manuscript in her classes. Tasha Campbell provided invaluable, detailed editorial comments as well as a gentle hand, for which I am very thankful. For help with examples, I thank Claudia Angelelli, Brian Baer, Ana Carvalho, Joseph Casillas, Sarra Said and Paul Sundberg, and Joseph Casillas for his extraordinary assistance with the index.

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Finally, I thank six anonymous reviewers and the editorial team at Cambridge University Press for helpful feedback and guidance.

This book is dedicated to Eric, Mariana, and Adrian.

# 1 The term "translation": Concept, definitions and usage

## 1.0 INTRODUCTION

Most books on translation start out with a section devoted to the definition of translation. In that respect, this book is not unlike them. Yet, it also differs significantly from them. While it makes sense for many publications to define and delimit their field of study before embarking on it, the concept and definition of translation are core elements of *Fundamentals of Translation*. *Fundamentals* is about achieving a better understanding of the concept and definition of translation. In this first chapter, we explicitly present the concept and associated terms, and then devote the remainder of the book to related issues, with the goal of helping the reader come to a deeper understanding and a transformed conceptualization of translation. The following sections take as their point of departure a brief, basic definition of translation and related terms (e.g., translating, interpreting, translation studies), to later present the difficulties involved in arriving at a more definitive concept, including the notion of equivalence. In an effort to assist the reader in acquiring a more up-to-date conceptualization of the term, the chapter also reviews types of translation activity, professional translation (i.e., translation in a professional context) and their connection with translation ability.

## 1.1 Translation, translating and translation studies

As illustrated by the examples in Example 1.1, the term **translation** can refer to an activity, a product and the scholarly field that studies both the activity and the product(s). This book will deal with the first two, namely, the product (translation or translations), and the activity or process that produced this product(s) (also referred to as translating). The distinction between the process and the product is not always clear-cut, as the two concepts often overlap, whereby it can be difficult to draw a clear line where the one ends and the other begins.

### Example 1.1: The term “translation”

1. Product. *The brochure was a translation from English, so it did not work well in the Russian market.*
2. Process. *The interns were working on a translation of the letter from the principal to the workers.*
3. Field. *Translation is sometimes considered an area of applied linguistics.*

(For additional practice with these concepts, see Exercise 1 and Exercise 2 in the Exercise section at the end of this chapter.)

The scholarly field that studies translation and interpreting and related phenomena is known as translation studies. The name was first coined by Holmes (1988) and has since become established wherever the field is cited. In the last few years some degree of confusion has arisen, however, with regard to the name **translation studies**. As interest in translating and interpreting grows, teaching and training programs of various types have become common in universities and other educational institutions. With the rise of area studies and cultural studies, it seemed logical to some to simply apply the same template to translation and interpretation, and refer to any program dealing with translation and interpretation as a Translation (and Interpreting) Studies program. Unfortunately, in some cases the label was applied (often by well-intended administrators, clearly not familiar with the field) to programs whose primary concern is the training and education of translators and interpreters (i.e., the practice of translating and/or interpreting), with little or no reference to the scholarly field itself. Within the translation studies field, these areas are normally specified and referred to as **translator and interpreter training** or **education** (T&I). Degrees from such programs are frequently called an "MA in Translation," perhaps with a language specification, while advanced theoretical degrees may be titled "PhD in translation studies."

As mentioned in the Preface, this book is not about translation studies per se, although it draws from current knowledge in this field, as well as from other relevant disciplines.

## 1.2 Preliminary definition: Basic concept

This book takes as its point of departure a basic, **preliminary definition of translation**:

> Translation refers to the process of, or the product resulting from, transferring or mediating written text(s) of different lengths (ranging from words and sentences to entire books) from one human language to another.

This preliminary definition attempts to capture the essence of the concept of translation, i.e., the core elements that most scholars and practitioners will agree are present in the concept of translation: (i) written text; (ii) transfer; (iii) from one natural language to another, as summarized below.

Core elements of translation
(i) written texts
(ii) transfer or mediation
(iii) from one natural language to another

It is important to stress that translation deals with the transfer of *written* text. When the text or the medium is *oral*, however, the term used is **interpreting** or **interpretation**. In lay circles, one can sometimes hear the terms **translation** and **translator** being used to refer to interpreting and interpreter, with no distinction being made with regards to medium. In other areas, also, Translation with a capital "T" can be used to refer to both translation and interpreting as forms of mediation, whereas translation with a lower-case "t" means translation. This book follows common usage in T&I, in which the oral vs. written medium establishes a distinction with regard to field and practice.

In translating, the language from which a text is translated is known as the source language (SL) and the language of the translated product is the target language (TL). What is also referred to as the original text is generally known as the **source text** (ST) and the translated text is the **target text** (TT). For instance, in a translation of Shakespeare's *Hamlet* into Spanish, the ST would be the English original text and the Spanish translation the TT (see Exercise 3 for more examples of ST and TT). Practice 1.1 contains an example with commentary that will help you test your understanding of the notions SL, TL, ST and TT.

### **Practice 1.1:** On SL, TL, ST and TT

Consider Figures 1.1, 1.2 and 1.3. What would be the SL, TL, ST and TT for each one of these figures? You may need to infer some information based on the texts.

#### Commentary

Upon examination of the texts, you will see that all three figures are translations (commissioned by the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention). Therefore, the languages they are written in are the TLs, namely, Chinese (Figure 1.1), Vietnamese (Figure 1.2) and Russian (Figure 1.3). Considering who commissioned the translations, we can safely assume that the language that they were translated from is English; therefore, the SL for Figures 1.1, 1.2 and 1.3 is English. Each figure contains one TT, in each of the TLs. The ST is not provided.

| | Figure 1.1 | Figure 1.2 | Figure 1.3 |
|---|---|---|---|
| SL | English | English | English |
| TL | Chinese | Vietnamese | Russian |
| ST | (not shown) | (not shown) | (not shown) |
| TT | Figure 1.1 | Figure 1.2 | Figure 1.3 |

IMM 548 ML

# 脊髓灰質炎疫苗

## 您需要了解的資訊

### 1 甚麼是脊髓灰質炎?

**脊髓灰質炎是一種病毒引發的疾病。**通過口腔進入兒童（或成人）的體內。有時不會引起嚴重的疾病。但有時會造成麻痺（手臂或腿無法移動），還會有致命的危險，通常是使幫助呼吸的肌肉麻痺。

脊髓灰質炎曾經在美國十分流行。在我們發現脊髓灰質炎的接種疫苗之前，脊髓灰質炎每年導致數以千計的美國人麻痺和死亡。

### 2 為甚麼要接種疫苗?

**非活動性脊髓灰質炎疫苗 (IPV) 可以預防脊髓灰質炎。**

**歷史:** 1916年脊髓灰質炎在美國流行，導致6,000人死亡和27,000多人麻痺。五十年代初期，每年出現20,000多例脊髓灰質炎病患。**脊髓灰質炎疫苗接種起始於1955年。**至1960年，病患數目已經減少至3,000例，至1979年，降低至僅為約10例。脊髓灰質炎疫苗在美國和其他國家取得的成功激發了世界各國人們徹底消滅脊髓灰質炎的努力。

**今天:** 二十多年來美國未曾有任何失控脊髓灰質炎的報導。但是這一疾病在某些國家依然流行。如果我們不受疫苗的保護，來自其他國家的一個病例就會將這一疾病重新帶回美國。如果在世界上徹底消滅這一疾病的努力取得成功，將來我們可能不再需要脊髓灰質炎疫苗。但在此之前，我們必須讓我們的兒童接種疫苗。

### 3 哪些人應該接種脊髓灰質炎疫苗以及應該在甚麼時候接種?

IPV是一種根據不同年齡在腿部或手臂上注射的針劑。脊髓灰質炎疫苗可以在接種其他疫苗時同時接種。

**兒童**

大多數人應當在兒童時期接種脊髓灰質炎疫苗。兒童在以下年齡分別接種四劑IPV疫苗:

- ✔ 2個月時一劑
- ✔ 4個月時一劑
- ✔ 6-18個月時一劑
- ✔ 4-6歲時一劑（加強劑量）

**成人**

大多數成人無須接種脊髓灰質炎疫苗，因為他們已經在兒童時期接種疫苗。但是三種成人屬於高危險群，應當考慮接種脊髓灰質炎疫苗:

(1) 到脊髓灰質炎流行區旅行的人;
(2) 接觸脊髓灰質炎的實驗室工作人員; 以及
(3) 為可能患有脊髓灰質炎的病患治病的健康護理工作人員。

屬於上述三種類別但**從未接種脊髓灰質炎疫苗**的成人應當接種三劑IPV疫苗:

- ✔ 在任何時間接種第一劑;
- ✔ 1-2個月後接種第二次劑;
- ✔ 第二次劑後6-12個月接種第三次劑。

屬於上述三種類別但**曾經接種過一劑或兩劑**脊髓灰質炎疫苗的成人應當接種剩餘的一劑或兩劑疫苗。距離以前接種的時間長短不計。

**口服脊髓灰質炎疫苗: 不再提倡使用**

共有兩種脊髓灰質炎疫苗: **IPV**—目前在美國建議使用的針劑，**OPV**—活性口服脊髓灰質炎疫苗，此為口服滴劑。

過去，在美國一直建議大部份兒童服用OPV。OPV幫助我們在本國消滅了脊髓灰質炎，目前依然在很多國家使用。

兩種疫苗均能對脊髓灰質炎產生免疫力，但是OPV在預防疾病傳染方面更有效。但是，對於少數人（約2,400,000分之一），OPV會引起脊髓灰質炎。由於在美國傳染脊髓灰質炎的危險已經極低，專家認為不值得冒險使用口服脊髓灰質炎疫苗，醫生許可的有限情況例外。脊髓灰質炎針劑 (IPV) 不會引起脊髓灰質炎。**如果您或您的孩子將服用OPV，請索取一份OPV補充疫苗資訊說明。**

屬於上述三種類別但**曾經接種過三劑或三劑以上**脊髓灰質炎疫苗（IPV或OPV）的成人可以接種一劑IPV加強劑量疫苗。

詳細情況請諮詢您的健康護理供應商。

**Polio - Chinese - 1/1/2000**

**Figure 1.1** Determining the SL, TL, ST and TT.

## 4 有的人不應接種IPV疫苗或者應該推遲接種時間

**下列人士不應接種IPV疫苗:**

- 曾經對新霉素、鏈霉素或多粘菌素B等抗生素有危及生命的過敏反應的人不應注射脊髓灰質炎針劑。
- 任何對脊髓灰質炎針劑有嚴重過敏反應的人不應再接受注射。

**下列人士應當推遲接種時間:**

- 在預定接受疫苗注射時患有中等或嚴重疾病的人通常應該等到痊愈後再接種脊髓灰質炎疫苗。患有輕度疾病（如感冒）的人可能可以接種。

詳細情況請諮詢您的健康護理供應商。

## 5 IPV疫苗的風險是甚麼?

某些人在接種IPV疫苗後，注射部位會出現疼痛。當今使用的接種疫苗從未引發過任何嚴重的問題，絕大多數人沒有任何問題。

但是，如同所有藥物一樣，疫苗可能引發嚴重的問題，例如嚴重的過敏反應。脊髓灰質炎針劑對人造成嚴重傷害或致人死亡的可能性極其微小。

## 6 如果發生嚴重反應怎麼辦?

**我應該注意觀察甚麼症狀?**
注意觀察任何不尋常的症狀，如嚴重過敏反應、高燒或行為變化。

如果出現嚴重過敏反應，通常發生在打針後數分鐘至數小時內。嚴重過敏反應的症狀包括呼吸困難、虛弱、聲音嘶啞或喘鳴、心跳過速、蕁麻疹、頭暈、臉色蒼白或喉嚨腫痛。

**我應怎麼辦?**

- 立即給醫生打電話或者帶此人去看醫生。
- 告訴您的醫生所發生的症狀，發生的日期及時間，以及接種疫苗的時間。
- 要求您的醫生、護士、或健康部門提交「疫苗不良反應報告系統」(VAERS) 表，或親自撥VAERS的免費電話: **1-800-822-7967**。

報告過敏反應有助於專家了解接種疫苗可能出現的問題。

## 7 全國疫苗傷病補償項目

萬一您或您的孩子在接種疫苗後發生嚴重過敏反應，聯邦政府已為此設立一個聯邦項目，以幫助您支付照顧那些發生傷病的人的有關費用。

要想了解全國疫苗傷病補償項目的詳細情況，請撥打電話**1-800-338-2382**或者查詢該項目的網站，網址為: http://www.hrsa.gov/osp/vicp/

## 8 我怎樣能夠了解更多的資訊?

- 詢問您的醫生或護士。他們能夠給您有關疫苗的資料或建議您從其他資訊來源查詢。
- 與您當地或州健康部門的免疫項目聯絡。
- 與疾病控制與預防中心 (CDC) 聯絡:
  - Call 1-800-232-4636 (1-800-CDC-INFO)
  - 訪問全國免疫項目的網站，網址為 **http://www.cdc.gov/nip**

CDC
CENTERS FOR DISEASE CONTROL AND PREVENTION

**U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH & HUMAN SERVICES**
Centers for Disease Control and Prevention
National Immunization Program

Vaccine Information Statement
Polio IMM 548 ML - Chinese - 1/1/2000
Translated by Transcend Translations, Davis, CA
http://www.transcend.net

**Figure 1.1** (cont.)

# THUỐC CHỦNG NGỪA BỊNH BẠI LIỆT

## NHỮNG GÌ QUÍ VỊ CẦN BIẾT

### 1 Bịnh bại liệt là gì?

**Bại liệt là một bịnh gây ra bởi một loại siêu vi khuẩn.** Siêu vi khuẩn này đi vào cơ thể đứa bé (hoặc cơ thể người lớn) xuyên qua miệng. Thỉnh thoảng nó không gây ra bịnh hoạn trầm trọng. Nhưng thỉnh thoảng nó gây ra *bại liệt* (không thể cử động tay hoặc chân). Nó có thể gây chết người nào nhiễm phải nó, thường thì do làm bại liệt các bắp thịt giúp con người thở.

Bịnh bại liệt trước kia là rất thông thường ở trên nước Mỹ. Bịnh đã làm bại liệt và chết hàng ngàn người mỗi năm trước khi chúng ta có thuốc chủng ngừa cho bịnh này.

### 2 Tại sao phải được chủng ngừa ?

**Thuốc chủng ngừa bịnh bại liệt loại khử hoạt tính (IPV) có thể ngăn ngừa bịnh bại liệt.**

**Lịch sử:** Vào năm 1916 dịch bại liệt trên nước Mỹ đã giết chết 6,000 người và làm bại liệt thêm 27,000 người. Vào những năm đầu của thập niên 1950 đã có hơn 20,000 trường hợp của bịnh bại liệt xảy ra mỗi năm. **Việc chủng ngừa bịnh bại liệt đã được khởi sự năm 1955.** Đến năm 1960 số trường hợp mắc bịnh đã giảm xuống còn khoảng 3,000, và đến năm 1979 chỉ còn có 10 trường hợp. Sự thành công của việc chủng ngừa bịnh bại liệt trên nước Mỹ và trên những quốc gia khác đã làm phát khởi nổ lực trên toàn thế giới để loại mất hẳn bịnh bại liệt.

**Ngày nay:** Không còn bịnh bại liệt không kiềm chế được nào được báo cáo trên nước Mỹ trong hơn 20 năm qua. Nhưng bịnh này hiện còn là thông thường ở vài nơi trên thế giới. Chỉ cần có một trường hợp bịnh bại liệt từ một quốc gia khác để đem bịnh trở lại nếu chúng ta không được bảo vệ bởi chủng ngừa. Nếu nổ lực để loại mất hẳn bịnh này trên toàn thế giới được thành công, một ngày nào đó chúng ta sẽ không còn cần thiết phải chủng ngừa. Từ giờ cho đến lúc đó, chúng ta phải giữ cho con chúng ta được chủng ngừa.

### 3 Ai nên được chủng ngừa và khi nào ?

Thuốc chủng ngừa khử hoạt tính (IPV) là loại thuốc chích, được tiêm vào chân hoặc cánh tay, tùy theo tuổi tác. Thuốc chủng ngừa bại liệt có thể được chủng cùng lúc với các loại thuốc chủng ngừa khác.

**Trẻ em**
Hầu hết mọi người được chủng ngừa bại liệt khi họ còn là trẻ em. Các trẻ em được chủng 4 liều thuốc loại IPV, ở những tuổi:

- ✔ Một liều lúc được 2 tháng
- ✔ Một liều lúc được 4 tháng
- ✔ Một liều lúc được 6-18 tháng
- ✔ Một liều tăng thế lúc được 4-6 tuổi

**Người lớn**
Hầu hết người lớn không cần chủng ngừa bởi vì khi là trẻ em họ đã được chủng ngừa rồi. Tuy nhiên có ba nhóm người lớn có cấp độ nguy hiểm cao và *phải* nghĩ tới việc chủng ngừa:

(1) những người đi du lịch sang những khu vực trên thế giới mà nơi đó bịnh bại liệt thường xảy ra,
(2) những nhân viên các phòng thí nghiệm có thể chạm xúc siêu vi khuẩn bịnh bại liệt, và
(3) những nhân viên chăm sóc sức khỏe điều trị các bịnh nhân có thể có bịnh bại liệt.

Những người lớn thuộc trong ba nhóm đó mà **chưa hề được chủng ngừa chống bịnh bại liệt** phải được chủng ngừa với 3 liều thuốc loại IPV:

- ✔ Liều thứ nhứt bất cứ lúc nào,
- ✔ Liều thứ nhì từ 1 tới 2 tháng sau,
- ✔ Liều thứ ba 6 tới 12 tháng sau liều thứ nhì.

Những người lớn trong ba nhóm này mà **đã được tiêm 1 hoặc 2 liều** thuốc chủng ngừa bại liệt trong quá khứ phải tiêm 1 hoặc 2 liều thuốc còn lại. Dù bao lâu đã đi qua từ lúc được tiêm liều thuốc (hoặc nhiều liều) trước kia cũng không hề gì.

Những người lớn trong ba nhóm này mà **đã được chủng với 3 liều** hoặc nhiều hơn thuốc chủng ngừa bịnh bại liệt (dù là loại IPV hoặc OPV) trong quá khứ có thể chủng liều tăng thế thuốc loại IPV.

Xin hỏi cơ sở cung ứng dịch vụ chăm sóc sức khỏe của quí vị để có thêm nhiều tin tức hơn.

**Thuốc chủng ngừa loại uống : Không còn đề nghị dùng nữa**

Có hai loại thuốc chủng ngừa bịnh bại liệt : **IPV** , là loại thuốc chích được đề nghị xử dụng hiện thời trên nước Mỹ, và thuốc chủng ngừa loại uống, còn sống (**OPV**), là loại thuốc giọt để nuốt vào.

Cho đến gần đây thuốc loại OPV đã được đề nghị dùng cho hầu hết trẻ em trên nước Mỹ. Thuốc loại OPV đã giúp chúng ta loại được bịnh bại liệt ra khỏi quốc gia, và hiện thuốc này vẫn còn được xử dụng ở nhiều nơi trên thế giới.

Cả hai loại thuốc chủng ngừa tạo miễn dịch với bịnh bại liệt, nhưng thuốc loại OPV công hiệu hơn trong việc giữ không cho bịnh lan truyền sang cho người khác. Tuy nhiên, với một số rất ít người (khoảng một trong 2.4 triệu người), thuốc loại OPV thực sự gây ra bịnh bại liệt. Vì nguy cơ mắc phải bịnh bại liệt trên nước Mỹ ngày nay là hết sức thấp, các nhà thông thạo tin rằng thuốc ngừa bịnh bại liệt loại uống không còn đáng dùng dù chỉ một nguy cơ rất nhỏ đi nữa, ngoại trừ những trường hợp có giới hạn mà bác sĩ có thể cho toa thuốc. Thuốc chủng ngừa bịnh bại liệt loại chích (IPV) không gây ra bịnh bại liệt. **Nếu quí vị hoặc con quí vị sẽ được chủng ngừa với thuốc loại OPV, hãy hỏi lấy một bản Phát Biểu Tin Tức bổ túc về Thuốc Chủng Ngừa loại OPV .**

Vietnamese

**Polio - 1/1/2000**

**Figure 1.2** Determining the SL, TL, ST and TT.

4 Một số người không nên chủng ngừa với thuốc loại IPV hoặc phải chờ đợi .

**Những người này không nên chủng ngừa với thuốc loại IPV:**

- Bất cứ người nào đã từng bị phản ứng dị ứng nguy đến tánh mạng đối với các loại thuốc trụ sinh **neomycin, sreptomycin** hoặc **polymycin B** không nên chích chủng ngừa bại liệt.

- Bất cứ người nào đã có phản ứng dị ứng trầm trọng với thuốc chích ngừa bịnh bại liệt không nên chích ngừa một lần nữa.

**Những người này phải chờ đợi:**

- Bất cứ người nào đang bị bịnh kha khá hoặc trầm trọng trong thời gian được ấn định để chích ngừa thông thường phải chờ đợi cho đến khi họ hết bịnh trước khi chích ngừa bịnh bại liệt. Những người bị bịnh nhẹ, như là cảm lạnh, ***có thể*** được chủng ngừa.

Xin hỏi cơ sở cung ứng dịch vụ chăm sóc sức khỏe của quí vị để có thêm nhiều tin tức hơn.

5 Có những nguy hiểm nào từ thuốc loại IPV ?

Một số người khi được chủng với thuốc loại IPV có một mụt lở nơi chỗ kim chích. Thuốc chủng ngừa được xử dụng ngày nay được biết là không bao giờ gây ra những trục trặc trầm trọng nào, và hầu hết mọi người không hề có bất cứ loại trục trặc nào với việc chích chủng ngừa.

Tuy nhiên, thuốc chủng ngừa, cũng giống như bất cứ loại y dược nào, đều có thể gây ra các trục trặc trầm trọng, như là phản ứng dị ứng trầm trọng. *Nguy cơ gây ra tổn thương trầm trọng, hoặc chết do việc chích ngừa bịnh bại liệt là vô cùng nhỏ nhoi.*

6 Phải làm gì nếu có phản ứng trầm trọng ?

**Tôi phải tìm xem những gì ?**
Hãy tìm xem bất cứ tình trạng bất thường nào, như là phản ứng dị ứng trầm trọng, cơn sốt cao, hoặc cách xử sự bất thường.

Nếu phản ứng dị ứng trầm trọng xảy ra, việc này có thể xảy ra trong vòng từ vài phút đến vài giờ sau khi chích. Các dấu hiệu của phản ứng dị ứng trầm trọng có thể gồm có thở khó khăn, yếu đuối, giọng khàn khàn hoặc thở khò khè, tim đập nhanh, nổi mề đai, chóng mặt, xanh xao, hoặc sưng cổ họng.

**Tôi phải làm gì ?**

- Gọi bác sĩ, hoặc đưa người ấy tới bác sĩ ngay tức thì.

- Nói cho bác sĩ biết việc gì đã xảy ra, ngày và giờ khi việc ấy xảy ra, và hồi nào việc chủng ngừa đã được thực hiện.

- Yêu cầu bác sĩ, y tá của quí vị, hoặc sở sức khỏe điền vào mẫu Hệ Thống Báo Cáo Trường Hợp Chủng Ngừa Nghịch Hành (VAERS), hoặc đích thân quí vị gọi đến VAERS điện thoại miễn phí ở số **1-800-822-7967**.

  Báo cáo các phản ứng sẽ giúp các nhà thông thạo học hỏi được các trục trặc có thể xảy ra với các loại thuốc chủng ngừa.

7 Chương Trình Quốc Gia Bồi Thường Thương Tích do Chủng Ngừa

Trong trường hợp hiếm có mà quí vị hoặc con quí vị có phản ứng trầm trọng với việc chủng ngừa, có một chương trình liên bang có thể giúp đỡ chi trả cho sự chăm sóc cho những ai đã bị tổn hại.

Về chi tiết của Chương Trình Quốc Gia Bồi Thường Thương tích Do Chủng Ngừa (National Vaccine Injury Compensation Program), quí vị gọi số **1-800-338-2382** hoặc viếng thăm chương trình trên mạng thông tin ở địa chỉ
**http://www.hrsa.gov/osp/vicp/**

8 Làm sao tôi có thể học hỏi nhiều hơn ?

- Hỏi bác sĩ hoặc y tá của quí vị. Vị ấy có thể đưa cho quí vị các bản thêm vào cho cặp tài liệu chủng ngừa hoặc đề nghị các nguồn tin tức khác.

- Gọi đến chương trình tạo miễn dịch tại sở sức khỏe địa phương hoặc tiểu bang của quí vị.

- Tiếp xúc với Các Trung Tâm về Kiểm Soát Bịnh Hoạn và Phòng Ngừa (CDC) :
  - Call 1-800-232-4636 (1-800-CDC-INFO)
  - Viếng thăm Chương Trình Quốc Gia Tạo Miễn Dịch trên mạng thông tin địa chỉ **http:/www.cdc.gov/nip**

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**U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH & HUMAN SERVICES**
Centers for Disease Control and Prevention
National Immunization Program

Vaccine Information Statement
Polio (1/1/2000) - Vietnamese 42 U.S.C. § 300aa-26

Translation provided by the Minnesota Department of Health

**Figure 1.2** (cont.)

# ВАКЦИНА ПРОТИВ ПОЛИОМИЕЛИТА

## ЧТО ВАМ НУЖНО ЗНАТЬ

### 1 Что такое полиомиелит?

**Полиомиелит - это болезнь, которая вызывается вирусом.** Вирус попадает в организм ребёнка (или взрослого) через рот. Иногда это не ведёт к тяжёлой форме болезни. Но в некоторых случаях наступает *паралич* (обездвиженность ноги или руки). Болезнь может привести к смерти обычно в результате паралича дыхательной мускулатуры.

Полиомиелит был широко распространён в Соединённых Штатах. До внедрения вакцины тысячи людей были парализованы и умерли в результате болезни.

### 2 Зачем нужно делать прививку?

**Инакт ивированная полиовакцина (IPV) может предохранить Вас от болезни.**

**Из истории:** В 1916 году в результате эпидемии полиомиелита в Соединённых Штатах умерло 6 000 и было парализовано более 27 000 человек. В начале 1950-х годов регистрировалось более 20 000 случаев полиомиелита ежегодно. **Вакцинация против полиомиелита началась в 1955 году.** К 1960 году количество случаев болезни упало до 3 000 и в 1979 году было зарегистрировано только 10. Успех вакцинации против полиомиелита в США и других странах вызвал всемирный интерес, направленный на ликвидацию полиомиелита.

**Сегодня:** В течение более 20 лет в Соединённых Штатах не было зарегистрировано свежих случаев полиомиелита. Однако болезнь все ещё распространена в некоторых частях света. Достаточно только одного случая полиомиелита, завезенного из другой страны, чтобы вызвать эпидемию болезни у населения, не защищенного прививками. Если усилия по ликвидации полиомиелита в мире приведут к успеху, нам не нужны будут прививки против этой болезни. А пока наши дети должны быть привиты против полиомиелита.

### 3 Кто должен получить прививку против полиомиелита и когда?

IPV назначается в уколах, которые вводятся в ногу или руку в зависимости от возраста. Прививка против полиомиелита может быть сделана в одно и тоже время с другими прививками.

**Дети**
Большинство людей получают прививку против полиомиелита в детском возрасте. Дети получают 4 дозы IPV в таком возрасте:
- ✔ Одну дозу в 2 месяца
- ✔ Одну дозу в 4 месяца
- ✔ Одну дозу в 6-18 месяцев
- ✔ Ревакцинированную дозу в 4-6 лет

**Взрослые**
Большинство взрослых не нуждается в прививках против полиомиелита, потому что они были привиты ещё в детстве. Однако существуют три группы взрослых с повышенным риском на полиомиелит, которые *должны* быть привиты. К ним относятся:
(1) лица, выезжающие в те части света, где полиомиелит распространён,
(2) лаборанты, работающие с вирусом полиомиелита, и
(3) сотрудники здравоохранения, лечащие больных полиомиелитом.

Взрослые из этих трёх групп, которые **никогда не были привиты против полиомиелита,** должны получить 3 дозы IPV:
- ✔ Первую дозу в любое время,
- ✔ Вторую дозу через 1-2 месяца после первой,
- ✔ Третью дозу через 6-12 месяцев после второй.

Взрослые из этих трёх групп, которые **в прошлом получили одну или две дозы вакцины против полиомиелита,** должны получить оставшиеся 1 или 2 дозы. При этом не имеет значения, сколько времени прошло после ранней(х) прививок.

Взрослые из этих трёх групп, которые в прошлом **получили 3 и более доз** вакцины против полиомиелита (как IPV, так и OPV), должны получить ревакцинированную дозу IPV.

Обратитесь в свою поликлинику за более подробной информацией.

**Пероральная полиовакцина: В настоящее время не рекомендуется.**

Существуют два вида вакцин против полиомиелита: **IPV**, которая назначается в уколах и рекомендуется на сегодня в Соединённых Штатах, и живая пероральная полиовакцина **(OPV)**, которая назначается в виде капель в рот.

До недавнего времени OPV назначалась большинству детей в Соединённых Штатах. OPV помогла нам избавить страну от полиомиелита, и она всё ещё используется во многих частях света.

Обе вакцины дают иммунитет против полиомиелита, но OPV лучше предохраняет болезнь от распространения другим лицам. Однако у небольшого количества лиц (примерно у одного на 2.4 миллиона) OPV может вызвать заболевание полиомиелитом. Поскольку риск получить полиомиелит в Соединённых Штатах сейчас очень мал, эксперты считают, что использование пероральной полиовакцины не стоит этого риска за исключением ограниченных обстоятельств, которые доктор может Вам перечислить. Полиовакцина, назначаемая в уколах (IPV), не вызывает заболевание полиомиелитом. **Если Вам или Вашему ребёнку назначали вакцинацию OPV, попросите копию информационного листа, прилагаемого к вакцине.**

Russian

Polio - 1/1/2000

**Figure 1.3** Determining the SL, TL, ST and TT.

**4 Некоторым лицам IPV противопоказана или должна быть отсрочена.**

**Те, кому IPV противопоказана:**

- Лицам, у которых была угрожающая жизни аллергическая реакция на антибиотики **неомицин, стрептомицин или полимиксин B**, нельзя вводить укол вакцины против полиомиелита.
- Лицам, у которых была тяжелая аллергическая реакция на укол вакцины против полиомиелита, нельзя вводить эту вакцину повторно.

**Те, кому прививка должна быть отсрочена:**

- Лицам, у которых имеется умеренно выраженная или тяжёлая форма болезни на момент получения прививки, прививка должна быть отсрочена до полного выздоровления. Лица с лёгким течением болезни, например, спростудой, ***могут быть*** привиты.

Лицам, у которых была тяжелая аллергическая реакция на OPV, нельзя повторно вводить эту вакцину.

**5 Какой риск от IPV?**

У некоторых лиц после укола IPV наблюдается болезненность в месте укола. Вакцина, которая используется в настоящее время, не вызывает серьёзных осложнений, и у большинства людей не наблюдается никаких проблем после прививки.

Однако вакцина, как любое лекарство, может вызвать серьёзные осложнения, например, тяжёлую аллергическую реакцию. *Риск получить от укола вакцины против полиомиелита серьёзное повреждение или смерть очень мал.*

**6 Что делать, если возникает тяжёлая реакция?**

**На что я должен(на) обратить внимание?**
Следите за любым необычным состоянием, таким как тяжёлая аллергическая реакция, высокая температура или необычное поведение.

Тяжёлая аллергическая реакция развивается от нескольких минут до нескольких часов после укола. Симптомы тяжёлой аллергической реакции включают в себя затруднённое дыхание, резкую слабость, охриплость голоса или хрипы при дыхании, учащённое сердцебиение, крапивницу, головокружение, бледность или отёчность горла.

**Что я должен(на) делать?**

- Звоните врачу или доставьте больного в больницу немедленно.
- Сообщите врачу, что случилось, дату и время случившегося и когда была сделана прививка.
- Попросите врача, медсестру или отдел здравоохранения заполнить форму отчёта по неблагоприятным реакциям на вакцину в информационную систему (VAERS) или позвоните туда сами по бесплатному телефону **1-800-822-7967**.

Отчёт о реакциях поможет экспертам изучить возможные осложнения на вакцину.

**7 Национальная программа компенсации пострадавшим от иммунизации**

В тех редких случаях, когда Вы или Ваш ребёнок получает тяжёлые реакции на вакцину, существует федеральная программа, помогающая оплатить расходы на лечение тем, кто пострадал.

Для более подробной информации о Национальной программе компенсации пострадавшим от иммунизации (National Vaccine Injury Compensation Program) звоните по телефону **1-800-338-2382** или посетите программу в Интернете http://www.hrsa.gov/osp/vicp/

**8 Как я могу узнать о прививках больше?**

- Обратитесь к врачу или медсестре. Он/она могут дать Вам инструкции по вакцинам или подсказать другие источники информации.
- Звоните в программу по иммунизации местного или штатского отдела здравоохранения.
- Обращайтесь в Центры по контролю и профилактике болезней (CDC):
  - Call 1-800-232-4636 (1-800-CDC-INFO)
  - Посетите Национальную программу по иммунизации в Интернете **http://www.cdc.gov/nip**

CDC
CENTERS FOR DISEASE CONTROL AND PREVENTION

**U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH & HUMAN SERVICES**
Centers for Disease Control and Prevention
National Immunization Program

Vaccine Information Statement
Polio (1/1/2000) - Russian 42 U.S.C. § 300aa-26

Translation provided by the Minnesota Department of Health

**Figure 1.3** (cont.)

To recapitulate, in section 1.2 we have formulated a preliminary definition of translation, which includes the core elements of (i) written text; (ii) transfer or mediation; (iii) from one human language to another. The goal was to start from a definition that is simple and as objective as possible, and that does not include specific views of translation. Existing definitions, such as those that can be found in translation books and manuals, tend to be more complex. They are also quite varied. Section 1.3 takes a look at a couple of select examples.

## 1.3 Existing definitions of translation

As mentioned above, one reason numerous definitions exist for translation is that they often include particular, specialized views as to how translation should be carried out, and specific viewpoints on what translation should be and how it should be performed (and these are, of course, quite varied).

Take, for instance, the following, quoted in Bell (1991: 5): “Translation is the expression in another language (or target language) of what has been expressed in another, source language, preserving semantic and stylistic differences.” Regardless of whether one agrees with the statement, “preserving semantic and stylistic differences” is undoubtedly a comment on how translation should be practiced. While there is nothing intrinsically wrong about stating a translation method, that is not something that should be decided a priori and included without discussion as part of a basic concept/definition of a field. As we will see later, existing perspectives on translation can also be influenced by culture and time.

Hatim and Mason take a much broader view of translation by defining it as “a communicative process that takes place within a social context” (1990: 3). While this definition is accurate, it is also very broad. Hatim and Mason are surely taking a commendable stance as to the purpose of much translation activity, and in particular with respect to the scope of their work. Yet, at the same time their definition does not offer enough guidance for non-expert readers, as it does not distinguish translation from other communicative activities. Thus, one may wonder what makes translation different from other communicative tasks, such as paraphrasing, gisting, adaptation, localization, etc., or even whether non-communicative forms of translation are possible. This takes us back to the relationship between the source and the target text, a non-trivial issue in the search for a definition of translation. For a definition of translation to be as general as possible, the relationship between the source text and the target needs to be expressed in a manner that is as descriptive and neutral as possible. This will be the topic of the next section.

## 1.4 In search of a definition

The difficulties encountered in the formulation of a common definition of translation that is somewhat more informative than our preliminary version can be ascribed, at least in part, to a multiplicity of perspectives on translation, which are often governed by culture, purpose and genre. These perspectives usually differ with respect to how close the target text is to the source, and, as a result, to how the correspondence with the source is instantiated in the target text.

To capture all possible viewpoints in a definition of translation is not practicable, but to select one translational perspective over others implies a prescriptive preference for a particular point of view and an oversimplification, as one approach may be adequate in some cases but not in others. Given the challenges faced, one viable strategy is to adopt a broad working definition that allows for various perspectives. Thus, translation can be understood as *the process or the product of transforming a written text or texts from one human language to another which generally requires a significant degree of resemblance or correspondence with respect to the source text.*

In sum, the working definition above adds a fourth component – *a significant degree of resemblance or correspondence with respect to the source text* – to the three core elements (i.e., transfer, written text, from one natural language to another). This fourth component refers to a need for a certain correspondence, resemblance or connection between the ST and the TT so that the TT can be considered a translation. The concept of correspondence or resemblance is itself a complex notion that could obtain at various levels, e.g., structural (lexical and

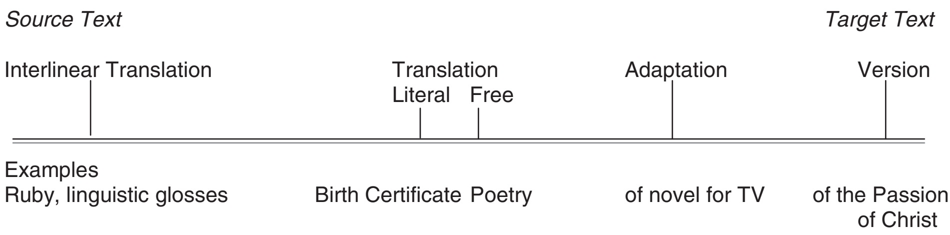


**Figure 1.4** Interlinguistic writing activities: The correspondence continuum.

grammatical), meaning/content, symbolic, ideological, textual, etc. We do not delve further into this matter, so as not to lose sight of the point of our discussion – a shared definition of translation. Thus, we refer to correspondence in general terms.

The extent of the correspondence between two texts in two languages can be conceptualized as a continuum of writing activities, where the dividing lines between translation, version, adaptation, etc. (instantiating degrees of resemblance), vary according to culture, purpose, genre and contextual factors. As in any continuum, the closer the activities on the continuum, the more difficult it is to draw the line. It is in this sense that it is helpful to view these terms and definitions as ranges on a continuum, where the distinctions are not always clear-cut, as shown in Figure 1.4. We focus now on the continuum concept, and will provide definitions and additional examples of these activities later in this chapter (section 1.6).

Figure 1.4 shows that interlinear translations are the closest to the source, with the highest degree of resemblance; versions are the farthest from it (with little resemblance). In between the two extremes there exist various types of interlingual activity that may or may not include the word "translation" (e.g., free translation, literal translation, adaptations, etc.) and that sometimes may also be used to refer to intralingual activities (e.g., adaptation of a literary text for the screen, for the theatre, for younger audiences, etc.). Interlinear translations are used, for instance, in some editions of the Bible (Greek, Aramaic, Hebrew), or in specialized fields such as linguistics to illustrate word-for-word equivalences between languages, sometimes including morphological information.

Some cultures are more tolerant of differences between the source and the target texts, thus still allowing the term "translation" to be used to refer to the

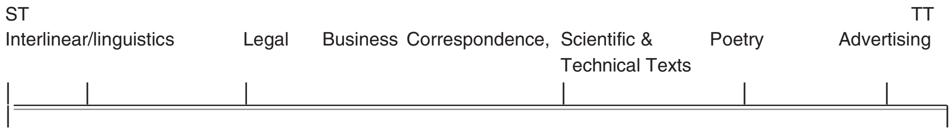


**Figure 1.5** Resemblance to the ST: Genre.

relationship between the two. In other words, the range occupied by the concept of translation on the correspondence continuum varies somewhat cross-culturally, with some interlingual texts being considered translations in some cultures, but not in others. In fact, some cultures, when faced with target texts that present a certain degree of departure from the content of the source, may prefer to call them **adaptations** (e.g., an adaptation of a novel for a movie script in a language other than that of the source novel) or **versions**. In some cases, too, the term "translation" is qualified with an adjective to specify a special degree of proximity to or distance from the source (free translation, literal translation, etc.).

At times the differences in degree of resemblance to the source are related to genre and, ultimately, to the purpose or the situational context for the translation (Figure 1.5) (i.e., genres are conventionalized forms of texts that reflect features of a social occasion; a poem, a commercial, a business letter, a recipe are examples of genres; see section 4.3 for more details on genres and text types). For instance, in Western societies translations of legal texts tend to be closer to the source text than business letters or scientific texts, which are in turn closer to the source than the translation of a poem or even an advertisement, which would often require going beyond translation. In these examples it is the purpose that the translations serve in those fields (to reproduce the original, in the legal realm; to communicate some content with a certain formality, as in business letters or scientific texts; to convince the audience to buy a product, etc.) that determines how close the target text must remain to the content and structure of the source. In other examples, physical conditions and medium limitations determine the degree of similarity – for example, subtitling, where there is a limit on the number of characters allowed. In Practice 1.2 you will have the opportunity to apply the idea of resemblance to the ST to additional examples of translated texts.

## Practice 1.2: Genre and correspondence with the ST

On the basis of the preceding discussion regarding genre and degree of correspondence with the ST, how would you rank the translated texts listed below, according to the degree of closeness to the source ("1" being the closest to the ST) customary in your target language? Write the name of a text next to each number.

### Translated texts

Subtitles in a movie, an academic transcript, a police report, a comic strip

1.
2.
3.
4.

For the sake of illustration, assume that the texts have been translated into a Western European language such as Italian, Spanish or French.

### Commentary

For these languages, academic transcripts would be the closest to the ST (1), followed by a police report (2). In the translation of academic transcripts, the target text is not expected to sound like a text produced in the target language. Words and names of courses and grades normally resemble the source closely and often are accompanied by a key/explanation in terms more natural in the TL. A police report, given its more narrative nature, has a bit more flexibility to lean in the direction of the TL. Subtitles in a movie have to diverge much more significantly, given character limitations and constraints on the time it takes to read them (3). Finally, a comic strip is the genre afforded the most latitude with respect to the source, given that the primary purpose of the translation is to make the reader laugh (4). The translation of humor is clearly one area of interlinguistic communication where translation moves into adaptation (see Figure 1.4 above).

In sum, for many languages, the ranking would be: an academic transcript, a police report, subtitles in a movie, a comic strip.

## 1.5 Equivalence and the definition of translation

Throughout the history of translation, equivalence has been intricately related to the concept and definition of translation. As you will learn in Exercise 4, many existing definitions of translation include the requirement that the target text be equivalent to the source. One problem with these types of definition stems from the vagueness of the notion of equivalence itself. What counts as equivalent? How do we define equivalence? Furthermore, upon closer examination, it becomes clear that perfect equivalence is little more than a mirage, hardly attainable. This is obvious from a linguistic point of view, since linguistic structure (syntactic, semantic, etc.) varies cross-linguistically. But as we will see below, other types of equivalence (e.g., textual and functional) are equally idealistic notions, with little basis in reality. In fact, if perfect equivalence was attainable, machine translation would have been much more successful than it has been to date.

Some textbooks make reference to different types of equivalence, e.g., equivalence of meaning (semantic equivalence), equivalence of effect (pragmatic equivalence) or equivalence of function (functional equivalence). They often stress that a translation may have to aim for equivalence at one particular level, while sacrificing equivalence at others. In many cases, the emphasis tends to be on functional equivalence – that is, if the goal of the source text is to inform readers, then the translation should also function as an educational text. Yet, even at the functional level, perfect equivalence is problematic. Let us see why. As we will discuss in more detail in Chapters 4 and 5, reading is not just dependent on information encoded in text, but also involves the reader as an active participant. It is an interactive process between what the reader brings to the text (known/old information) and the information supplied by the text (new information). When a writer composes a text, he/she makes assumptions about what the reader knows and does not know. These assumptions are represented and linguistically marked in the text as old (known) or new information. When the knowledge (known and new) assumed by the writer matches that of the reader, then understanding takes place. If they do not match, understanding is incomplete. This applies to oral as well as written texts.

Consider, for instance, Example 1.2. In this exchange, Student 1 – the author of the text – makes an assumption about what Student 2 knows: that he/she is aware that there was an assignment sheet. Thus, the assignment sheet is marked as old information in the text through the use of the definite article. The new information that Student 1 contributes is that the sheet should be brought to class on the present day. However, Student 2 – the reader of the text – does not know about the sheet; consequently, this is not old information to him/her, but new, and a mismatch occurs. The misunderstanding prompts the clarification question: "What assignment sheet?" If this were a written text in which the reader did not have the opportunity to ask/redirect the conversation, textual comprehension would have failed.

### **Example 1.2:** Textual comprehension

Student 1: The teacher told us to bring the assignment sheet today.
Student 2: What assignment sheet?

As we can see, reading comprehension is a complex process that can rarely be considered equivalent across readers. Even in the best cases, when the readers actually know what the writer thought they knew and basic understanding takes place, no two readers experience the same text in the same way.

The way readers relate to and read a text is intricately related to their experiences of the world, which are never exactly the same. For instance, the effect a car commercial may have on a viewer with some experience with cars is not the same as that on someone who is buying a car for the first time. The same person will also experience different readings of the same text at different times in his/her life. Imagine, for example, an engineering graduate student reading a journal article in graduate school and then re-reading it twenty years later as a faculty member in an engineering department.

For translated texts, equivalent readings of a text are even more elusive because the readers visualized by the writer are not the same as those reading the translation; furthermore, communication is mediated by an additional reader/writer – the translator. As a consequence, perfect equivalence, even functional equivalence, appears to be little more than an idealistic, theoretical goal.

In sum, if perfect equivalence is impossible, then it appears that translation can only be about some degree of equivalence, some type of resemblance or correspondence. We can now modify our preliminary **definition of translation** to read:

> By "translation" we understand the process or the product of transforming written text(s) from one human language to another that generally requires a (necessary) degree of resemblance or correspondence with respect to the source text.

The crucial point is deciding what constitutes the **necessary degree of equivalence** or resemblance. What are the criteria used to determine the **necessary degree of equivalence**? Relatedly, how much equivalence is necessary for a target text to be considered a translation? Where do we draw the line? As mentioned above, different translation tasks and genres require different degrees of equivalence. What can be considered a translation can also vary across cultures. Chapter 2 will examine some of these topics in more detail. (See Exercise 6 for practice and examples on degrees of equivalence.)

## 1.6 Types of translation activity

As discussed earlier, perfect equivalence is rendered unattainable for multiple reasons. Sometimes it is the presence of conflicting demands on the translation process, such as those between form and function; on other occasions, it is the requirements imposed by the source text that conflict with the needs of the target audience; yet, in other instances, it is simply the cognitive features of reading comprehension that determine the impossibility of equivalent readings of the same texts. Scholars and students of translation have traditionally resorted to a variety of terms to express how different translation types or strategies gravitate more or less toward the source or the target. The following discussion reviews some of these terms, along with some examples.

The terms below are not true dichotomies, but rather points on a continuum: For instance, one translation may be more semantic than another, and another more communicative than semantic, while neither one is completely semantic or communicative; similarly, a third target text may resort mostly to a communicative strategy but have some sections where semantic translation is used, etc. The terms defined and exemplified in this section are not exclusive of each other: It would not difficult to find a number of them in use in the same publication. Most reflect slightly different perspectives, rather than conflicting theoretical views.

It is useful to be familiar with the terms presented in this section because they serve to illustrate the range of degrees and levels of correspondence possible between the source and the target text. They also constitute well-known terminology among scholars and practitioners alike.

**Communicative translation** and **semantic translation** (Newmark [1988], [1991]): Communicative translation focuses on the function of the translation, while semantic translation focuses on the form of the ST. Example 1.3 provides some examples.

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**Example 1.3:** Communicative and semantic translation

Communicative translation: A letter from a school district to parents of children who do not speak the majority language.
Semantic translation: A power of attorney.

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Note: The examples provided refer to the necessary degree of equivalence considering the instructions and the norms in Western societies for that particular text type and genre. (See Chapter 2 for a discussion of the translation instructions, i.e., the translation brief.)

Dynamic **and formal translation** (Nida [1964]): A dynamic translation gives preference to its communicative purposes, whereas a formal translation tries to preserve the form of the source text. These notions are very similar to Newmark's **communicative** and **semantic** translation. Example 1.4 contains some examples.

### Example 1.4: Dynamic and formal translation

Dynamic translation: A letter from a politician seeking re-election who is trying to reach constituents in various languages.

Formal translation: Advance directives for medical treatment from a minority patient.

**Covert and overt translation** (House [1977]): A translation is **covert** when the target text is expected to function in the target culture without any reference to its being a translation. Readers are not expected to know they are reading a translation. An **overt** translation is one that is known to be a translation. These notions are illustrated in Example 1.5 with some examples.

### Example 1.5: Covert and overt translation

Covert translation: User manuals to be sold throughout the world with a copier machine.

Overt translation: The translation of a university diploma.

Grammar translation: A grammar translation provides a structural translation that renders the structure of the source into the target; it is often used in foreign- and second-language teaching to test a student's understanding of the grammar of the language under study. It was typically used for learning Latin. As an illustration, we provide examples in Example 1.6.

### Example 1.6: Grammar translation

Translate from Latin into English:

| | |
|---|---|
| Puella amat. | The girl loves. |
| Populum spectamus. | We await the people. |
| Deus discipulos vocat. | God calls his disciples. |
| Christus servos liberat. | Christ frees the slaves. |

**Interlinear translation:** Interlinear translation is a kind of word-for-word, and at times morpheme-by-morpheme, translation, sometimes used in linguistics, whereby the translated forms are written or printed below the relevant words and morphemes in order to facilitate the understanding of the structure of each word. It is often accompanied by a less literal gloss, as the meaning of interlinear translation can be obscured by the degree of formal equivalence, as we can see in Example 1.7. Another type of interlinear translation is ruby, which occasionally uses annotations or glosses above or to the right of Japanese or Chinese characters to show the meaning of an unknown character (more often they serve as pronunciation guides).

### Example 1.7: Interlinear translation

Indonesian (Sneddon [1996: 237])

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Mereka | di Jakarta | sekarang. |
| They | in Jakarta | now |

‘They are in Jakarta now’

Lezgian (Haspelmath [1993: 207])

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Gila | abur-u-n | Ferma | hamišaluğ | güğüna | amuq’-da-č. |
| Now | they-OBL-GEN | Farm | forever | behind | stay-FUT-NEG |

‘Now their farm will not stay behind forever’

The above types of translation activities are generally thought of as translations, even if some are not “typical” (e.g., interlinear translation); in other words, they are within the “translation” range on the correspondence continuum. Other translation-related activities, however, fall outside the “translation” range. Some of these are: gist translation, paraphrase, adaptation, pseudotranslation, etc. Of these, some are intralingual (paraphrase), involving only one written language, whereas others can be intra- or interlingual (involving more than one language). We provide brief definitions and examples below.

**Gist translation**: Gist translation is an activity that tries to convey the main idea of the source text in the target language, without concern for preserving form. Unimportant content may be left out. Gisting comprises an interlingual summary, and it is also called summary translation. Example 1.8 contains examples of texts where gisting and gist translation are used.

### Example 1.8: Gist translation

Intralingual: Minutes of a meeting.

Interlingual: A researcher in historical linguistics finds a reference he/she may be interested in, but it is in German. Unsure about whether this may be relevant to his/her topic, the researcher requests a gist translation.

**Sight translation**: Sight translation is an activity that consists of translating a written text out loud. Interpreters are often given written documents that they have to translate orally into the target language. Ideally, these should be short, brief documents that are specific to the situation at hand.

### Example 1.9: Sight translation

A new exhibit, consisting of a business card providing basic information about the line of work of the accused, is presented in court. The interpreter for the accused is asked to sight-translate the information for the jury. The oral translation of the written text provided on the spot by the interpreter is an example of sight translation.

**Paraphrase**: A paraphrase is an activity that tries to preserve the content as much as possible, but with different form. A paraphrase is an alternative way of expressing the content of the source.

### Example 1.10: Paraphrase

Paraphrase: When asked to repeat what someone else said, most people will be doing a paraphrase.

**Adaptation**: An adaptation is an activity that differs from a translation in that it may require omissions or additions to serve a specific purpose (audience, age, interests). Like translation, adaptation is source-based and interlingual, and is considered the work of the original author – that is, a derivative work.

Adaptation can also take place within the same language (intralingual adaptation). Novels that are made into movies are usually screen adaptations.

**Example 1.11:** Adaptation

Intralingual: Peter Jackson's film trilogy *The Lord of the Rings* (an adaptation of J.R.R. Tolkien's novel)

Interlingual: The title of the movie *Jaws* in French, *Les dents de la mer* (The Teeth of the Sea)

Pseudotranslation: An original text that is mistakenly believed to be a translation (by the readers, or because the author intended it that way). For example, Cervantes pretends that *Don Quixote* is a translation of some manuscripts he found.

**Example 1.12:** Pseudotranslation

The poems and stories Tolkien "cites" as supposedly translated from his invented Elvish language.

In Figure 1.6 we summarize in a schematic way the activities described in this section.

## 1.7 Translation in a professional context

All along, we have been visualizing cross-linguistic writing activity on a continuum. If we situate translation along this continuum, placing it either closer to the source or to the target language, we can arrive at a more flexible definition for translation. Additionally, the idea of a continuum is beneficial for translation as a professional activity, as it helps to situate it within the wider context of cross-cultural communication and the language industry (software localization, language for specific purposes, etc.), contributing to forge a more malleable concept of translation as a profession (i.e., language mediation). Although one

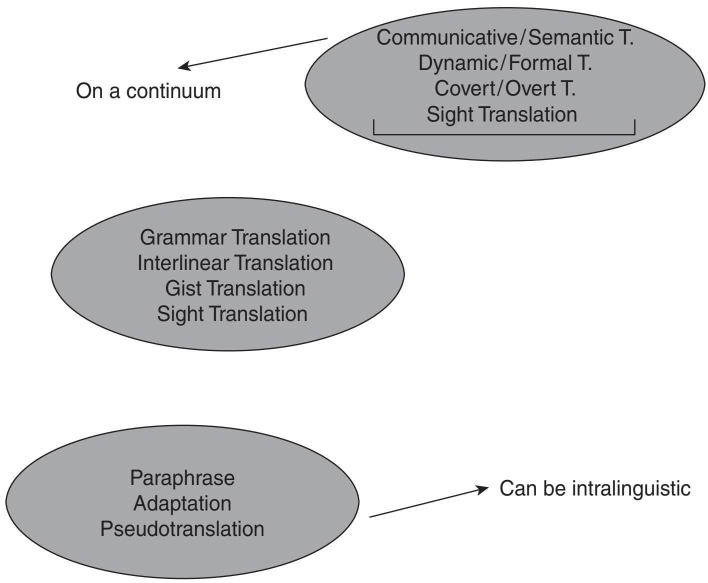



**Figure 1.6** Types of translation activity.

tends to think of those who translate as translators, not all who are involved in translation or who perform translation are full-time translators. Most language professionals will either undertake or encounter translation for various purposes in their jobs as language experts. They utilize some of the same skills required of translators. These professionals include, among others, bi- or multilingual consultants, language localization experts, editors, revisers, proofreaders, terminologists, language teachers, experts in language for special purposes, etc.

## Translation and the language industry

In this section, we review translation-related fields and activities such as globalization, internationalization, software localization, computer-assisted translation (CAT), terminology management and translation-oriented terminology work, revising, reviewing and language for specific purposes. The intention is to situate translation within a broader context of related activities as well as within the language industry. As mentioned earlier, under the definition of translation presented in this chapter, there is considerable overlap between all of these activities and translation.

Globalization is the process by which distant localities are linked, spatially and linguistically. Globalization is often a consequence of the global economy and is facilitated by technology. Language globalization is directly relevant to translation and to other language activities. It refers to the efforts of a company to implement global strategies and to tailor their products to global and local needs. It requires cross-linguistic management of information and texts.

Internationalization is the process of designing a software application (or other products) so that they are language- and culture-independent, and can be easily adapted to various languages and cultures.

Software localization consists of preparing text to be used in various languages and markets, requiring translation as well as linguistic and cultural adaptation of digital content (software, applications, databases, online materials) to the requirement of the locale of a foreign market. It involves translation, adaptation, and other language- and communication-related activities, such as post-editing of machine-translated output.

Machine translation (MT) is the translation produced by a software program without the intervention of a human translator. Usually the target text produced by a computer is not usable in its raw form (i.e., raw output). It has to be revised and edited by a human translator or editor. The process of editing and preparing machine-translated output for use by humans is known as **post-editing**.

Figure 1.7b is an example of raw output generated by a well-known machine translation system in the early 1990s. The source document is a training manual for technicians (Figure 1.7a). Figure 1.7c and Figure 1.7d contain raw output from Google Translate (August 22, 2012), with Spanish and German as the TLs. Notice that in 2012 post-editing is just as necessary as it was in the 1990s. Much of it has to do with contextual understanding of language. At the end of the chapter, in the Exercises section, you will find additional exercises (10–11) related to the texts in Figures 1.7a–d.

Computer-aided/assisted translation (CAT tools): This type of translation is carried out by a human translator (i.e., it is not automatic) with the help of computer software. Translation memories (TMs) are one example of a tool used in computer-aided translation. The software matches the source text with terminology and textual segments previously translated; TMs allow the translator to decide whether or not to use the previously translated fragments as they are, or to edit or use them partially. Figure 1.8 contains a sample screen of a well-known CAT tool, Trados.

MT and CAT tools can be extremely useful to translators and language professionals. A solid understanding of when and how to use them, rooted in

**Major topics**
This document is divided into an introduction and thirteen content modules. Each content module begins with a set of objectives and criteria for testing out. If you have relevant experience or previous training, you may test out of the module. A self-check is provided at the end of each module, along with scoring criteria for the purpose of testing out.

**Introduction** The major topics in the first module, Introduction, are:
Major topics for each module
Goals of this self-study

**Output devices** The major topics in the sixth module, Output Devices, are:
Monitors
Printers
Communication devices

**UNIX operating system** The major topics in the fourteenth module, the UNIX operating system, are:
UNIX design
UNIX graphical user interfaces
UNIX applications software
At the end of this document is a glossary of relevant terminology and a bibliography of selected references.

**How to use self-paced training**
In self-paced, self-study training, you direct your own program of study. If you have never encountered self-paced training, here are some suggestions and recommendations to help you use your time efficiently and productively.

**Self-paced**. Self-paced means to move as slowly or as rapidly through a module as needed. However, keep in mind that there is no benefit in completing too many modules at one time without stopping.

**Time**. Each module has an estimated time for completion. Do not be concerned if your rate of progress doesn’t match this estimate exactly, but it should approximate it.

**Tips**. There is a great deal of information presented in this document; keep in mind that self-checks are based on the objectives.

**Figure 1.7a** MT source text (circa 1990).

a knowledge of translation and translation processes, is crucial for the effective use of these tools.

Terminology and Translation-oriented terminology work: “Terminology” is a term used to refer to the specialized lexical items or short phrases used in writing, and hence in translating, specialized texts. Translation-oriented terminology work is an activity that involves extracting special language terms, defining them, determining target-language equivalents and documenting this information for retrieval during translation. It should be noted that terminology work also takes place in monolingual environments.

**Temas principales**
Este documento está dividido en una introducción y 13 módulos de materia. Cada módulo comienza con un juego de los objetivos y criterios para auto-testarse. Si usted tiene la experiencia o entrenamiento anterior puede hacer el teste fuera del módulo. Al final de cada módulo usted encuentra un teste, junto con el resultado para verificar su conocimiento.

**Introducción** Los temas principales en este primer módulo, introducción, son:
- Principales para cada módulo.
- Objetivos de este auto-estudio
- Dispositivos de salida

Temas principales en el sexto módulo, dispositivos de salida, son:
- Monitores
- Impresoras
- Dispositivos de comunicación

**Sistema operativo UNIX** Los temas principales en el décimocuarto módulo, el sistema operativo del UNIX, son:
- Diseño del UNIX
- Consolas de control gráficas de UNIX
- Software de aplicaciones de UNIX

Al final de este documento está un glosario de la terminología pertinente y bibliografía de referencias seleccionadas.

**Como usar el entrenamiento a su propio ritmo**
En su auto estudio, Ud. dirige el ritmo de su programa de estudio. Si Ud. nunca ha encontrado un ritmo para su entrenamiento, aquí tiene algunas sugestiones y recomendaciones que lo ayudarán a usar su tiempo productiva y eficientemente.

**Ritmo**. Ritmo significa moverse lento o rápido a través del módulo, como sea necesario. Sin embargo, no olvide que no hay beneficio en completar demasiados módulos a la vez sin detenerse.

**Tiempo**. Cada módulo tiene un tiempo estimado para terminarlo. No se preocupe si su velocidad no es igual, pero debería ser aproximada.

**Dato**. Hay bastante información presentada en este documento; tenga presente que auto-testes están baseados en los objetivos finales.

**Figure 1.7b** MT raw output: Spanish target text (circa 1990).

**Revising/reviewing:** While some professionals do not discriminate between revising and reviewing a translation, some organizations, such as the International Standards Organization (ISO), define them as two different terms. Revising is understood as checking the translation for adequacy with regard to the source text; reviewing, on the other hand, is only concerned with examining the target text, trying to identify typos, errors in style, format, grammar and spelling, and any other target-language issues.

**Language for specific purposes (LSP)**: The study of the specialized usage of language is under the purview of language for specific purposes. Texts

**Los temas principales**
Este documento se divide en una introducción y 13 módulos de contenido. Cada módulo de contenido se inicia con una serie de objetivos y criterios para poner a prueba. Si usted tiene experiencia o formación previa, puede probar fuera del módulo. A self-check se proporciona al final de cada módulo, junto con criterios de puntuación con el fin de poner a prueba.

**Introducción** Los temas principales en el primer módulo, Introducción, son:
Los temas principales de cada módulo
Objetivos de este auto-estudio
Los dispositivos de salida

Los temas principales en el sexto módulo, dispositivos de salida, son:
Monitores
Impresoras
Los dispositivos de comunicación
Sistema operativo UNIX

Los temas principales en el módulo XIV, el sistema operativo UNIX, son los siguientes:
UNIX diseño
UNIX interfaces gráficas de usuario
UNIX aplicaciones software

Al final de este documento se incluye un glosario de terminología relevante y una bibliografía de referencias seleccionadas.

**Cómo utilizar su propio ritmo de entrenamiento**
En su propio ritmo, auto-estudio de entrenamiento, usted dirige su propio programa de estudio. Si usted nunca ha encontrado su propio ritmo de entrenamiento, he aquí algunas sugerencias y recomendaciones que le ayudarán a utilizar su tiempo de manera eficiente y productiva.

**Paso a paso**. Su propio ritmo significa moverse tan lentamente o más rápidamente a través de un módulo, según sea necesario. Sin embargo, tenga en cuenta que no hay ningún beneficio en la realización de demasiados módulos de una sola vez sin parar.

**Tiempo**. Cada módulo tiene un tiempo estimado para la finalización. No se preocupe si su ritmo de progreso no está de acuerdo con esta estimación exactamente, pero debe ser aproximada.

**Tips**. Hay una gran cantidad de información presentada en este documento, tenga en cuenta que el auto-control se basan en los objetivos.

**Figure 1.7c** MT raw output: Spanish target text, Google Translate (2012).

written for specific purposes serve as corpora that translators can use in order to determine how language is used in specialized fields and genres. This is necessary of course for terminological reasons, but also to understand how specific genres (e.g., a medical report, health education brochure, user manual, technical manual) are structured and organized according to the conventions of those fields in the target language. Accomplishing the purpose of

**Wichtige Themen**
Dieses Dokument ist in einer Einführung und 13 Content-Module unterteilt. Jeder Content-Modul beginnt mit einem Satz von Zielen und Kriterien für die Prüfung aus. Wenn Sie einschlägige Erfahrung oder Vorbildung haben, können Sie testen aus dem Modul. A Self-Check am Ende jedes Moduls vorgesehen ist, zusammen mit Bewertungskriterien für den Zweck der Überprüfung aus.

**Einführung** Die wichtigsten Themen im ersten Modul, Einführung, sind:
Wichtige Themen für jedes Modul
Ziele dieser Self-Study

**Ausgabegeräte** Die wichtigsten Themen des sechsten Moduls, Output Devices, sind:
Monitore
Drucker
Kommunikationsgeräten

**UNIX Betriebssystem** Die wichtigsten Themen im vierzehnten Modul, das UNIX-Betriebssystem, sind:
UNIX-Design
UNIX grafischen Benutzeroberflächen
UNIX-Anwendungen Software

Am Ende dieses Dokuments ist ein Glossar der relevanten Terminologie und eine Bibliographie ausgewählter Referenzen.

**So verwenden Schulungen im Selbststudium**
In Selbststudium, Selbststudium Training leiten Sie Ihr eigenes Programm der Studie. Wenn Sie noch nie autodidaktischen Ausbildung begegnet sind, sind hier einige Vorschläge und Empfehlungen, damit Sie Ihre Zeit effizient und produktiv.

**Selbststudium**. Selbststudium mittels so langsam oder so schnell bewegen, durch ein Modul je nach Bedarf. Doch im Hinterkopf behalten, dass es keinen Vorteil bei der Fertigstellung zu viele Module auf einmal, ohne anzuhalten.

**Time**. Jedes Modul hat eine geschätzte Zeit für die Fertigstellung. Seien Sie nicht beunruhigt, wenn Ihr Tempo der Fortschritte nicht mit dieser Einschätzung genau, aber es sollte nur eine ungefähre Angabe.

**Tips**. Es gibt eine große Menge an Informationen in diesem Dokument vorgestellt, bedenken Sie, dass Self-Checks zu den Zielen beruhen.

**Figure 1.7d** MT raw output: German target text, Google Translate (2012).

the text crucially depends on it. Consider the example in Figure 1.9, an instruction sheet for a camera. While, in the source language, it may be acceptable to use a letter format to provide instructions for the user of a product, this is not the conventional genre or format in English to accomplish the purpose of an instruction sheet. (We will return to this example later in the book.)

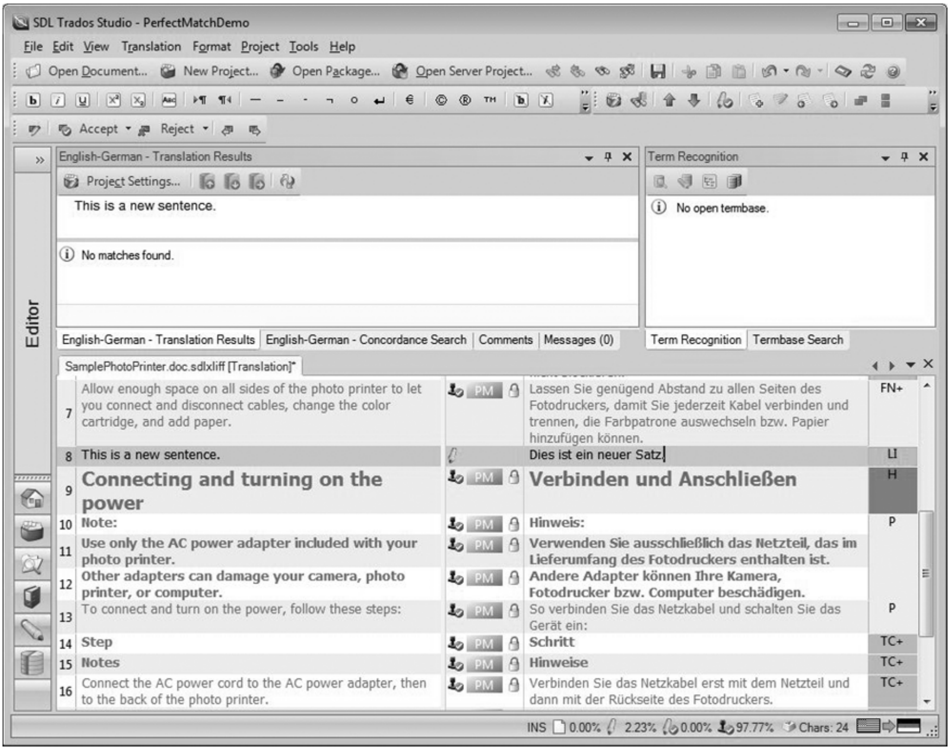



**Figure 1.8** Trados/SDL sample screen.

## * READ THIS BEFORE YOU USE YOUR 35MM CAMERA PLEASE!

Dear Customer:

Thank you for buying our 35mm camera. Allow me to explain something to you: How the 35mm camera works well? When you pull out the rewinder knob, please don't pull it out too hard. May be you can find a experienced person to help you. When you loaded the film it should be loaded in proper position (right on the gears), then close the back tightly and advance the film until the film counter reads from "1". (please always use ASA 100 Negative)

When you can take a nice picture. this is good timing from 8:00 AM till 11:00 AM and from 2:30 PM till 4:30 PM. The subject should have to face the enough sunshing then you can take a good picture.

How to release the film? First of all, you have to PUSH IN the rewind button located at the base of the camera body then start to rewind the film, when it fully rewound then pull out the rewind knob slightly and sent the film to develop it.

Sincerely Yours **www.engrish.com**

**Figure 1.9** Target text: User instructions for a camera.

It is essential for translation students to be aware of the significance of specialized text types and genres for translation practice and, specifically, for accomplishing the purposes of the translation. In this respect, translators often face challenges that go beyond those of technical writers. Translators have to consciously avoid the transfer of the text type and physical format of the source text (unless this is part of the requirements for the task). For a given source text, translators need to know what text type and text genre will be appropriate for the target language. They need to consciously avoid transferring features of the SL text type and format unless these features are appropriate for the task requirements. The result of not doing this is a text like that in Figure 1. 9.

These concerns underscore the need for language professionals to have a good grasp of the notion of translation, including being aware that translating does not require retaining the format or text type of the source text. There are no hard-and-fast rules, other than that the translator needs to be in possession of the skills that will allow him/her to make the most appropriate decision for the specific translation assignment.

Courses in LSP can be very useful for specialized translators because of their focus on specialized language and textual conventions that cannot be covered in sufficient detail in translation courses. An example of a well-established area of LSP is Business Language Studies. Unfortunately for translation students, many programs in specialized areas (e.g., health care, public safety, etc.) focus more on terminology than on text types, genres and conventions. One reason for this is the scarcity of teaching materials (textbooks, manuals) covering specialized textual conventions. We will return to the topic of text types and genres (and to Figure 1.9) in Chapter 4.

To conclude, Figure 1.10 will help you summarize in a schematic way the terms we have covered in this section.

## 1.8 Translation competence, translation skills and the concept of translation

Much has been written on the topic of translation competence, in particular within the context of translator skills. Some models are more detailed than

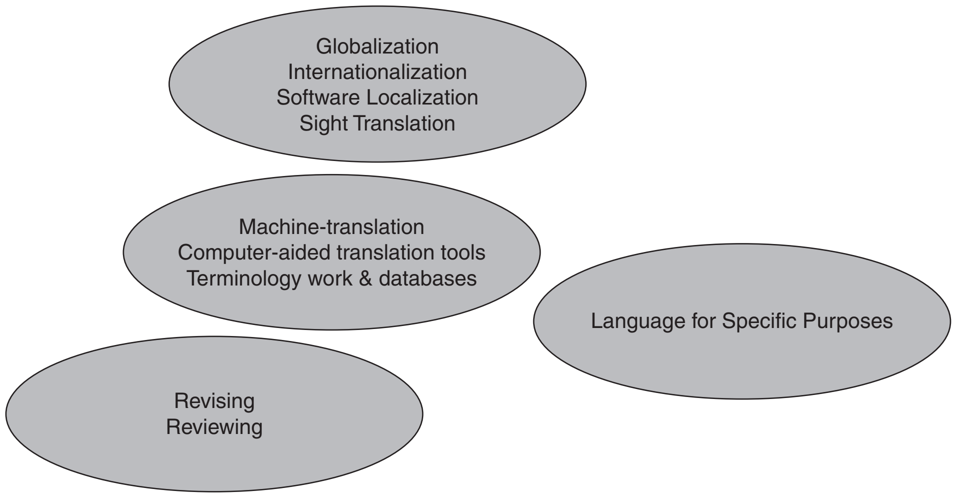



**Figure 1.10** Translation and the language industry.

others, slicing up major competences into much finer subcompetences. Yet, most authors and practitioners refer to three main competences – at times under a variety of labels: (i) linguistic competence (bilingual or multilingual); (ii) knowledge competence (including both specialized and general/cultural knowledge or the ability to acquire knowledge through research and documentation skills); and (iii) transfer or strategic competence. Of these, transfer competence is unique to translation, while the others may be shared by related professions (see section 1.7 above) in various degrees and proficiency levels.

In this book we view **transfer competence** as the ability to understand and implement the translation requirements. When the other subcomponents of translation competence are present, it is instantiated in a target text that is adequate for them. Transfer competence requires understanding contextual needs for the translation task, including its relationship to the source text (the necessary degree of precision/equivalence). It requires a clear and practical understanding of the notion of translation (including competences, skills and related professions), as discussed in this chapter and throughout the rest of this book. Under the broad category of transfer competence, one can include awareness of the proficiency requirements for a particular translation job in relation to one’s skills, and the determination of whether it is possible to make up for deficiencies through research and consultation, or whether, on the other hand, the job would be better handled by someone else. This notion is sometimes referred to as the translator's self-concept. Transfer competence differs from translation competence in that it is more specific and it is language-independent. A translator who works in Chinese and English has transfer competence, but he/she will not have translation competence in French or engineering if he/she does not possess linguistic competence in French or expert knowledge in engineering.

Translator competence and subcompetences have often been defined in terms of the ideal translator, in possession of the ideal, ultimate competence. Yet, it is also useful to focus on separate subcompetences and on their acquisition, as it is rare that all competences are ever embodied in one person. Furthermore, depending on the tasks at hand, and considering that translation is performed within a wide range of language professions, not all aspects of competence are equally important for all individuals and at all times. Proficiency levels tend to vary as well, having to be matched to the requirements for the task and for specific jobs and careers.

Consider some examples that illustrate levels of competence. A general translator who translates for the general public, and who does not work with specialized texts, may not be required to have specialized knowledge but may have to be very proficient in the linguistic variety and culture of the minority population he/she serves. A specialized translator – for instance, a Russian engineer translating into English – may be able to compensate for lower English proficiency with knowledge of engineering and engineering textual conventions (see Exercise 12 for another example).

A basic understanding of competence is needed for matching translation requirements with translator qualifications.

## Summary

Translation can refer to an activity, to a product, and to the scholarly field that studies both the activity and the product. The scholarly field that studies translation and interpreting and related phenomena is known as translation studies. There exists little agreement about a definition of translation, a situation that can be ascribed to the prescriptive nature of most definitions, their specific views of how translation should be performed and to the problematic notion of equivalence. The definition proposed here sees translation as the process or the product of transforming written text or texts from one human language to another that generally requires a necessary degree of resemblance to or correspondence with the source text. This definition adds a fourth component – a necessary degree of resemblance to or correspondence with the source text – to three core, basic elements (i.e., transfer, written text, from one natural language to another).

Translation is situated on a continuum of interlinguistic writing activities that are labeled according to the degree of correspondence between two texts, the source and the target. The necessary degree of correspondence between the source and the target depends on purpose, genre, and cultural and translational norms.

Some translation types that depend on whether the translation gravitates toward the source text or the target are: communicative vs. semantic translation, dynamic vs. formal, covert vs. overt. Grammar translation is a type of translation carried out to demonstrate whether a student of a foreign language understands the source text and its structure. Interlinear translation is used to provide information about the form of the source text generally for linguistic or philological purposes. Other translation-related activities are gist translation, adaptation and pseudo-translation. In the language industry, activities closely related to translation are: globalization, software localization, machine translation, terminology management, revising/editing, etc.

## Key words

Translation, translating, interpreting, interpreter, source language, target language, source text, target text, translation as process, translation as product, translation studies, translator and interpreter training/education, equivalence, communicative translation, semantic translation, dynamic translation, formal translation, covert translation, overt translation, grammar translation, interlinear translation, gist translation, sight translation, paraphrase, adaptation, pseudotranslation, globalization, internationalization, software localization, machine translation, post-editing, computer-aided/assisted translation, terminology and translation-oriented terminology work, language for specific purposes, version, necessary degree of equivalence, revising, reviewing, transfer competence, translator competence.

## Exercises

**Exercise 1**

Indicate whether the term "translation" is being used to refer to the process, product or field.

1. The company was offering free translation services to non-profit corporations.
2. An English translation of the Koran is available for all those attending the class.
3. The Open Translation Project offers subtitles, interactive transcripts and the ability for any talk to be translated by volunteers worldwide.
4. The student decided to switch his major from literature to translation.
5. I was not too happy with the first draft of the translation, so I decided to have someone else go over it.
6. Translation is enjoying a come-back among language teachers.

**Exercise 2**

Find three sentences (from books, the Internet, dictionaries, etc.) in which the term "translation" is used to mean a process, product or field.

1. ______________________________________________ (process)
2. ______________________________________________ (product)
3. ______________________________________________ (field)

**Exercise 3**

Using the table below, indicate the ST, TT, SL and TL for each of the texts listed in 1–4.

*Example:* Microsoft Word User manuals for Brazil

1. *Don Quixote*, Miguel de Cervantes

2. Brochure for the use of English-speaking tourists in Dubai
3. Advanced directives for Russian-speaking immigrants in Sydney, Australia
4. Medical history for Haitian refugees in a community clinic in Florida

| | ST | TT | SL | TL |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Example | User manuals in English | User manuals in Portuguese | English | Portuguese |
| 1. | | | | |
| 2. | | | | |
| 3. | | | | |
| 4. | | | | |

### Exercise 4

1. Find three definitions of translation (two of which must be from translation or translation studies publications) and write them down along with their sources. (If they are from non-English sources, please include an English translation, so that those who do not know the SL can understand the definition.) Indicate whether they refer to translation as a process or a product.
2. Identify the sections of those definitions that refer to how translation is to be performed.

### Exercise 5 (Group work – online or in class)

Working together with students or colleagues (online or in class), create a file with all the definitions (at least fifteen) found by all in Exercise 4. Compare them and study their differences and similarities. See if they can all be combined into one, unified definition. Comment on the process you went through in trying to do this.

### Exercise 6

Examine the texts provided (Figures 1.11–13) and rank the degree of formal equivalence, resemblance or correspondence to the source text (1 = lowest, 3 = highest) needed for a translation into your target language and culture.

## Today Your Child Took Part in a Dental Survey/Screening

This survey does not replace a "check up" by your dentist.

If we have any concerns we will contact you.

If you have any questions about the dental survey, or your child's dental health, please phone:

**Vancouver Coastal Health Dental Health Programs**

| | |
|---|---|
| Vancouver | 604-215-3935 |
| Richmond | 604-233-3150 |
| North Shore | 604-904-6200 ext. 4159 |
| Powell River | 604-485-3310 |
| Sunshine Coast | 604-886-5623 |
| Squamish | 604-815-6847 |
| Sea to Sky (Toll Free) | 1-877-892-2231 |

## Daily Practices For Dental Health

☺ Have regular times each day for brushing.

☺ Use a pea-size amount of fluoride toothpaste.

☺ Help your child brush and floss.

☺ Choose a variety of healthy snacks.

☺ See your dentist regularly. Ask about fluorides and fissure sealants.

☺ Drink tap water often.

Vancouver Coastal Health
*Promoting wellness. Ensuring care.*

For more copies, go online at **http://vch.eduhealth.ca** or email **phem@vch.ca** and quote Catalogue No. **FJ.100.5.D46**


**Figure 1.11** Degree of correspondence: Dental survey.

## Eating well can be healthy and easy.

First, choose different foods from each of the food groups. Different types of food give our bodies different vitamins and minerals we need. Next, eat balanced meals and snacks. What is a balanced meal? It has protein, starch and non-starchy vegetables. If you need to lose weight, choose the lower number of servings from the Food Pyramid.

Here are some tips to keep in mind.

### Bread, cereal, rice, and pasta (starch)

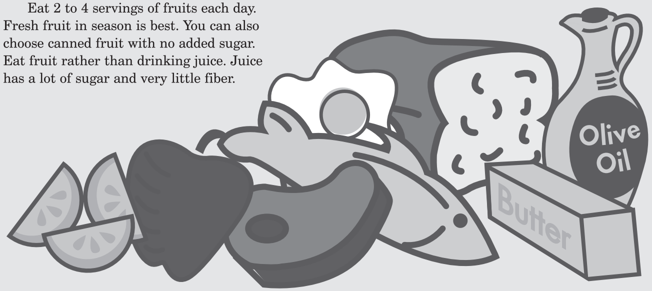
Eat whole grains like whole wheat bread, bran cereal, oatmeal, brown rice or pasta. Eat no more than two or three servings at each meal.

### Vegetables

Eat 3 to 5 servings of vegetables each day. Choose green-leafy, orange, yellow, and red vegetables. They provide your body with good nutrients. Raw or cooked vegetables also fill you up and provide fiber that your body needs.

### Fruits

Eat 2 to 4 servings of fruits each day. Fresh fruit in season is best. You can also choose canned fruit with no added sugar. Eat fruit rather than drinking juice. Juice has a lot of sugar and very little fiber.




### Milk, yogurt, cheese (dairy)

Eat two to three servings of dairy each day. No one over two years of age needs whole milk. Switch to lower fat choices. Choose 1% low-fat milk, light yogurt, or low-fat cheese.

### Meat, poultry, fish, dry beans, eggs, and nuts (protein)

Eat smaller portions of beef, pork, chicken, or fish without the fat. Most Americans eat too much protein. A serving of meat or fish is the size of a deck of cards or the palm of your hand. Eat two servings each day. Eat fish at least once per week. Go meatless and eat beans one day each week.

*Ask your doctor if you have special diet needs.

### Fats, oils, sweets

Eat smaller amounts of these foods. Foods high in fat and sugar do not have much of the other nutrients. Cook with healthier oils like Olive, Canola, or Peanut oils.

MOLINA HEALTHCARE

1 (800) 526-8196, ext. 7532
8:30am – 5:30pm, Monday – Friday

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One Golden Shore, Long Beach, CA 90802
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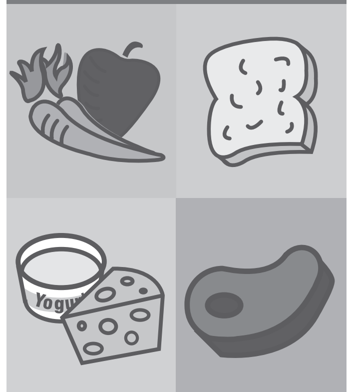
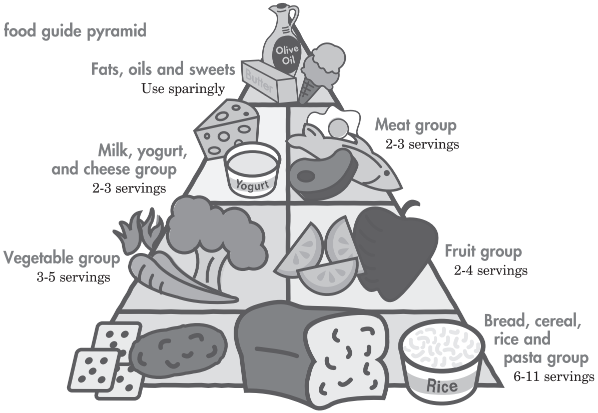
Health & Wellness




# How Do I Eat Well?

MOLINA HEALTHCARE

### The food guide pyramid




### How can you plan your meals using the food guide pyramid?

**Breakfast**

- 2-3 servings of the bread group
- 1 serving of the milk group
- 1 serving of the fruit group
- 1 serving of the fat group

**Snack**

- 0-1 serving of the bread group
- 0-1 serving of the fruit group

**Lunch**

- 2-3 servings of the bread group
- 1 serving of the meat group
- 1 serving of the fat group
- 1 serving of the fruit group
- 1-2 servings of the vegetable group

**Snack**

- 0-1 serving of the bread group
- 0-1 serving of the fruit group

**Dinner**

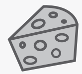
- 2-3 servings of the bread group
- 1-2 servings of the meat group
- 2-3 servings of the vegetable group
- 1 serving of the milk group
- 1 serving of the fat group

### How much is a serving?

Bread, cereals, rice and pasta:
- 1 slice of bread
- 1/2 cup cooked rice and pasta
- 1/2 cup cooked cereal
- 1 oz of ready-to-eat cereal
- 3 cups of popped popcorn (low-fat microwave)

Vegetables:
- 1/2 cup cooked vegetables
- 1 cup raw vegetables
- 1/2 cup vegetable juice

Fruits:
- 3/4 cup unsweetened juice
- 1 medium fresh fruit
- 1 cup fresh fruit
- 1/2 cup canned fruit (no sugar added)
- 1/4 cup dried fruit



Milk, yogurt, and cheese:
- 1 cup 1% (extra light) or nonfat milk
- 1 cup plain or "light" flavored yogurt
- 1 1/2 to 2 ounces of low fat cheese

Meat, poultry, fish, dried beans, eggs and nuts:
- 2-3 oz of cooked lean ham, meat, or fish
- 1 cup cooked beans or tofu
- 2 eggs
- 4 tbsp. peanut butter*

*This food is very high in fat

Fats, oils, and sweets:
Limit your choices of these to 3 or less servings per day to lose weight.
- 1 tsp. oil, margarine, butter, or mayonnaise
- 1 tbsp. cream cheese or salad dressing
- 2 small cookies
- 1/2 cup of ice cream

### Different people have different needs

Women need more of certain nutrients, especially if pregnant or breastfeeding. These include calcium, iron, and folate (folic acid).

### Daily calorie guidelines

| | Men | Women |
|---|---|---|
| Active | About **2,800 calories** a day (the highest number of Pyramid servings) | About **2,200 calories** a day (the middle range of Pyramid servings) |
| Not Active | About **2,200 calories** a day (the middle range of servings for each food group on the Food Guide Pyramid) | About **1,600 calories** a day (the lowest number of the Pyramid servings) |

### A balance of foods is the key to eating well!

Learning what is a serving helps with weight control. You may be surprised to learn the amount of food that makes up one serving for each group.


**Figure 1.12** Degree of correspondence: How to eat well.

**John Doe**
1234 Marlgravel Lane
Date of Birth: 7/18/1985
E-Mail:abcdefg@yahoo.com

**Oaktree Academy**
**Chief Administrator:** William Doe
1234 Marlgravel Lane
Winston-Salem, NC 27222
NCHE, FHE, Classical Conversations

| 9th Grade - 1999-2000 | | | 10th Grade - 2000-2001 | | | 11th Grade - 2001-2002 | | | 12th Grade - 2002-2003 | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Class | Cr | Grd | Class | Cr | Grd | Class | Cr | Grd | Class | Cr | Grd |
| Composition | 1 | B | Algebra II | 1 | A | Shakespeare | 1 | A+ | World Literature | 1 | B |
| Latin I | 1 | A | Latin II | 1 | B | American History | 1 | B- | World History | 1 | B |
| American Literature | 1 | B+ | Geometry | 1 | A- | Latin III | 1 | A- | Latin IV | 1 | A |
| Algebra I | 1 | A- | English Literature | 1 | A+ | Chemistry & Lab | 1 | B | Physics | 1 | B |
| Economics | .5 | B | Composition | 1 | A | Adv. Math | 1 | B+ | Calculus | 1 | B |
| History of Science | .5 | B+ | Biology & Lab | 1 | B+ | Phys. Ed. | 1 | A+ | Theology | 1 | A- |
| Origins | .5 | A | Art History | .5 | A+ | HTML / Web Design | .5 | A | | | |
| Philosophy | .5 | A- | Drama | .5 | A | Philosophy | .5 | B | | | |
| American Government | .5 | B | Formal Logic | .5 | B- | | | | | | |
| Shakespeare | .5 | A | Music History | .5 | B | | | | | | |
| GPA: 3.50<br>Cummulative GPA: 3.50<br>Credits: 7<br>Cummulative Credits: 7 | | | GPA: 3.66<br>Cummulative GPA: 3.58<br>Credits: 8<br>Cummulative Credits: 15 | | | GPA: 3.54<br>Cummulative GPA: 3.57<br>Credits: 7<br>Cummulative Credits: 22 | | | GPA: 3.29<br>Cummulative GPA: 3.51<br>Credits: 6<br>Cummulative Credits: 28 | | |

9th and 10th grade were facilitated by Classical Conversations, Inc.

**Figure 1.13** Degree of correspondence: Academic transcript.

Think in terms of the most common purpose and audience for this text type/genre in your target culture.

| Text | Target language/culture | Correspondence | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Fig. 1.11 Dental survey | | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| Fig. 1.12 How to eat well | | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| Fig. 1.13 Academic transcript | | 1 | 2 | 3 |

## Exercise 7

Compare and contrast the following pairs of activities/fields:

MT/CAT
Internationalization/software localization
Revising/reviewing
Terminology management/Language for Specific Purposes

**Exercise 8**

Are you aware of any additional terms (along the lines of dynamic/formal, communicative/semantic, etc.) that are commonly used (even among lay people) to refer to the degree of correspondence between the source text and target text? Define them. Give examples. How similar to or different from the above terms are they?

**Exercise 9**

For each of the translations in Exercise 6 indicate whether, in your target language/culture, they would normally be overt or covert, communicative or semantic, dynamic or formal. Recall that these terms are not mutually exclusive; rather, they constitute two extremes on a continuum. Therefore, for the purposes of this exercise you are asked to determine which of the two would be the dominant strategy overall for the translation.

| ST | Target language/ culture | Overt/covert | Communicative/ semantic | Dynamic/ formal |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Fig. 1.11 | | | | |
| Fig. 1.12 | | | | |
| Fig. 1.13 | | | | |

**Exercise 10**

Use Google Translate to obtain the raw output for a language other than English from the source text in Figure 1.7a. Compare the result with the English source text. What are some of the difficulties faced by this MT system?

**Exercise 11**

After examining the target text produced by Google Translate in Exercise 10, what would you say this MT (and others in general) are good at? What types of text can a MT system be useful for? For which would it be less adequate? Suggestion: Try using Google Translate to translate various text types such as a poem, a song, package instructions, etc., and compare the results.

**Exercise 12**

A French in-house translator has worked for a multinational company in the United States for many years, translating from English into French. She is a native speaker of English who learned some French in college and has been to France only once, many years ago. Despite her limited French skills, she is able to do a very good job at what she does, much better than many native speakers the company has hired in the past. She translates technical and repetitive material.

Comment on why it is possible for this translator to be so competent at what she does, and what translation competences are crucial for her job (and which ones are not so crucial).

Exercise 13

Consider the definitions of translation and interpretation/interpreting and the discussion on translator competence. What are some of the differences in the competence/subcompetence areas between an interpreter and a translator?

## Further reading

*The Handbook of Translation Studies* (Gambier and van Doorslaer [2010/2012]) and *The Routledge Encyclopedia of Translation Studies* (Baker [1998]) are reference works that include brief explanations of key terms in translation.

Holmes (1972/1988) and (2004) is the foundational article for the field of translation studies, including the original proposal for the map of the discipline. Following Holmes, Munday (2001) (chapter 1) maps translation studies as a discipline with regard to applied translation studies, translation theory and other areas of relevance to the content of this book. In chapter 2 and chapter 3 of the same monograph, Munday summarizes issues of equivalence and resemblance to the source text. Koller (1995) also discusses equivalence in translation studies.

# 2 The functions of translation: Functionalism

## 2.0 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter we review crucial aspects of functionalism, a theory of translation that enjoys a great deal of popularity in professional contexts because of its intuitive and practical appeal. Functionalism argues that the **translation process** is guided by extra-linguistic factors, more specifically by the function of the translation. Many translators often refer to functionalist notions without knowing that they are doing so. This chapter reviews some basic notions of functionalism, and it explains how to apply them in translation practice and discussion. It addresses such topics as: situational features, and how they affect both monolingual and translated texts; changes in situational features, and how they influence and guide translation decisions; translation norms, and how a translator uses them to make decisions on the situational features of the target text. Chapter 3 will also discuss language functions and translation functions by looking at language use (i.e., pragmatics) and its relevance to translation in more detail.

As mentioned above, functionalism is a theory of translation that argues that the translation process is guided by extra-linguistic factors, more specifically by the function of the translation, and that translators make translation decisions on the basis of the extra-linguistic factors surrounding the target text. In order to understand what this means, we start by considering the relationship between extra-linguistic factors and texts, progressing to translated texts and translation tasks.

## 2.1 Extra-linguistic factors and monolingual texts

Texts are embedded in situations or contexts that consist of non-linguistic elements, which determine linguistic form and are reflected in the text. These non-linguistic elements are often referred to as **situational features**, **features of situation** or extra-linguistic features (also factors). Among them are: the function, audience, medium, motive, time and place. Function is the purpose the text is trying to achieve. Some examples of textual functions are: to convince someone to buy a product; to inform audiences about the time and venue for an event; to teach the public how to develop healthy eating habits; to give instruction in the use of a computer program; to teach someone how to administer medication; to show how to assemble a piece of furniture; to express an opinion regarding a controversial political topic; to express feelings of sadness and dejection at the loss of a loved one, etc. Audience refers to the readers to whom the text is addressed (including the characteristics of those readers: age, educational background, socioeconomic background, religion, sex, their anticipated sociocultural knowledge, etc.). For instance, a text can be for an uneducated audience, for expert researchers in medicine, for scholars, for children in the United States, children in Mexico, etc.

Medium has to do with the physical shape of the text, whether it is an oral, written or mixed-media text (a combination of written, oral, visual, etc.), or whether it has medium-related restrictions (size of pages, computer screens, character limit, etc.). Some examples of texts with special medium characteristics are: a script to be used in a play; a text for a PowerPoint presentation that is to be read and heard; the multilingual packaging for a high-end cosmetic product sold internationally which has to comply with a variety of national and regional regulations, etc. Motive is the reason for the production of a text. Notice that this is slightly different from the purpose, which refers to what the author(s) wants to achieve. For instance, a change in insurance coverage dates required by law can be the motive for a letter sent to the insured; other examples of motives are the correction of a mistake in a previous time–place announcement, such as a flyer or email; or the anniversary of the foundation of a state in a publicity brochure.

**Time** refers to the intended time of reception for a text; for example, the **time of reception** for a newspaper advertisement for a weekend sale at a national furniture store could be the week before the sale. Finally, **place** refers to the intended **place of reception** of the text; using again the example of a newspaper advertisement for a weekend sale at a national furniture store, the place of reception could be all of the cities in the United States in which the furniture manufacturer has stores.

### Example 2.1: Situational features

Function: the purpose the text is meant to accomplish. Example: to convince someone to buy a product.

Audience: the readers to whom the text is addressed (including the characteristics of those readers: age, educational background, socioeconomic background, religion, sex, anticipated sociocultural knowledge, etc.). Example: expert researchers in medicine.

Medium: physical shape of the text: oral, written, mixed-media and medium-related restrictions (size of pages, computer screens, character limit, etc.). Example: a script to be used in a play.

Motive: the reason for the production of the text. Example: correction of a mistake in a previous time–place announcement (text: flyer, email).

**Time**: intended **time of reception**. Example: the week before a weekend sale (text: newspaper advertisement for a weekend sale at a national furniture store).

**Place**: intended **place of reception**. Example: all cities in the United States in which a national furniture manufacturer has stores (text: newspaper advertisement for a weekend sale at a national furniture store).

Referring to the summary of situational features provided in Example 2.1, consider the text in Figure 2.1 and the situational features that surrounded its production.

You will probably agree that it is not too difficult to determine what the situational features are by simply skimming the text. You probably guessed that the CT

ONE DAY SURGERY • POSTOPERATIVE INSTRUCTIONS

CT Scan

Today, your child had a CT Scan under general anesthesia. It is important that you understand how to care for your child at home, and this information will assist you in providing that care. The nurse will go over this information with you before you leave for home. Remember, it is important that you follow these instructions carefully. Please feel free to ask any questions before going home.

**What to Expect and What to Do**

**What to Expect and What to Do**

- If your child had sedation or anesthesia, his or her balance may be off for the next 24 hours. Movements may be unsteady, causing stumbling, bumping into walls, etc. Limit activity for 24 hours. Activity may also be restricted due to the type of surgery or procedure performed. Consult your child's physician if you have additional questions.
- A slight elevation in temperature is to be expected for the first 24 hours. It should not go above 101 degrees and it should not last more than 24 hours. If either occurs, notify your child's doctor. Encourage fluids by mouth and give if needed.
- Your child may become nauseated and vomit on the way horne due to motion sickness. Do NOT feed solid food until you reach your destination. If nausea and vomiting occur after starting and advancing diet, return to clear liquids and then advance diet as tolerated.

**Your Child's Doctor is**________________________________________

**The Office Telephone Number is:**____________________________________

For emergencies and after-hours calls, telephone the Emergency Department at

**Call Your Doctor**

- Notify your doctor of excessive nausea, vomiting and/or temperature over 101 degrees or lasting for more than 24 hours.
- Call if you have any questions or problems, call your child's physician or the at

**Discharge Medications:**

________________________________________________________

________________________________________________________

**Figure 2.1** Situational features of a text: CT scan.

text in Figure 2.1 serves the function of providing instructions on how to care for a child after a medical procedure, a CT scan. It is aimed at the parents/guardians of the child who constitute the audience for the text. The reason, or motive, for which the text was created is that the child has gone through a procedure that requires some at-home care, and therefore the child's caretakers need to know what to do and who to call in case of emergency. The text is to be received (time of reception) immediately after the procedure at the medical facility where it took place (place of

Long ago, before the earth and all things in it, there was only God.

On day one God said, “Let there be light.” God called the light day, and the darkness He called night.

On day two God made the sky.

On day three God separated the land from the waters and created flowers, trees, and grass.

On day four God made the sun, moon, and stars.

On day five the birds and fish were created.

On day six God made animals and then He made people to be like Him. He named the man Adam, and Adam named his wife, Eve.

God rested on day seven. He saw everything He had made and said that it was good.

God made a garden home for the man and woman. It was called the Garden of Eden. He told them they could eat fruit from all the trees in the garden except the tree of knowledge of good and evil. The serpent lied to Eve and she ate of the fruit. She gave some to Adam and he also ate of it. They had not been obedient and they had to leave their beautiful home. After that, they had to work hard and had many troubles.

It is always best to listen to God and do as He says.

**Figure 2.2** Children’s version of the Creation story. Genesis, Chapters 1–3 (www.gardenofpraise.com/bibl1s.htm, accessed June 23, 2014).

reception), and it is to be used over the next few days following the CT scan. Finally, the medium is a written medium, because the text is provided to the audience as a small handout/pamphlet. Note that slightly different situational factors are possible. Here we have examples that illustrate how situational factors shape texts with the ultimate purpose of generating awareness regarding their role in text production.

Texts take different shapes depending on the situational factors that apply to them. Compare, for instance, the same section of the Bible for adults and for children (Figures 2.2 and 2.3). The extra-linguistic factor of audience is reflected, among other things, in the vocabulary and sentence structure; the adult version, for example, uses the word “void,” while the children’s Bible says “there was only God.” Similarly, “firmament” in the adult Bible corresponds to “sky” in the children’s version. Furthermore, the children’s Bible version also uses child-like expressions, such as “it is always best to listen to God and do as he says,” absent from the adult version. Finally, the adult Bible has complicated sentence structure, as in verse 11: “and the gathering together of the waters called he Seas,” which can be compared

1: In the beginning God created the heaven and the earth
2: and the earth was without form and void; and darkness [was] upon the face of the deep. And the Spirit of God moved upon the face of the waters.
3: And God said, Let there be light: and there was light.
4: And God saw the light, that [it was] good: and God divided the light from the darkness.
5: And God called the light Day, and the darkness he called Night. And the evening and the morning were the first day.
6: And God said, Let there be a firmament in the midst of the waters, and let it divide the waters from the waters.
7: And God made the firmament, and divided the waters which [were] under the firmament from the waters which were above the firmament: and it was so.
8: And God called the firmament Heaven. And the evening and the morning were the second day.
9: And God said, Let the waters under the heaven be gathered together unto one place, and let the dry [land] appear: and it was so.
10: And God called the dry [land] Earth; and the gathering together of the waters called he Seas: and God saw that [it was] good.

**Figure 2.3** The Creation: Genesis 1:1–1:31, King James Bible.

with simple form in the children's version, such as "and created flowers, trees, and grass."

Consider now another example of how the situational factors, audience and purpose affect texts, such as a text with instructions on how to take care of a newborn's umbilical cord. We would expect to find clear differences between the instructions written for a pediatrician and those written for a new mother. If the readership consisted of pediatricians, it would be reasonable to expect more technical terms, perhaps longer sentences, references to research studies, etc. In a text for a new mother, however, technical information would probably be kept to a minimum, and sentences would be shorter in order to make the text more visually appealing (including bullet points, etc.). Figures 2.4 and 2.5 confirm our predictions.

Figure 2.4 is a section on umbilical cord care from guidelines prepared for pediatricians by the health authorities of British Columbia. Figure 2.5 is an online text from the Mayo Clinic instructing parents on this topic. The first text (Figure 2.4) is presented in a scientific and descriptive textbook style, while the second (Figure 2.5) resorts to writing and visual conventions designed to emphasize key points and improve reading comprehension (e.g., paragraph size, bold lettering, subtitles, etc.). It also uses the imperative, assuming that the

Newborn Guideline 10

## Care of the Umbilical Cord

The following guideline is based on the World Health Organization 1999 review of the evidence on care of the umbilical cord.

***Introduction***

Preventative umbilical cord treatments intended to reduce colonization and cross infection were introduced in the 1950's and 60's when there were high infection rates in nurseries. Since then, the practice of rooming-in has reduced the rate of infection in hospitals.[1] However, in developed countries individual cases and epidemics of umbilical cord infections continue to occur, even in supposedly aseptic nurseries for newborns.[2]

Bleeding from the cord stump, although more rare than infection, can rapidly be fatal. However, bleeding can be effectively prevented by tight tying or clamping of the cord and by prevention of infection.

***Pathophysiology and Infection Risk Factors***

The instrument used to cut the cord at birth cuts through living tissue and vessels that are still connected to the infant's blood stream. The instrument therefore, needs to be sterile to avoid infection.

When the cord is cut, the cord stump is suddenly deprived of its blood supply. The stump soon starts to dry and turns black and stiff (dry gangrene). Drying and separation of the stump is facilitated by exposure to air. The devitalized tissue of the cord stump can be an excellent medium for bacterial growth, especially if the stump is kept moist and unclean substances are applied to it. The umbilical stump is a common means of entry for systemic infection in the newborn infant. Keeping the stump clean and dry is therefore very important if infection is to be prevented.

The umbilicus is colonized by bacteria from environmental sources. In hospital, S. aureus is the most common colonizing organism and is acquired mostly from the hands of hospital personnel. The factors that cause colonization of the cord stump to progress to infection are poorly understood. Other common organisms causing cord infections in hospitals are E. coli and group B streptococci.

Separation of the umbilical cord stump occurs by inflammation of the junction of the cord and the skin of the abdomen. During the normal process of separation, small amounts of cloudy mucoid material may collect at that junction; this may be misinterpreted as pus and the cord may appear moist, sticky or smelly. The cord normally falls off between 5 and 15 days after birth. Factors that delay this process are the application of antiseptics to the stump, infection and caesarean section.

After the cord separates, the umbilicus continues to emit small amounts of mucoid material until complete healing takes place, usually a few days after separation. During this time the umbilicus is still susceptible to infections.

**FREQUENCY OF CORD INFECTIONS[3]**

The risk of umbilical infection has been reduced as a result of earlier postpartum discharge from hospital.[4] The exact incidence of cord infections is unknown, but omphalitis is very rare in developed countries.[5] The frequency of umbilical cord infections may be under-reported as babies may be discharged early from hospital and not followed up at home. The greatest period of risk for umbilical stump colonization is the first three days of life. Risk decreases with time as the umbilical wound heals and the stump separates.

**SIGNS AND SYMPTOMS OF INFECTION[6]**

Signs of inflammation (erythema, edema, tenderness) of the tissues surrounding the cord support the diagnosis of omphalitis. As infection delays or prevents obliteration of the vessels, umbilical bleeding is a common sequel. There may also be a purulent discharge from the stump. However, no data are available on the predictive value, sensitivity or specificity of these signs for umbilical infection. Associated signs such as fever, lethargy and poor feeding suggest systemic complication. In many instances, the diagnosis of cord infection is uncertain. In a normal drying process the cord may appear unusually moist and odorous with or without discharge, but with no other signs. The challenge for the caregiver is to be able to differentiate between the normal process and infection.

**CORD CARE**

**I. USE OF AGENTS ON THE CORD STUMP**

Recent evidence indicates that rubbing alcohol does not promote drying, is less effective against bacteria than other antimicrobials, and delays cord separation time.[7,8,9] The relative values of triple dye, bacitracin ointment, alcohol, and natural drying vis-à-vis cord care are not clear enough to allow for a single recommendation to be made.[10,11] The Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews concluded that "we are unable to be sure what is best practice for cord care in institutions in developed countries" but there is no evidence that doing anything other than keeping the cord clean is helpful.[12]

**II. CORD CARE RECOMMENDATIONS**

Few interventions for cord care have been evaluated by randomized controlled trials.[13] From the available evidence the following is recommended for cord care:[14,15]

- Wash hands with soap and water before and after contact with the umbilical area
- The umbilical cord should initially be cut with a sterile instrument
- **Keep the cord clean and dry**. Water on a cotton swab may be used to clean gently around the base of the cord (alcohol swabs are not recommended).
- Expose cord to air or cover loosely with clean clothes
- Fold diaper below the level of the umbilicus
- Avoid buttons, coins, bandages or binders over the navel
- In health care facilities, any agents used to clean the infant's skin or cord should be single-use, thereby preventing cross-contamination with other babies
- Practice 24-hour rooming-in particularly in health care facilities
- Encourage skin-to-skin contact with the mother to promote colonization with nonpathogenic bacteria from the mother's skin flora
- Support early and frequent breastfeeding which provides the newborn with antibodies to help fight infections

**III. PARENT TEACHING**

Parents should be taught:
- **The principles of cord care before discharge.**
- **To not apply any substances to the cord at home.**
- **To seek medical attention if there are signs of swelling or redness in the periumbilical region extending beyond 5 mm from the umbilicus. Urgent medical care is needed if these signs are accompanied by signs of systemic illness such as fever, lethargy and/or poor feeding**[16]

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13. Zupan, J. & Garner, P. (1999). Topical umbilical cord care at birth. The Cochrane Database of Systematic Review: The Cochrane Library, Volume (4).
14. World Health Organization. (1999). Care of the Umibilical Cord: A Review of the Evidence. Geneva: Author.
15. Health Canada. (2000). Family-Centred Maternity and Newborn Care: National Guidelines. Ottawa: Minister of Public Works and Government Services.
16. BC Women's and Children's Health Centre & Vancouver Richmond Health Board (2000–unpublished policy). Cord Care Study. Vancouver: Author.

* The document Care of the Umbilical Cord: a Review of the Evidence. WHO (1999) can be found on the Internet at: www.who.int/rht/documents/MSM98-4/MSM-98-4.htm

**Figure 2.4** How audience and purpose shape a text: Guidelines for providers.

readers are new parents concerned with following the right steps in order to properly care for their infant. Additional examples can be found in the lexical domain: For instance, Figure 2.4 uses the term "infant," whereas in Figure 2.5 "baby" is used instead; Figure 2.4 refers to research and antimicrobial agents (by their technical names), as well as the "umbilicus," not used in Figure 2.5, which talks about "rubbing alcohol" and the "umbilical cord." In Figure 2.4 the stump "separates," and in Figure 2.5 it "falls off." You will be able to find many more examples. We have just provided a few, to illustrate how very similar information takes different textual shapes depending on the audience (parents, doctors) and the purpose (everyday care, specialty care by a doctor).

Situational factors affect and shape text in all languages. Yet, the concrete form and features that the text takes in response to specific situational features are not the same in all languages and cultures. For instance, many Western

**Umbilical cord care: Do's and don'ts for parents**

**Taking care of the stump**

Your baby's umbilical cord stump will change from yellowish green to brown to back as it dries out and eventually falls off – usually within about two weeks after birth. In the meantime, treat the area gently:

- **Keep the stump clean**. Parents were once instructed to swab the stump with rubbing alcohol after every diaper change. Researchers now say the stump might heal faster if left alone. If the stump becomes dirty or sticky, clean it with plain water – then dry it by holding a clean, absorbent cloth around the stump or fanning it with a piece of paper.
- **Keep the stump dry.** Expose the stump to air to help dry out the base. Keep the front of your baby's diaper folded down to avoid covering the stump. In warm weather, dress your baby in a diaper and T-shirt to improve air circulation.
- **Stick with sponge baths.** Sponge baths might be most practical during the healing process. When the stump falls off, you can bathe your baby in a baby tub or sink.
- **Let the stump fall off on its own.** Resist the temptation to pull off the stump yourself, even if it's hanging on by only a thread.

**Figure 2.5** How audience and purpose shape a text: Instructions for new parents www.mayoclinic.com/healthy-living/infantand-toddler-health/in-depth/umbilicalcord/art-20048250?pg=2.

languages, such as Spanish and German, tend to have much longer, more syntactically complex sentences in formal, academic texts than would be found in American English. An informational sheet for parents on how to care for a baby's umbilical cord like the one in Figure 2.5 may not have the same features in all languages. For example, the direct-address form may be inappropriate in some languages; one might use the passive voice, while another might opt for the impersonal "one" structure (French *on*, for instance). These cross-cultural and cross-linguistic differences in situational factors become very important in translation, while adding a level of complexity to the translational task. The next section examines this topic with regard to translation.

## 2.2 Extra-linguistic factors and professional translation

When two texts are related through translation (i.e., when one is a translation of the other), there is, by definition, a change in the extra-linguistic factors of the target text with respect to the source. Obviously, the translation is to be written in another language, and it is also, generally, aimed at a different audience. In addition, it is very possible that the translation differs from the source with respect to time and place of reception, perhaps even with a somewhat different purpose, function, medium, etc. This means that, in planning the text in the target language, the translator must be aware of the situational features for the translation and of how these shape the target text or translation. This is one important criterion that guides how professional translators make translation decisions, even if they are not always aware of this decision-making process. Figure 2.6 presents this idea in a graphic manner.

**Skopos theory** (from Greek *skopos*, meaning "purpose," and also known as **functionalism**) is the theory of translation that argues that the translation process is guided by extra-linguistic factors, more specifically by the function of the translation. Thus, under this view, a good translation strategy is to make translation decisions on the basis of the extra-linguistic factors surrounding the target text. The situational features defined for the target text are normally referred to as the **translation brief** or **translation instructions**, and, in some professional environments, they take the form of a job order. Thus, in order to translate according to the situational features of the target text, the translator must first find out the answer to such questions as: Who is this translation for? What is the readers' educational level? What age are they, and what are their cultural beliefs? What do they know about the content of the text? What is the purpose of having the text translated? Is it to inform, to educate, to collect information, or perhaps to fulfill a legal requirement?

Figures 2.7 and 2.8 provide examples of two source texts and their corresponding translations, indicating the situational factors for the source text, the translation brief and the situational factors for the target text derived from that particular brief. The examples illustrate the effect of situational factors on the source text, how these change in the context of translation and how they shape

Source text –––––––––>Target text (=translation)
Change of situational factors

**Figure 2.6** Situational factors change in translation.


**Figure 2.7** Situational features for a source text, translation brief and target text.

**Source text situational features**
**Function**: to teach how to avoid medical gas mix-ups
**Audience**: English-speaking health care personnel and caretakers (hospital, home, nursing home, etc.)
**Time of reception**: unlimited
**Place of reception**: throughout the USA
**Medium of transmission:** written
**Motive for production:** various accidents and deaths resulting from medical gas mix-ups

**Figure 2.7a** Situational features for the source text.

Addressees

This text is to be translated for *Spanish-speaking caretakers and health care personnel* in *the United States*; *it is needed to prevent medical gas mix-ups*; it will be posted in visible, relevant locations for an unlimited period of time.

Medium

Place of reception

Function

Time of reception

Notes:
Medium: written and graphic (pictures); this is known through the ST and the word "posted."
Motive: it is not specified. A translator could research the situation and or assume that there must have been some safety problems.

**Figure 2.7b** Translation brief and situational features.

**Target text situational features**
**Function**: to teach how to avoid medical gas mix-ups
**Audience**: Spanish-speaking health-care personnel and caretakers (hospital, home, nursing home, etc.)
**Time of reception**: unlimited
**Place of reception**: throughout the United States
**Medium of transmission**: written
**Motive for production**: various accidents and deaths as a result of gas mix-ups

**Figure 2.7c** Situational features for the target text (obtained from the brief in Figure 2.7b).

the target text. Figures 2.7 and 2.8 contain the source texts and Figures 2.7a and 2.8a the situational features for the two source texts. Figures 2.7b and 2.8b present the translation brief, in the form of a paragraph, identifying each of the relevant situational features by means of arrows. In Figures 2.7c and 2.8c we


**Figure 2.7d** Target text.

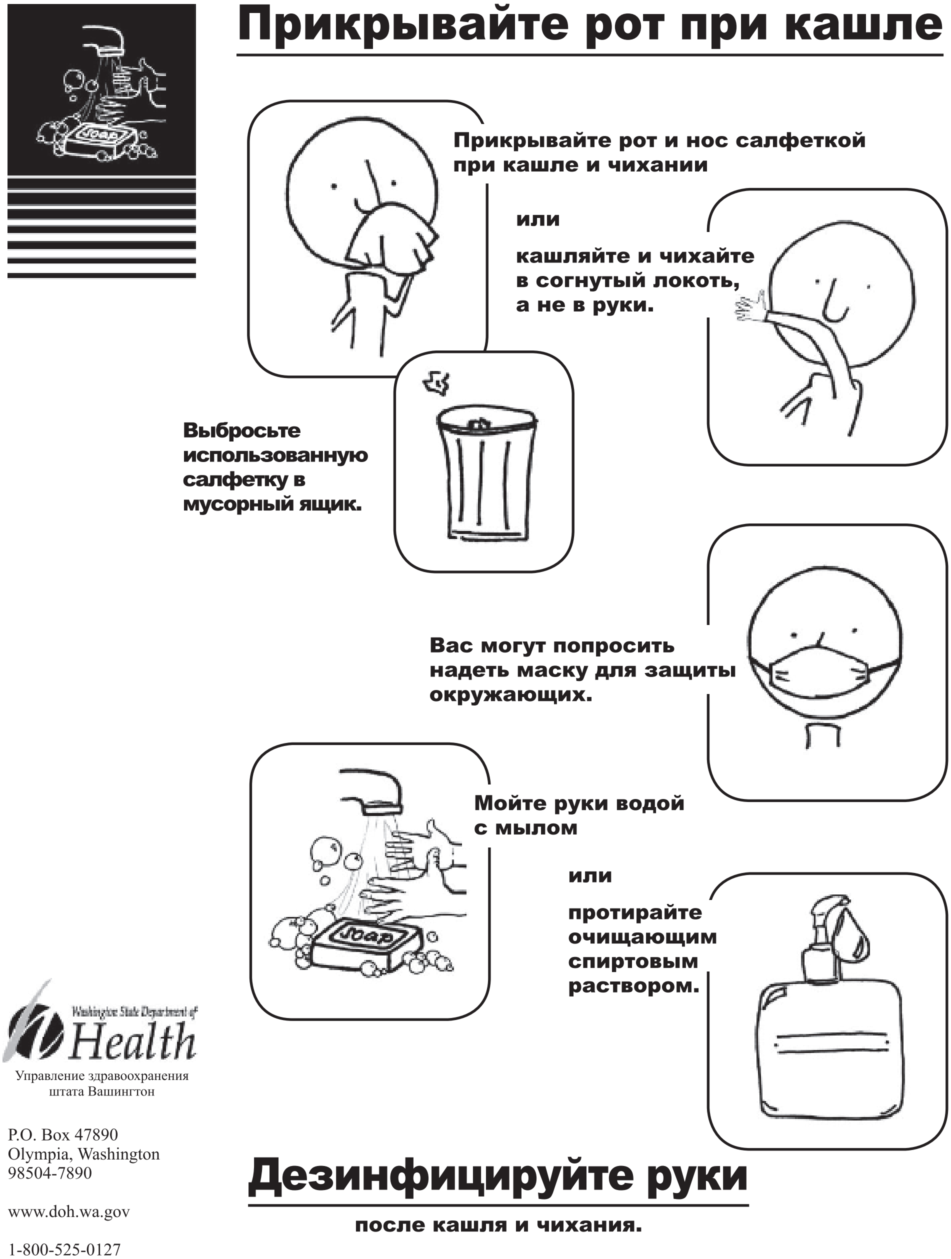



**Figure 2.8** Situational features for a source text, translation brief and target text.

**Source text situational features**
**Function**: to teach how to avoid spreading the flu
**Audience**: English-speaking public in the state of Washington
**Time of reception**: unlimited
**Place of reception**: mostly in the state of Washington
**Medium of transmission**: written and graphic (visual)
**Motive for production**: flu season

**Figure 2.8a** Situational features for the source text.

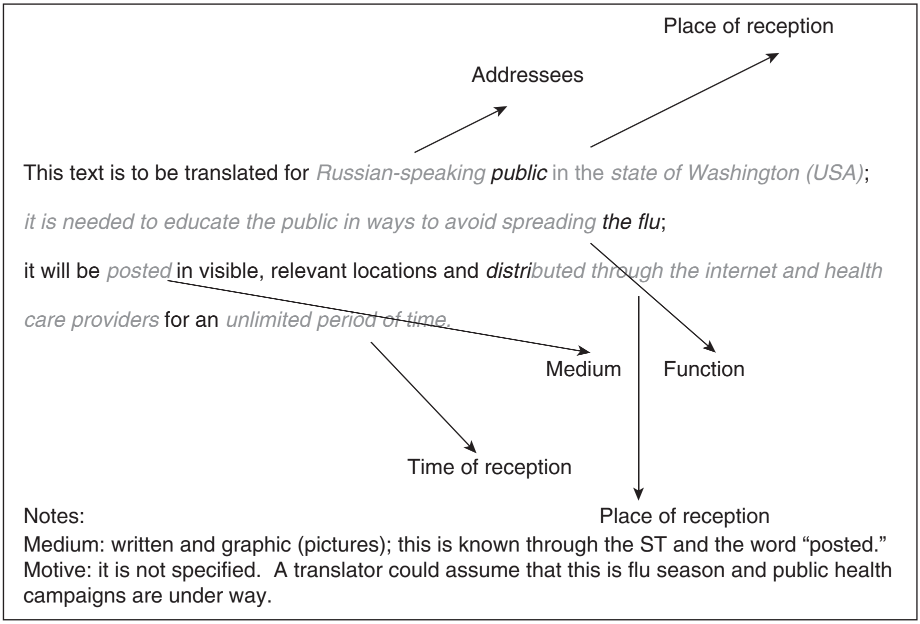



**Figure 2.8b** Translation brief and situational features.

**Target text situational features**
**Function**: to teach how to avoid spreading the flu
**Audience**: the Russian-speaking public in the state of Washington
**Time of reception**: unlimited
**Place of reception**: mostly in the state of Washington
**Medium of transmission**: written and graphic (visual)
**Motive for production**: flu season

**Figure 2.8c** Situational features for the target text (obtained from the brief in Figure 2.8b).

provide the full set of situational features for the target text, developed and corresponding to those in Figures 2.7b and 2.8b. Finally, Figures 2.7d and 2.8d consist of the translated text, created on the basis of the situational features listed in Figures 2.7c and 2.8c.

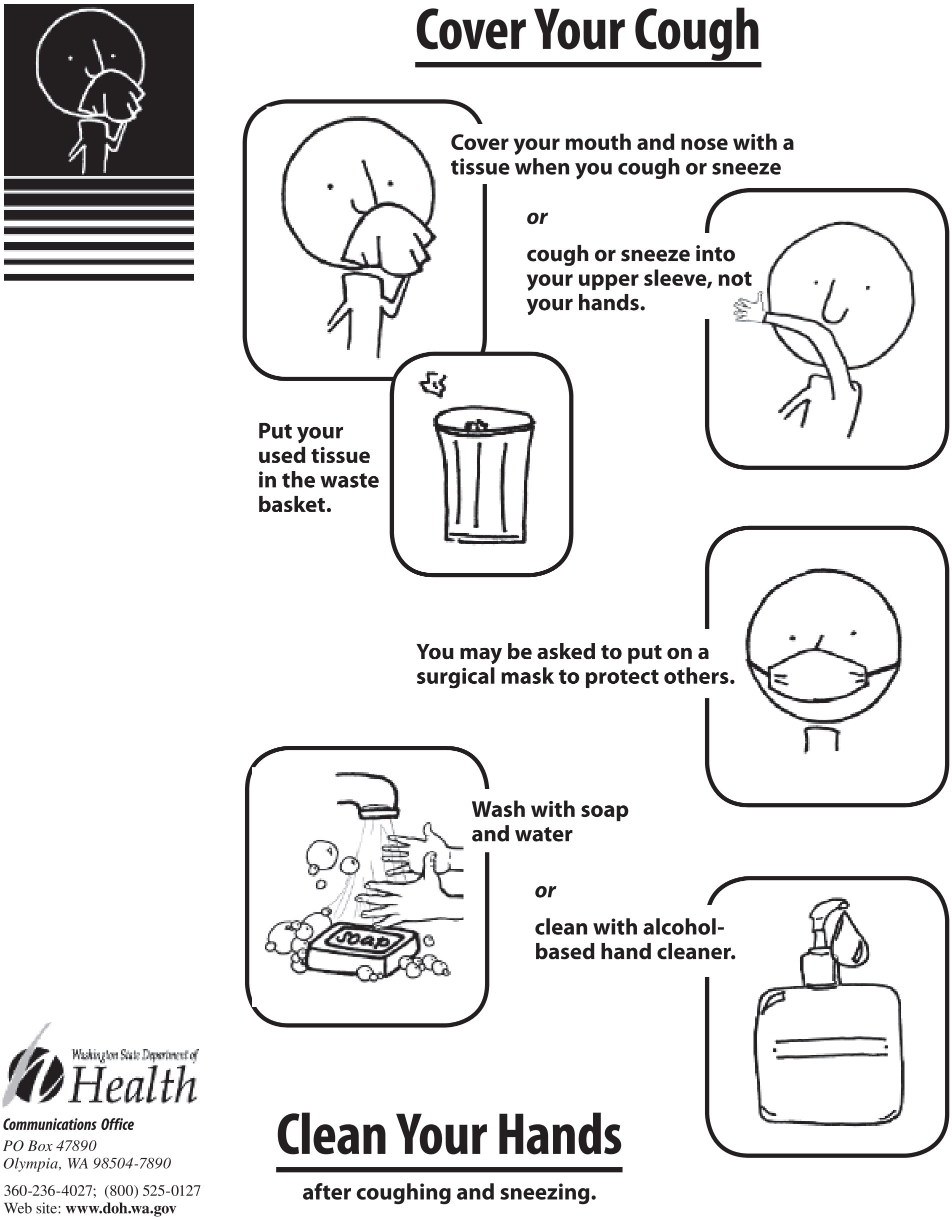



**Figure 2.8d** Target text.

Now that you have had an opportunity to see two examples of authentic source texts with their translations, briefs and situational features, you are ready to practice these concepts, as well as to identify the situational features for a translation on the basis of the brief. Practice 2.1 allows you to do this.

## Practice 2.1: Background

Consider the texts in Figures 2.9 and 2.10. The source texts contain public health information to encourage individuals to avoid hepatitis B by getting the vaccine. It also includes some basic information on symptoms and transmission. This is part of a public health campaign to reduce the number of hepatitis B cases throughout the United States. Because this is a national campaign and the United States is a multilingual society, the English source text has to be translated into various languages. Among them is the Russian-speaking population. On the basis of the narrative-style brief you have been provided with, what would you say are the situational features for this translation?

### Commentary

Notice that the translation brief presented above is sufficient to identify the situational features necessary to make translation decisions. The function is the same as that of the English source text – to encourage individuals to protect themselves against hepatitis B by getting the vaccine, and to provide basic information on hepatitis B for prevention purposes; the place and time of reception are also shared with the source text, and the time of reception is open-ended, although it will be limited by the validity of the contact information printed on the middle page of the brochure (the back page, when folded). As with the source text, the motive for production is a public health campaign for protection against hepatitis B. As you will have noticed, the change in addressees (Russian-speakers), however, has consequences not only for the language of the text, but also for the medium, since it is a combination of written and graphic media (pictures). The picture of an African American family has been replaced with a fair-skinned, blond, Russian-looking one, and the picture of a pregnant woman with one with a more stereotypical Eastern European look.

Earlier in this chapter, Figure 2.1 presented a text that contained post-operative instructions for the parents/guardians of a child who has undergone a CT scan. At that point we considered the situational features that probably gave rise to the English text. Try to imagine now a likely translation brief for the same text and consider the extra-linguistic factors for the target text. One possible brief in a US context would be that the English text needs to be made available to Chinese immigrants who need access to health care for their children in a large US city. The parents need to care for their children at home after the procedure; as a result, the situational factors would be similar except for the addressees, who are Chinese and who may not understand the US health-care system as an American would.

### Example 2.2: Possible situational features for a target text for Figure 2.1

Function: providing instructions on how to care for a child after a medical procedure

**Audience**: parents, recent immigrants from China

Time of reception: immediately after the procedure and over the next few days

Place of reception: medical facility where the procedure took place

**Medium of transmission:** written medium, in the form of a small handout/pamphlet. One can also imagine a bilingual assistant/interpreter providing additional oral help with the content of the brochure.

**Motive for production:** the child has gone through a procedure that requires some at-home care

Exercise 5 at the end of this chapter contains another text for additional practice writing up potential situational factors for a target text.

## 2.3 How do situational factors affect translation decisions?

It is common to hear students and beginners ask: How do you translate "X" into "Y" (Spanish, French, English, etc.)? Very often the answer is: "It depends." *It depends* on the extra-linguistic features of the target text; the translator cannot provide a specific answer to the "how-do-you-translate" question unless he/she knows more about the situational features for the translation. With this answer, he/she demonstrates an intuitive knowledge of functionalism.

## You cannot get HBV from:

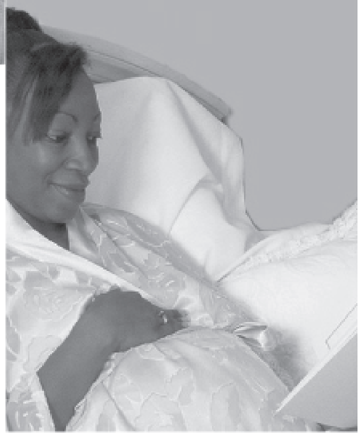
- sneezing or coughing
- kissing or hugging
- breast feeding
- food or water
- casual contact (such as an office setting)
- sharing eating utensils or drinking glasses

*Persons depicted in these materials are models and used for illustrative purposes only.*

## How do you know if you have HEPATITIS B?

Only a blood test can tell for sure. See your doctor if you have symptoms of hepatitis (e.g., extreme tiredness, loss of appetite, joint pain, yellow skin or eyes), or if you think you had direct contact with someone who has hepatitis B.

*It is very important that all pregnant women get a blood test for hepatitis B early in their pregnancy, since a woman who has hepatitis B can spread the virus to her baby during birth.*



## FOR INFORMATION ON VIRAL HEPATITIS:

access our website at:

**http://www.cdc.gov/hepatitis**

or write

**Centers for Disease Control and Prevention**
**Division of Viral Hepatitis, Mailstop G37**
**Atlanta, GA 30333**

or

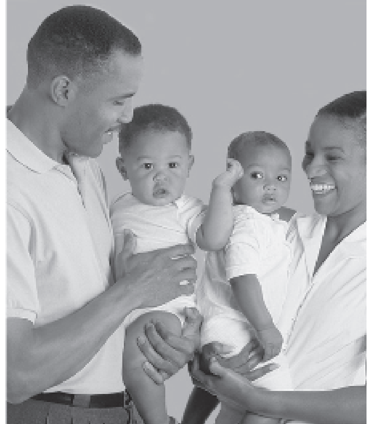
contact your state or local health department

DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH & HUMAN SERVICES
CDC
Revised 8/03

PREVENT
HEPATITIS B
PREVENT
HEPATITIS B

# PREVENT HEPATITIS B

## GET VACCINATED



Hepatitis B is a serious disease caused by the hepatitis B virus (HBV) that attacks the liver and can be spread to others.

### Is HEPATITIS B a serious problem?

Yes. Each year, thousands of people of all ages get hepatitis B and about 5,000 die of chronic (life-long) liver problems caused by hepatitis B virus (HBV) infection. If you have had other types of hepatitis, such as hepatitis A or hepatitis C, you can still get hepatitis B.

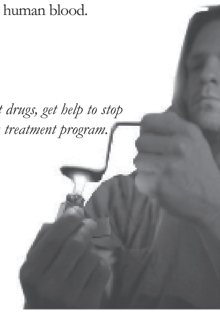
### HBV is spread by:

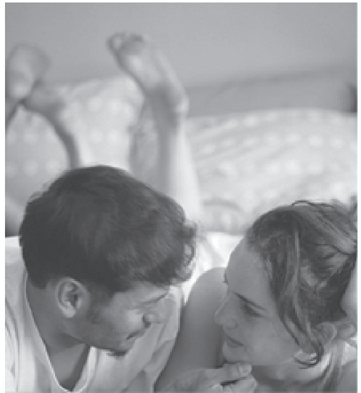
- having sex with an infected person
- direct contact with the blood of an infected person

### How can you protect yourself from getting infected with HBV?

- **Get vaccinated!** Hepatitis B vaccine is safe, effective, and your best protection.
- **Practice "safer" sex.** If you are having sex, but not with one steady partner, use latex condoms correctly every time you have sex. The efficacy of latex condoms in preventing infection with HBV is unknown, but their proper use may reduce transmission.
- **Don't share anything that might have blood on it.**
  - Don't share drugs, needles, syringes, cookers, cotton, water, or rinse cups.
  - Don't share personal care items, such as razors or toothbrushes.
- **Think about the health risks if you are planning to get a tattoo or body piercing.** Make sure the artist or piercer sterilizes needles and equipment, uses disposable gloves, and washes hands properly.
- **Handle needles and sharps safely**. Follow standard precautions if you have a job that exposes you to human blood.

*If you shoot drugs, get help to stop or get into a treatment program.*





### Get HEPATITIS B vaccine if:

- you are under 19 years of age
- your sex partner has hepatitis B
- you are a man who has sex with men †
- you recently had a sexually transmitted disease (e.g., gonorrhea, syphilis)
- you have sex with more than one partner
- you shoot drugs †
- you live with someone who has chronic hepatitis B
- you have a job that exposes you to human blood
- you are a kidney dialysis patient
- you live or travel for more than 6 months in countries where hepatitis B is common

† Also get hepatitis A vaccine

### Is the vaccine safe?

Yes. Hepatitis B vaccine is safe and effective. Millions of children and adults have received the vaccine worldwide since 1982.

### Should you get a blood test after the vaccine series to be sure that you are protected?

Most people don't need to get their blood tested after completing the vaccine series (usually three shots).

### You should get a blood test 1 to 2 months after you complete the series if:

- your sex partner has chronic hepatitis B
- your immune system is not working well (e.g., you are on dialysis or you have AIDS)
- you have a job that exposes you to human blood

### Should you ever get a booster shot after the vaccine series?

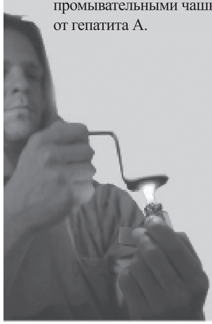
Most people do not need booster shots after getting the vaccine series.

*After vaccination, babies born to infected mothers should get their blood tested at 9 to 15 months of age to be sure that they are protected.*

**Figure 2.9** Identifying situational features on the basis of the brief: English.

## Что Вы должны знать, чтобы уберечь окружающих от заражения ВГВ?

- Ваш половой партнер должен сделать прививку от гепатита В. В противном случае Вам следует пользоваться латексными презервативами при каждом половом контакте. Эффективность использования латексных презервативов в предотвращении заражения ВГВ неизвестна, но их правильное использование может уменьшить риск передачи заболевания.
- Все проживающие вместе с Вами должны сделать прививку от гепатита В.
- Не пользуйтесь чужими и не разрешайте другим пользоваться своими предметами, на которых может оставаться кровь, такими как зубная щетка или бритва.
- Если Вы употребляете наркотики, обратитесь за помощью в лечебно-профилактическую программу. Не пользуйтесь чужими и не разрешайте другим пользоваться своими иглами, шприцами, посудой, ватой, водой или промывательными чашками. Вакцинируйтесь от гепатита А.



## ВГВ не передается через:

- чиханье или кашель
- поцелуи или объятия
- грудное кормление
- еду или воду
- пищевую посуду или стаканы
- бытовые контакты (например, во время посещения офисов)

Люди, изображенные в этих материалах – модели, и используются только для иллюстративных целей.

## ДЛЯ БОЛЕЕ ПОЛНОЙ ИНФОРМАЦИИ О ВИРУСНЫХ ГЕПАТИТАХ:

посетите нашу web-страницу
**http://www.cdc.gov/hepatitis**

или пишите по адресу
**Centers for Disease Control and Prevention**
**Division of Viral Hepatitis, Mailstop G37**
**Atlanta, GA 30333**

или обратитесь в Ваш местный департамент здравоохранения или департамент здравоохранения штата

ДЕПАРТАМЕНТ ЗДРАВООХРАНЕНИЯ И СОЦИАЛЬНЫХ СЛУЖБ
Исправлено 8/03

# Если у Вас хронический гепатит В

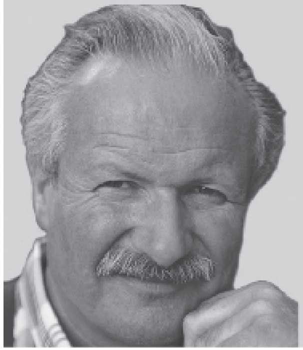
Хронический гепатит В - это пожизненное заболевание печени, которым можно заразить других.

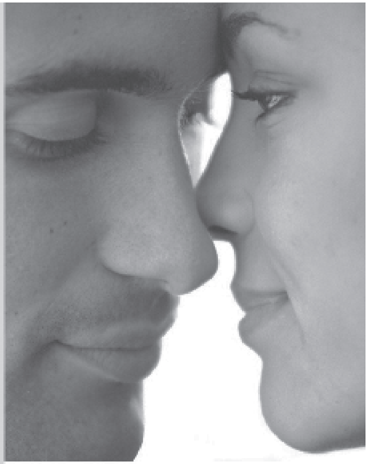
## Что такое хронический (пожизненный) гепатит В?

Хронический гепатит В – это неизлечимое заболевание печени, вызываемое вирусом гепатита В (ВГВ). Среди зараженных гепатитом В есть люди, которые остаются инфицированными на всю жизнь (никогда не избавятся от вируса) и могут заражать ВГВ других. Если Вы ранее болели другими типами гепатита, такими как гепатит А или гепатит С, это не защитит Вас от гепатита В.

Около 1.25 миллионов человек, проживающих в Соединенных Штатах, больны хроническим гепатитом В. Не все инфицированные гепатитом В выглядят и чувствуют себя больными; они могут быть носителями вируса, не имея при этом симптомов и не зная, что они больны.

Хроническая инфекция увеличивает вероятность заболевания циррозом печени или раком печени. Ежегодно 5000 человек умирают от заболеваний печени, вызываемых ВГВ.





## Как Вы могли заразиться ВГВ?

Вирус гепатита В передается через кровь и половые контакты. Вы могли заразиться, если:

- Вы вступали в половой контакт с инфицированным человеком.
- Вы употребляли наркотики.
- Ваша мать была больна гепатитом В во время Вашего рождения.
- Вы проживали вместе с инфицированным человеком.
- Вы медицинский работник и имели контакт с инфицированной кровью.

## Какие существуют способы лечения Вашего заболевания?

- Существуют лекарства, которые могут уменьшить риск тяжелой формы заболевания печени.
- Проконсультируйтесь со своим лечащим врачом и выясните, повреждена ли Ваша печень, и помогут ли Вам существующие лекарства.
- Эти лекарства не рекомендуются для применения лицами младше 18 лет.
- Вы не должны принимать эти лекарства, если Вы беременны.

## А если Вы беременны?

Вы можете заразить ВГВ своего ребенка во время родов, но это можно предотвратить.

- Убедитесь, что Вашему ребенку ввели специфический иммуноглобулин ( H-B-I-G) и первую дозу вакцины от гепатита В в течение 12 часов после рождения.
- Ваш ребенок должен получить вторую дозу вакцины от гепатита В в возрасте 1-2 месяцев, и третью дозу в возрасте 6 месяцев.
- Ваш ребенок должен сдать анализ крови в возрасте 9-15 месяцев, чтобы убедиться, что ребенок защищен.

**Figure 2.10** Identifying situational features on the basis of the brief: Russian.

**Breast Screening Form**

***Please Print***

**Name:** ______________________ **Age:** _____ **Phone:** ______________

**Address:** ______________________ **Zip Code:** ________**Date:** ________

**Social Security #** ______________ **Race** _______**Sex** ________

**Date of Birth** ______________**Birth City**______________**State** ________

**Marital Status** ____________**Mother's Maiden Name** ________________

**Father's Name**_______________

**Employment Information**

**Name of Employer:** ______________________

**Address:** _______________________**Zip Code** ______________

**Phone:** _________________

**Job Title:** ________________**Status:** ______**Full Time** _____**Part Time**

**Health Insurance:** _________________ **Health Care Provider:** ____________

**Figure 2.11** Source text: Patient information form.

The text in Figure 2.11 is a patient information form similar to those given to patients in doctors' offices in the United States. It is followed by an activity (Practice 2.2) that will help you understand how translation instructions (that is, situational features) guide translation decisions.

Figure 2.11 includes the term "Social Security #." In many (if not most) languages, more than one translation will be possible for this term. Translation instructions are necessary to decide which is the best translation. In other words, the selection of the best translation depends on the translation brief (that is, the situational features) for the target text. Consider now Practice 2.2 to understand how this works.

## **Practice 2.2:** How different translation briefs produce different translations

Brief A and Brief B are two possible briefs for a hypothetical Spanish translation of the term "Social Security #" in Figure 2.9. Interlinear English glosses are provided for the two translations.

Brief A

The text is to be translated for Spanish-speaking patients in a doctor's office in Arizona.

"Social Security #" → Número de seguro/seguridad social (Translation A)
*Number of insurance/security social*

Brief B

The text is to be translated for the use of a US-based health-care provider who is starting a partnership/practice in Madrid, Spain.

Social Security # → Número de (carnet de) identidad (Translation B)
*Number of (card of) identity*

What differences do you see between the translations produced under Brief A and Brief B in Figure 2.9? How do you think these are related to the translation briefs? Refer to the interlinear translations.

### Commentary

You will notice that the translation under Brief A is formally and structurally closer to the source text than the one produced for Brief B. The English text has the term "social security." Translation A uses "seguridad social," while Translation B refers to an identity card.

Translation A reflects the fact that Spanish speakers in the United States are surrounded by American English (language and culture), and speakers will often see and be familiar with English terms and cultural elements (e.g., a social security card); they are therefore more likely to understand terms and cultural concepts that are closer to English.

Under Brief B, in Spain, Translation B is to be used in a society where the notion of "social security" corresponds to a different government entity and not to the number on a government-issued card used for identity purposes. A literal translation like Translation A would cause confusion with this entity; consequently, it makes sense to use a term that refers to an identity card rather than to refer to an actual governmental institution using a formally equivalent term.

To recapitulate, the decision or selection of a target-text version for the term "social security" in Practice 2.2 was made on the basis of the translation brief, of the audience, of the purpose of the translation and of the target culture. Exercise 4 at the end of this chapter provides more opportunities for practice in relating the translation brief to the form of the target text and in understanding how the brief and the extra-linguistic factors guide translation decisions.

Remember that the focus is not so much on the specifics of the translation instructions, which in some cases may be straightforward, but on getting used to considering situational factors and how they affect or shape translations. With practice and experience, most translators learn to focus only on those extra-linguistic factors that may be problematic or difficult for a particular translation assignment. Translators also learn to fill in incomplete translation briefs, as customers often do not provide all the necessary instructions for a translation, and to make sure that what the client is requesting is what he/she actually wants or needs (e.g., some clients may request a translation into a specific language that may not be appropriate for the population targeted). In the next two sections, we discuss how translators handle incomplete briefs and the concept of loyalty to the customer, also related to the brief.

## 2.4 Determining the extra-linguistic factors of a translation

Given that the translated text does not exist before it is translated, one may wonder how the translator decides what the extra-linguistic factors are for a particular text. As mentioned earlier, one cannot assume from the outset that the translation's extra-linguistic factors will be the same as those of the source text.

Although many translations have the same function as the original, this cannot be determined without additional analysis. Furthermore, other extra-linguistic elements, such as the time and place of reception, as well as motive, are often not the same as those of the source text; the target audience is also by definition different from that of the source text. Consequently, the translator needs to ascertain what the situational features are for a particular translation.

The best source for this information is of course the **commissioner** of the translation, who should indicate the requirements for the job (i.e., translation instructions, translation brief). Unfortunately, some clients have a limited understanding of translation and are not always available to provide this information. In such situations, an experienced, educated translator will fill in the missing pieces of the brief on the basis of his/her experience dealing with similar texts in the past, as well as his/her knowledge of cultural and translational norms. As we will see in Chapter 6, a translator's awareness of social and cultural issues in the source and target cultures is also crucial in his/her ability to "create" the pertinent brief in collaboration with the commissioner.

In addition, experience and knowledge of translational norms within a certain culture and society may indicate that, for instance, health education materials in the United States are reader-oriented and often aimed at a reader who is not always college-educated. The translator will also know that these materials have an important educational function that does not consist simply of sharing information about diseases or disease treatment and prevention, but that ultimately aims to effect behavioral changes. The characteristics of this particular audience, and of the culture in which it is embedded, determine the function of the translation, in this case, information transmission and behavior modification. This function of the target text may be different from that of the same text in more traditional cultures, where the main purpose of health education at times consists of mere information transmission (under the assumption that being in possession of certain types of knowledge will be sufficient to effect behavior change). In sum, translators often determine the extra-linguistic or situational features of the translation by referring to the translation instructions or translation brief and by resorting to their own knowledge about translational norms and cultural issues.

## Norms in professional translation

The previous section discussed the role of norms in helping the translator determine the extra-linguistic features for the target text. We look at norms now in a little more detail.

**Norms** are implicitly agreed-upon rules that regulate behavior in many spheres of human activity, from culture and social realms to professional contexts. Translational norms play an important role in professional practice. As mentioned above, when the translation brief is incomplete, translators often resort to their own knowledge of these norms to determine the extra-linguistic factors relevant to a particular translation assignment.

An example of this has to do with the translation of academic transcripts. Experienced translators know that when foreign academic transcripts are translated into English for use by an American university (and many others), the norm (dictated by the purpose of the translated transcript) is to prepare a rather literal translation (instead of replacing grades with American equivalents). The reason for this is that the function of the translation is not to replace the original, but to allow the reader (i.e., the registrar) to use the translation side-by-side with the original. Thus, an experienced, knowledgeable translator can use his/her knowledge of translational norms to complete the missing information in the brief.

In some areas of translation and interpreting, translational or field-specific norms take precedence over the translation brief, as in the translation of legal documents. A legal text is not necessarily written to communicate with an audience, but to create a written, binding agreement between the relevant parties. In other words, communication and the reader are not as important as the document itself. The same purpose guides the translation of a legal text. The purpose of the translated version is to serve as a window into an otherwise inaccessible text, which continues to be the valid and legally binding document. The translated text exists in relation to the source and not independently of it. Given this purpose, it is to be expected that the goal in the legal field should be equivalence and fidelity as much as possible, and that conserving meaning and register (e.g., level of formality – see Chapter 6) should always be a priority. This type of translation is usually referred to as documentary translation, given that it documents a ST communication between the author and the ST recipient for

Seal: Autonomous University of Tamaulipas
Office of the Secretary

In: No. 19,605/87, pages 201, of book 34
(illegible) the present diploma

c. Victoria, Tam., on May 12, 1987
The Secretary General of the University

Signature

Legalization No. 4086

According to article 61 of the State Law of Education and of the agreement on the delegation of authority published in periodical No. 46 on June 7, 1986, the preceeding signatures are legalized as being those of: Lic. , and Ing.
Haces, Rector and Secretary General of the Autonomous University of Tamaulipas.
CD. Victoria, Tam., May 12, 1987

The Director of the Department of Legalizations
Signature

Left Seal: (illegible) Approved,
Central Office Signature
Director's Office
CD., Victoria, Tam.

Dr. XXX
Director of Coordinated Services of Public Health of the State.
CD, Victoria, February 23, 1990.

Right Seal:
United states of Mexico
Government of Tamaulipas
The Executive

**Figure 2.12** Norms in legal translation: A documentary, literal approach.

the target-text reader, who is aware of being a third part in the communicative situation. Additional examples of documentary translation are: interlinear translation, the translation of old texts for philological purposes and the translation of transcripts (see above, and Chapter 1).

Figure 2.12 is a translation into English of a diploma. It illustrates the "literal," source-oriented approach as the norm in the translation of legal texts, specifically of a diploma. For instance, the target text uses such terms as "legalization," "rector" and "Autonomous" that are not commonly found in English, but that are much closer to the words in the source text (not shown here), namely, *legalización*, *rector*, *Autónoma*. Official titles are not translated into their English equivalent; rather, a formally similar (and still comprehensible) term is selected – for example, the top administrator responsible for a university, the President in the United States, is translated as the "Rector" (for source-text *rector*). Other examples of titles and groups that have not been translated into their English equivalents, resembling instead the form of the source, are: "Department of legalizations," "The Secretary General of the University" and "Director of Coordinated Services of Public Health of the State." Finally, you should also notice that the documentary approach exemplified here goes beyond the translation of linguistic signs, as some graphics and hand-written scribbles are converted into words. Examples of this, in Figure 2.12, are the official seals, translated by the word "seal," and the hand-written illegible content, included in the target text by means of the term "illegible."

Norms also play a role in relation to equivalence and **loyalty**. Take, for instance, the case of the translation of an advertisement. A translator will know that for it to accomplish a function similar to that of the source text, some significant adaptation may be necessary. However, he/she will also know the degree of deviation from the source required is not what the customer is thinking of when he/she asked for a translation of the source text. Making significant modifications without consulting with the customer would entail a lack of loyalty to the customer and could also go beyond what is expected of a translator (vs. a writer or editor) in a particular society; in other words, it would go beyond his/her role according to the norms of that society. (The role of the translator often varies from one society to another and throughout history.)

In our example, the translator would subsequently inform the customer about what is necessary in order to produce an effective text, and some negotiation could follow regarding the new job requirements and whether the translator would be the one to carry them out.

Loyalty is not to be confused with faithfulness. Faithfulness refers to the degree of correspondence between the source and the target text, whereas loyalty involves the relationship between the customer and the translator regarding translation expectations.

In brief, loyalty and professional norms play an important role in professional translation, defining and delimiting the role of the translator.

## Summary

Texts adopt different linguistic features and forms (vocabulary, syntax, organization, register, etc.) dependent upon extra-linguistic factors such as the characteristics of the audience they address, the textual function, the motive for production, and the time and place of reception. Translated texts are no different, and, therefore, it makes sense to use these situational elements as the guiding criteria for making translation decisions. Functionalism is the theory of translation that advocates using the function of the translation as the guiding principle in the translation process. Although a significant degree of equivalence/similarity with respect to the original is central to the notion of translation, the exact measure cannot be determined a priori without referring to the translation brief, which is the set of instructions that allow the translator to determine the extra-linguistic factors associated with the target text. Translational norms (implicit, agreed-upon rules of behavior) allow the translator to work with incomplete briefs, and to determine what the missing extra-linguistic factors are for the translation he/she is about to produce. Cultural norms also affect what a particular culture considers an example of translation (rather than other forms of multilingual production). Experienced, educated translators inform customers when the requirements for a job (brief) go beyond the conceptual reference associated with translation in their culture.

### Key words

Features of situation, situational features/factors, extra-linguistic features/factors, function, motive, audience, time of reception, place of reception, translational norms, loyalty, commissioner, translation instructions, translation brief, Skopos theory, functionalism.

## Exercises

**Exercise 1**
List the situational features for one of the following texts: the American Constitution, the constitution of your country, the United Nations Charter, the Treaty on European Union (Maastricht Treaty).

Function:
Audience:
Motive:
Medium:
Time of reception:
Place of reception:

**Exercise 2**
Find two texts written in English that have similar content but are written with different audiences or purposes in mind. Write a paragraph commenting on how these factors affect the form of the text and what the differences are.

**Exercise 3**

(a) Write two short emails in which you inform (1) a coworker and (2) a friend who does not work with you that you have resigned from your job.
(b) Compare both emails, and comment on how the audience affects the way you have written the emails.

**Exercise 4**
The following are English subtitles for a scene in a foreign language movie. Match the subtitles with those elements of the brief (function [F] and audience [A]) that you find the most appropriate for the form of the translations. Do this by writing the correct numbers in the blank spaces after the subtitles (the same F or A option could correspond to more than one translation).

Scene: A person sitting in a doctor's waiting-room gets up to go to the bathroom. When she comes back, someone else occupies the same shared-seating area where she was before. There is still room, but it requires her to sit closer than normal to the other person, and therefore the other person would have to move slightly and make some room for both to be comfortable.

| Subtitles | Function | Audience |
|---|---|---|
| Would you mind if I sit here?<br>F_____<br>A_____ | F1. to get someone to do something (i.e., make room for someone to sit down) | A1. a young child, known to the speaker (e.g., son/daughter), who was sitting somewhere else before |
| Move, please.<br>F_____<br>A_____ | F2. to inform someone of the need to make room | A2. an adult, known to the speaker (e.g., husband/friend), who was sitting somewhere else before |
| May I sit here?<br>F_____<br>A_____ | F3. to be polite before taking a seat, to find out whether someone is bothered by having to move | A3. an unknown adult |

### Exercise 5

Write a set of likely instructions for a possible translation into your language of the text provided in Figure 2.13:

- Function
- Addressees
- Time of reception
- Place of reception
- Medium of transmission
- Motive for production

Discuss these instructions with translators who work with languages and cultures other than your own.

### Exercise 6

Complete the following brief on the basis of what has been said about the use of foreign transcripts in the United States.

ONE DAY SURGERY • POSTOPERATIVE INSTRUCTIONS

# Laser Treatment and Injection with Triamcinolone

Today, your child had laser treatment and injection with Triamcinolone under general anesthesia. It is important that you understand how to care for your child at home, and this information will assist you in providing that care. The nurse will go over this information with you before you leave for home. Remember, it is important that you follow these instructions carefully. Please feel free to ask any questions before going home.

## Physician's Instructions

### What to Expect

- Your child may become nauseated and vomit on the way home due to motion sickness. Do NOT feed solid food until you reach your destination. If nausea and vomiting occur after starting and advancing diet, return to clear liquids and then advance diet as tolerated.
- Balance may be off for the next 24 hours. Movements may be unsteady, causing stumbling, bumping into walls, etc. Limit activity for 24 hours. Activity may also be restricted due to the type of surgery or procedure performed. Consult your child's physician if you have additional questions.
- A slight elevation in temperature is to be expected for the first 24 hours. It should not go above 101 degrees and it should not last more than 24 hours. If either occurs. notify your child's doctor.
- Notify your child's doctor if signs of infection (such as persistent redness, pus draining from the wound or high fevers) occur.

### Activity and Care

- The area treated with the laser will swell and possibly turn gray to black. This may actually produce a scab over the next several days. Do not try to remove the scab. It will come off as the new skin grows underneath.
- Polysporin or an equivalent antibiotic ointment should be applied to the area treated with the laser for up to 1 week following the treatment.
- Your child can resume normal activity. However, please make every effort to keep your child out of sunlight. If sunlight is unavoidable, cover the treated area. This should be done for 3 weeks following treatment.

### Diet

- Your child may resume his or her regular diet.

### Medication

- It is unlikely your child will experience much pain from the laser since it effectively numbs the nerve endings. However, if your child acts fussy, should help.
- Discharge Medications: ____________________

**Your Doctor is . His office number is:**

For emergencies and after-hours calls, telephone: ____________________

### When to Call Your Doctor

- Notify your doctor of excessive nausea, vomiting and/or temperature over 101 degrees or lasting for more than 24 hours.
- Notify your child's doctor if signs of infection (such as persistent redness, pus draining from the wound or high fevers) occur.

**Figure 2.13** Write a set of instructions.

Brief (incomplete): These foreign transcripts need to be translated in order to apply to a US university.

1. Audience
2. Function

3. Place of reception
4. Time of reception
5. Motive

**Discussion.** Is this the same in your country or in other translation traditions you are familiar with?

**Exercise 7**

**Discussion.** What would be the most likely brief for the translation of a health education brochure on diabetes into your first language or another language/culture you are familiar with? How does this compare with what was said here about the United States?

**Exercise 8**

How can translational norms assist a translator with an incomplete brief?

**Exercise 9**

Explain at least one way in which norms guide translation practice.

**Exercise 10**

What is one way to decide the degree of equivalence needed for a particular translation?

**Exercise 11**

What is the factor that decides whether a particular text is a translation or an adaptation?

**Exercise 12**

Linguists often use word-by-word interlinear translation along with glosses when they provide examples in languages other than English. The following is an example of an interlinear translation:

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| ni– | c– chihui –lia in | no– piltzin ce calli |
| I | it make for to-the | my son a house[1] |

This is not the type of translation that professional translators usually come across; however, functionalism can explain this word-by-word approach on the

[1] Lehmann (2004).

basis of the translation brief. Taking this into consideration, answer the following questions:

i. What is normally the function of these types of translation? Provide a complete brief for an interlinear translation.
ii. In our example, why is a word-by-word translation better than one that simply communicates the idea behind the words?
iii. Provide a brief that would justify a translation such as: "I make a house for my son."

## Further reading

Nord (1997) is a general, easy-to-read-introduction to Skopos theory (i.e., functionalism). Colina (2003) includes examples and activities that apply functionalist principles to specific texts, in particular within a teaching context. Reiss (1981/2004) is one of the early English publications on functionalism showing the connection of the approach with text types. Nord (1991) explains the notions of translation norms and loyalty within functionalism.

# 3 The functions of translation: Pragmatics

## 3.0 INTRODUCTION

Chapter 2 considered how textual functions and other extra-linguistic factors shape texts in both monolingual and translational contexts. The role played by translation norms, which are implicit behavioral practices regarding translation activity, was also examined. Chapter 3 will focus on language and translation functions by examining pragmatics and its relevance to translation. After a brief introduction to the concept of pragmatics, this section covers the differences between grammatical/syntactic functions and pragmatic functions, speech acts, which are closely related to function and intention, presuppositions (in connection with the idea of information shared by writer and reader) and the non-linguistic context.

## 3.1 What is pragmatics?

Pragmatics is a discipline that investigates language use in its social and cultural context. In particular, pragmatics studies how language is interpreted by users beyond the literal meaning of the actual words used. In order to do that, it considers the effects of the linguistic and non-linguistic context on that interpretation. The non-linguistic context includes participants, their relationships, attitudes and emotions, inferencing procedures, cultural and word knowledge, etc. Much of what we covered in the previous section in connection with functionalism in translation falls under the purview of pragmatics.

To better understand what pragmatics is, consider Example 3.1.

**Example 3.1:** Pragmatic adequacy

[In the street, to a stranger]
i. Excuse me, do you have the time?
a. Yes. I don't have a watch, but my cell phone has a clock.
b. It's five o'clock.

In English, (i) is normally interpreted as a request for the time, despite the fact that the question is not "What time is it?" As a result, the pragmatically adequate answer is (b). We may wonder how we come to interpret the question "Do you have the time?" as "What time is it?" – as a request, rather than a question asking for information. Pragmatics is concerned with explaining this. Pragmatics also tries to understand why most speakers would provide an answer along the lines of (b), rather than (a). In other words, if both (a) and (b) are grammatically correct, why is it that generally (a) would not be an appropriate answer?

## Relevance for translation

Generally, translation and translation practice are concerned with instances of language in use. Therefore, it is no surprise that pragmatics is of crucial importance to translation, in particular with regard to research findings and applications. In addition, the study of pragmatics is crucial for translation because:

1. It emphasizes the importance of the function of the translation (and of the situational context) by foregrounding the idea that language is about doing things with words, and that words and language belong in a social and cultural context from which they derive their full meaning. Pragmatics highlights that

how we say things ultimately depends on what we are trying to accomplish, and that what we are trying to accomplish (purpose) is in turn crucially connected to the situational context, to the individuals involved in the interaction, their characteristics, power relations, context, culture, etc.

2. Most practitioners and individuals involved in translation often refer to the importance of cultural knowledge and awareness in the process. Pragmatics helps the translation field articulate why and how culture is crucial to the translation process. If language use is crucially dependent on purpose, on the users and receivers and their characteristics, successful communication is therefore dependent on the non-linguistic knowledge (cultural knowledge) of everyone participating in the interaction. When this knowledge involves more than one language or culture, successful communication requires knowledge of both. Successful translation, in addition, necessitates the ability to negotiate cross-cultural transfer and the potentially contradictory needs arising from it to achieve the purpose of the translation brief.
3. Pragmatics contributes to a better understanding of the role of equivalence in translation. It reveals the complex, multilayered (linguistic, pragmatic, textual, etc.) nature of equivalence vs. the traditional, simplistic conceptualization of the term. Pragmatics serves to highlight cultural requirements that may conflict with translation and linguistic purposes: It shows that in most cases some level of equivalence will have to be compromised in favor of a more important demand on the target text (e.g., function, social adequacy, politeness).

In sum, pragmatics is relevant to translation because it: emphasizes the importance of the function of the translation; helps articulate why and how culture is crucial to the translation process; and contributes to a better understanding of the role of equivalence in translation.

## 3.2 Grammatical functions vs. pragmatic functions

Grammatical functions are easy to recognize. Most readers will be familiar with the terms subject, direct object, indirect object, complement, etc., and their equivalents in grammar books. In contrast, pragmatic functions are not so easy to recognize.

Yet, in translation, they are just as important as – if not more important than – syntactic functions because they often go unnoticed.

Identification of pragmatic functions becomes more difficult when a particular syntactic constituent with a specific syntactic function in one language has a pragmatic function in another. For instance, languages like English require a subject pronoun. Others, like some Romance languages, use inflectional morphology instead (i.e., verb endings) to express the subject of the verb. Thus, in Example 3.2, English has an obligatory subject pronoun “I” that functions as a subject (a), while in Spanish and Portuguese the omission of the pronoun is the norm because of the endings in the verb forms *estoy* (b) and *concordo* (c).

### **Example 3.2:** Syntactic function: English subject pronouns

a. I agree with you

b. Estoy de acuerdo contigo
am of agreement with-you

c. Concordo com você
agree with you

When an explicit, that is, overt, subject pronoun is used in addition to the verb endings in these languages, it is not to tell us the subject of the verb (syntactic function), because we already know it. The inclusion of the pronoun is done for pragmatic purposes, to emphasize and contrast this subject with others by marking it as new information (emphasis). This can be seen in Example 3.3.

### **Example 3.3:** Pragmatic function: Pragmatic use of subject pronouns

a. Yo estoy de acuerdo contigo
I am of agreement with-you
‘Personally I agree with you’

b. Eu concordo com você
I agree with you
‘Personally I agree with you’

In Example 3.3, *Yo* and *Eu* are emphasized and implicitly contrasted with other participants; in other words, others may disagree, but the speaker agrees. As seen in the English translations, in writing this is normally expressed in English with expressions such as "personally," "I for one," etc. In oral language, intonation can be used to mark the pronoun "I."

A comparable case is that of the imperative in English, where the subject pronoun is used only to emphasize the subject. In Figure 3.1, *You* in "YOU DECIDE. . ." (highlighted) serves to place responsibility on the subject, meaning "It is *your* decision."

Another example has to do with word order. Again, English and Spanish offer a good illustration of the differences between syntactic and pragmatic functions. Word order has a syntactic function in English: if the noun phrase is in front of a verb, it is a subject, but, if it follows, it is an object. In other words, we use the order of the constituents to mark them as a subject or as an object. In Example 3.4 "the rocks" is a subject in (a) because it precedes the verb; when it follows the verb, it works as an object (b). In Spanish, however, verb inflection and agreement help identify the subject, making word order superfluous as a marker of syntactic function. For instance, in Example 3.5, *las piedras* 'the rocks' is always the subject regardless of where it appears in the sentence because it agrees with the plural morphology on the verb. Free from syntactic requirements, word order in Spanish has the capability to serve other functions, in particular pragmatic ones; it is used to mark new or old information (what the reader already knows).

### **Example 3.4:** Word order in English has a syntactic function

a. The rocks hit the ball
b. The ball hit the rocks

### **Example 3.5:** Word order in Spanish does not have a syntactic function

| | |
|---|---|
| a. Las piedras | golpearon la pelota |
| the rocks-subject | hit-3p.pl the ball-object |
| 'The rocks hit the ball' | |

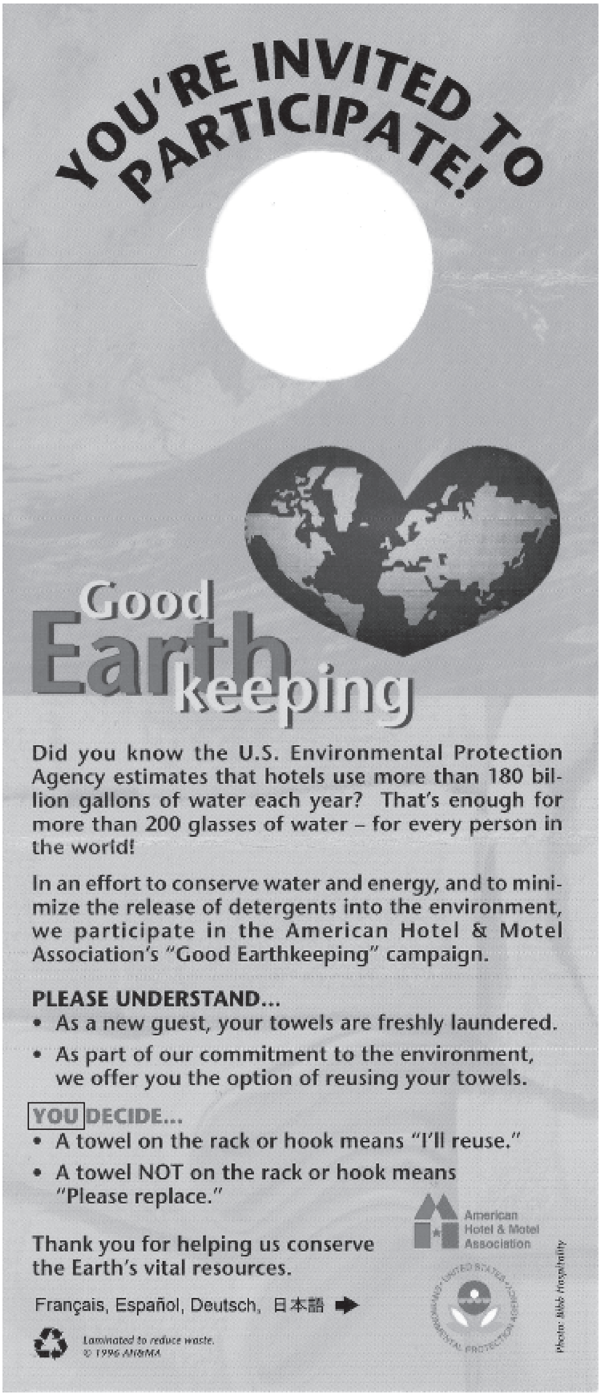



**Figure 3.1** Pragmatic function of explicit pronoun use.

b. (La pelota la) golpearon las piedras
the ball-object obj-pro hit-3p.pl the rocks-subject
'The ball was hit by the rocks'

The two sentences in Example 3.6 do not mean the same, although the syntactic functions have not changed. This is because the change in word order implies a change in pragmatic function. The normal pragmatic order is old information + new information. In (a) *la pelota* 'the ball' is identified as new information because it is placed after the verb. Evidence of this is that (a) would be the pragmatically adequate answer to the question *¿Qué golpearon las piedras?* 'What did the rocks hit?'; in (b) the new information is *las piedras* 'the rocks,' so that now the appropriate question is *¿Qué golpeó la pelota?* 'What hit the ball?'

**Example 3.6:** Word order in Spanish has a pragmatic function

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| a. Las piedras | golpearon | la pelota |
| the rocks-subject | hit-3p.pl | the ball-object |
| old information/known | | new information |

Question: *¿Qué golpearon las piedras?*
'What did the rocks hit?'
Answer: *Las piedras golpearon la pelota*
'The rocks hit the ball'

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| b. (A) la pelota (la) | golpearon | las piedras |
| the ball-object | hit-3p.pl | the rocks-subject |
| old information/known | | new information |

Question: *¿Qué golpeó la pelota?*
(A la pelota la golpearon) las piedras.
'The ball was hit by the rocks'

(Note: this position requires doubling of the object by means of an object pronoun, e.g., 'la')

Practice 3.1 includes additional word-order examples in European Portuguese. Consider the data in light of what has been said about word order and pragmatics in Spanish.

**Practice 3.1:** Word order and pragmatics: European Portuguese

a. A Maria comeu o chocolate
Maria-subject ate-3p.pl chocolate-object old
information/known new information

Question: *¿O qué comeu a Maria?*
'What did Mary eat?'
Answer: (A Maria comeu) *o chocolate*
'The chocolate'

b. O chocolate comeu a Maria
chocolate-object ate-3p.pl Maria-subject
old information/known new information

Question: *¿Quem comeu o chocolate?*
'Who ate the chocolate?'
Answer: *(Comeu o chocolate) a Maria*
'Mary'

In European Portuguese, as in Spanish, the syntactic functions do not change, despite the change in word order between (a) and (b); however, the pragmatic meaning is not the same, as demonstrated by the questions and answers.

Now consider the following anecdote: When a famous Portuguese linguist presented the sentence in (b) to a group of Brazilian linguists and linguistics students in Brazil attending a linguistics talk, they all laughed. What would you say made the sentence funny to the Brazilian? What is the difference between these two varieties of Portuguese? How is this relevant for translation (aside from a linguistic anecdote)?

### Commentary

The Brazilians interpreted the sentence with chocolate as the subject. In other words, they pictured perhaps a cup of chocolate eating a girl, which of course made them laugh. What this reveals is that Brazilian and European Portuguese differ in terms of how words function. Word order is less flexible in Brazilian than in European Portuguese. Changing the order of the phrases *a Maria* and *o chocolate* with respect to the verb changes their syntactic functions.[1]

Practice 3.1 offers an example of different types of meaning associated with word order, but also of the importance of considering the context and purpose of a translation, because a text that follows the European word order may move the readers to laughter. When the desired effect for the target translation is not humor, this may be considered an inappropriate translation.

Lack of awareness of pragmatic functions often results in literal translations that can alter the pragmatic meaning of a sentence. For instance, in the case of explicit subject pronouns, translation of an English subject pronoun into its overt pronoun equivalent (e.g., *you* = *tú*) may alter the pragmatic meaning of the sentence in languages with implicit pronouns, expressed by verb endings, because such explicit pronoun use may be interpreted as emphatic (like the imperative in English). Consider, for instance, the translations (a–b) (Spanish) and (c–d) (Portuguese) in Example 3.7 (interlinear, word-by-word below each relevant line).

### **Example 3.7:** Shifts in pragmatic meaning in translation (see Figure 3.1)

As part of our commitment to the environment, we offer you the option of re-using your towels.

a. Como muestra de nuestra dedicación a la preservación del medio ambiente,

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| *nosotros* | le ofrecemos | la opción de volver | a usar sus toallas |
| we | to-you offer-1pp | the option of again | to use your towels |

b. Como muestra de nuestra dedicación a la preservación del medio ambiente,

| | |
|---|---|
| [ø] le ofrecemos | la opción de volver a usar sus toallas |
| [ø] to-you offer-1pp | the option of again to use your towels |

[1] I thank Ana Carvalho for this example.

c. Como parte do nosso compromisso com o meio ambiente,
<u>*nos*</u> oferecemos-lhe a opção de reutilizar suas toalhas
we offer-3pp-to you the option of re-use your towels

d. Como parte do nosso compromisso com o meio ambiente,
[ø] oferecemos-lhe a opção de reutilizar suas toalhas
[ø] offer-3pp-to you the option of re-use your towels

In Example 3.7, the difference between the target sentences (a) and (c) on the one hand and (b) and (d) on the other is the subject pronoun *nosotros* and *nos* 'we' in (a) and (c). The presence of this subject pronoun (vs. the unmarked omission in (b) and (d)) implies new, contrasting information, meaning that this hotel (we) is different from others, by offering the option of re-using these towels. This interpretation was not the one intended by the commissioner, nor by the writer of the translation, who most likely did not want the target text to serve as an explicit piece of advertisement and comparison with competitors, but simply as an informational and advocacy piece on the environment.

Now that we understand the difference between syntactic and pragmatic functions and the implications this has for translation, we discuss pragmatic areas of study such as speech acts and presuppositions, both of significant relevance for translation.

## 3.3 Speech acts

The term "speech act" refers to the actions we perform with words. As seen in Example 3.8, when we use language, we are often doing things such as stating facts (a), promising (b), requesting (c), ordering (d), advising (e), declaring (f), etc.

### Example 3.8: Speech acts

a. The trash is full
b. I promise I will not do this again
c. Would you mind bringing me some water?

d. Help me with the table
e. I would not hire that applicant
f. I declare you husband and wife

Speech acts consist of locutionary, illocutionary and perlocutionary acts. The locutionary act is made up of the linguistic form of the sentence (is it a statement, question, imperative?); the illocutionary act refers to the intentions or purpose of the person making the speech act; the perlocutionary act, on the other hand, is the effect or consequence of the act on the receiver. For instance, in Example 3.8 (c) the **locutionary act** consists of a question asking whether someone is bothered by bringing the speaker water; the **illocutionary act** is a request for the receiver to bring water to the sender; the **perlocutionary act** will depend on how the listener responds to the request. One possibility is that in fact he/she brings water to the sender (taking it as a request for action). Another one is that the listener chooses to ignore the request and responds only to the locutionary force, answering yes or no, but not responding to the call for action. A third is that the request is ignored; consequently, the speech act failed to achieve the purpose of the illocutionary act.

In translation terms, one can think of the locutionary act as the linguistic form; the illocutionary act as the function intended by the writer or the translator on the basis of the translation instructions; and the perlocutionary act as the effect the act has on the reader/listener of the source speech act and that of the target text. When the perlocutionary act is that intended by the function specified in the translation brief, one can consider that to be a pragmatically adequate/successful translation or target text.

Practice 3.2 will help you apply these concepts to some examples.

### **Practice 3.2:** Speech acts

Let us go back and consider the examples in Example 3.8. We have provided the locutionary, illocutionary and perlocutionary acts for (a–b–c). What would be the locutionary, illocutionary and perlocutionary acts for (d–e–f)?

| Sentence | Locutionary act | Illocutionary act | Perlocutionary act |
|---|---|---|---|
| | Form | Function | Effect |
| a. | statement | inform | transmission of information |
| b. | statement | promise | believe and accept intention to change on part of sender |
| c. | question | request | compliance with request |

## Commentary

For (d), "Help me with the table," the locutionary act is an imperative, the illocutionary act is a command, and the perlocutionary act would be what the receiver does, hopefully to act according to the command.

For (e), "I would not hire that applicant," the locutionary act is a statement, the illocutionary act is a suggestion, and the perlocutionary act would be that the receiver considers this advice seriously (he/she may or may not decide to follow it). Notice that, depending on the situation and speakers involved (e.g., if this is a boss addressing a subordinate), this suggestion could in fact be a command.

Finally, in (f), "I declare you husband and wife," the locutionary act is a statement, the illocutionary act is a declaration, and the perlocutionary act consists of the marriage being carried out.

| Sentence | Locutionary act | Illocutionary act | Perlocutionary act |
|---|---|---|---|
| | Form | Function | Effect |
| d. | imperative | command | receiver acts according to command |
| e. | statement | suggestion | consider this advice |
| f. | statement | declaration | couple is married |

Frequently, the speaker/writer formulating a speech act does not say explicitly what he/she is trying to achieve. These speech acts are known as **indirect speech acts**. Some are conventional in that they resort to conventionalized, formulaic, language-specific expressions, while others depend on extra-linguistic knowledge and **implicatures** to obtain their illocutionary force (function). “Do you have the time?” and “Would you mind bringing me some water?” (above) are examples of conventional indirect requests. Some additional examples of conventional speech acts are provided in Example 3.9. They all contain formulaic structures that are used commonly in English to express a request (“would you,” “I would like. . .”) or a suggestion (“Why don’t you. . .”).

### **Example 3.9:** Conventional indirect speech acts

Would you be so kind as to turn the air-conditioning down? (request)
[at a bar] I would like a soda, please. (request)
Why don’t you try opening the packet at the other end? (suggestion)

“The trash is full” in Example 3.8 (a) can also be an indirect speech act, if the speaker is trying to tell the listener to take out the trash. In this case, the illocutionary force would not be the result of a conventional expression, but would depend on the extra-linguistic context.

Conventional speech acts are important in translation practice because the translator needs to recognize their force and intent in order to formulate the necessary and adequate (although not always exactly equivalent) force required by the translation brief in the target language. As seen in the sentences in Example 3.8, mismatches occur between locutionary and illocutionary force, that is, between form and function in all languages. Instances of mismatches are of course even more frequent in cross-linguistic contexts. Consider Example 3.10.

### **Example 3.10:** Locutionary vs. illocutionary force

Host: Why don’t you take more chicken?
Guest: It does taste good. I guess I’ll have some more.

Imagine this source text is a segment of a play in which the host and guests are having dinner. The locutionary act is simply a question (asking for information), but the illocutionary act is actually an invitation for the guest to serve herself more chicken. In this fragment, the perlocutionary force is the acceptance of the invitation, as the guest decides to take some more chicken.

For a translator, it is crucial to understand these elements of the source text. On the basis of the brief (which in this example would require the translator to reproduce the same type of interaction – polite invitation to eat/polite acceptance), the translator needs to decide what form (locutionary act) is used to express this type of request (illocutionary act, function) in the target language and target culture. Acquisition scholars tell us that language students often make pragmatic mistakes due to their not having acquired full pragmatic proficiency in the second language. This also happens to translators who may fail to consider pragmatic aspects (i.e., the translation brief) beyond the form of the source. For instance, in some languages, like Spanish, the form of the conventional English request formula 'Why don't you...?' does not have the same illocutionary force, i.e., a suggestion; rather, it is a request for information. Failing to consider this when translating the request in Example 3.10 results in (a) in Example 3.11, which does not make sense when juxtaposed with *La verdad es que está bueno. Me voy a poner más*. On the other hand, the translation in Example 3.11 (b), *Sírvete más pollo, por favor*, which considers illocutionary force (regardless of form), is a more appropriate rendering of the illocutionary force of the English source and a more appropriate prompt for the response provided.

### **Example 3.11:** Unintended shifts in pragmatic (illocutionary) force

a. *¿Por qué no te sirves más pollo? (question)*
   Why don't to-you serve-you more chicken?
   *La verdad es que está bueno. Me voy a poner más. (????)*
   The truth is that is-3ps good. To-me am going to put more

b. *Sírvete más pollo, por favor (suggestion)*
   'serve-you more chicken, please'
   *La verdad es que está bueno. Me voy a poner más.*
   The truth is that is-3ps good. To-me am going to put more

The example in Example 3.11 involves written language. One can imagine a source text similar to that of Example 3.10 in an oral context where there is an interpreter present (e.g., dinner with foreign business executives). In this case, failure to consider the differences in locutionary force in English and Spanish to express an invitation (illocutionary force) would result in an undesirable perlocutionary effect, or unintended response, such as in Example 3.12 (b).

**Example 3.12:** Pragmatic shifts: Unintended perlocutionary effect

a. *¿Por qué no te sirves más pollo? (question)*
   Why don't to-you serve-you more chicken?
b. porque estoy llena
   because I am full (informative answer)

Example 3.13 contains a similar example in Chinese.

**Example 3.13:** (Intended) pragmatic shifts: Polite request vs. order

a. 女先生且罷論 'lady teacher just stop talking'
b. Will the lady teacher please stop a moment [Li's translation]?
c. Stop it, lady teacher [Pratt and Chiang's translation]

(Wang [2009: 218])

The example is from *Fusheng Liu*, an autobiography from the Chinese scholar Shen Fu (1763–1825), as presented by Wang (2009: 218). (a) contains the original Chinese text and Wang's gloss. (b) is from the translation by Li in Shen (1999) and (c) contains Pratt and Chiang's translation in Shen (1983). Chinese has a preference for direct requests with the imperative, as in (c), deference being expressed through other methods, such as address terms, lexical forms, etc. Thus, a translator who does not consider the pragmatic force of the source and the one required by the target will often produce an unintended shift in the request, generally too direct for English readers, as in (c). The translation in (b) is better aligned with English norms regarding the formulation of a polite request.

Note that Example 3.13 involves literary translation. Literary translation differs from other types with respect to the nature of the text – an artistic text with intrinsic value, beyond communication – and the intentions of the translator. In Example 3.13, the translation in (c) was not unintended by Pratt and Chiang – it was not the result of pragmatic unawareness on the part of the translators. As Wang points out, Pratt and Chiang's intention (in contrast with Li's) was not to create a reader-oriented translation, but to bring the reader closer to the uniqueness of the source text – an artistic work from a significantly different culture. Their goal was to produce "the most intelligible fidelity of the original" through what is often referred to as a foreignizing translation. One way in which this approach is reflected in their translation is their tendency to retain direct requests.

In Practice 3.3 we include an additional opportunity to work through the issues of pragmatic force and pragmatic shifts.

### **Practice 3.3:** Pragmatic shifts

The following excerpt is from an opinion page by Alina Simone that appeared in the *New York Times* on January 20, 2014 (accessed online on the same date). She is talking about the question "How are you?" in American English:

> The question in question is, "How are you?" The answer Americans give, of course, is, "Fine." But when Russians hear this they think one of two things: (1) you've been granted a heavenly reprieve from the wearisome grind that all but defines the human condition and as a result are experiencing a rare and sublime moment of fineness or (2) you are lying. Ask a Russian, "How are you?" and you will hear, for better or worse, the truth. A blunt pronouncement of dissatisfaction punctuated by, say, the details of any recent digestive troubles. I have endured many painful minutes of elevator silence after my grandmother (who lived in the Soviet Union until moving to the United States in her 60s) delivered her stock response: "Terrible," to which she might add, "Why? Because being old is terrible." Beat. "And I am very old." Cue desperate thumbing of the "door open" button. . .
>
> The thing most Russians don't realize is that, in English, "How are you?" isn't a question at all, but a form of "Hi," like the Russian "Privyet!"

The Americans weren't responsible for its transformation; that honor goes to the British.

How would you describe the situation in Simone's text in terms of locutionary and illocutionary force? Hint: What is the locutionary act and the illocutionary force of "How are you?" in English? What is the illocutionary force of a similar question in Russian?

### Commentary

Although the text above may sound somewhat stereotypical, it is a good illustration of the points made here. While "How are you?" in English is a question (locutionary act), its illocutionary force is not asking for information regarding the person's well-being. It is a salutation that requires a formulaic answer, along the lines of "Well, thank you. How are you?" In Russian, the closest linguistic equivalent (the same locutionary act) is a true question, requesting information; in other words, the locutionary force in Russian is a request for information.

The Russian speaker in the excerpt is focusing on linguistic form, rather than pragmatic function (locutionary force). As a result, the illocutionary effect intended by the English speaker (to say "Hi!") failed. In this case, this was probably due to deficient language proficiency (or maybe an attempt at humor!); however, similar situations arise in translated texts due to an unawareness of pragmatic purposes and excessive focus on linguistic form.

In sum, a translation that does not consider the translation brief and context of situation (including the characteristics of the audience) runs the risk of transferring only the locutionary force (word-by-word) and therefore of failing to capture the necessary illocutionary force, which would of course result in a deviation in the perlocutionary force (effect).

As mentioned above, some speech acts are not conventional, and there is nothing in the linguistic input that explicitly indicates their force or intent. Their interpretation depends on extra-linguistic elements (situation, participant, world knowledge) and on what is known in the pragmatics literature as implicatures. In order to understand implicatures, one needs to ask a crucial question: If so much is implicit in conversation and in speech acts, how do speakers manage to communicate so efficiently? A scholar of pragmatics, Paul Grice, proposes that it is because of an unstated principle of cooperation shared by those engaged in communication, known as the Cooperative Principle. Listeners and speakers agree to speak cooperatively so that the conversation can be carried forward; it is because of this desire to act cooperatively (to abide by the Cooperative Principle) that efficient communication is achieved in common social situations. When a participant is not cooperative, consciously or unconsciously, as, for instance, when a person talks excessively, with too much unnecessary detail, the result is failed or inefficient communication.

The Cooperative Principle consists of four more specific principles, known as Grice's (conversational) maxims: the quantity, quality, relevance and manner maxims. The maxim of **quantity** requires that sufficient (and not excessive) information is provided for communication; **quality** demands that the information is true; **relevance** assumes that the participants' contributions to communication will be relevant and related to the previous turns; and **manner** requires that the presentation be clear and organized. When one of these maxims is flouted, the receivers interpret the flouting as purposeful; namely, it is understood that the sender is trying to achieve an alternative communicative purpose. This inference is known as an implicature. For instance, consider the exchange in Example 3.14.

### **Example 3.14:** Implicature

A: How's your boyfriend?
B: It is going to rain soon, don't you think?

The maxim of relevance has been flouted, as (B) answers a question about her boyfriend with a reference to the rain. Since the assumption is that (B) is still respectful of the Cooperative Principle and of the maxim of relevance, the implicature is that (B) is indicating that she does not want to talk about her boyfriend.

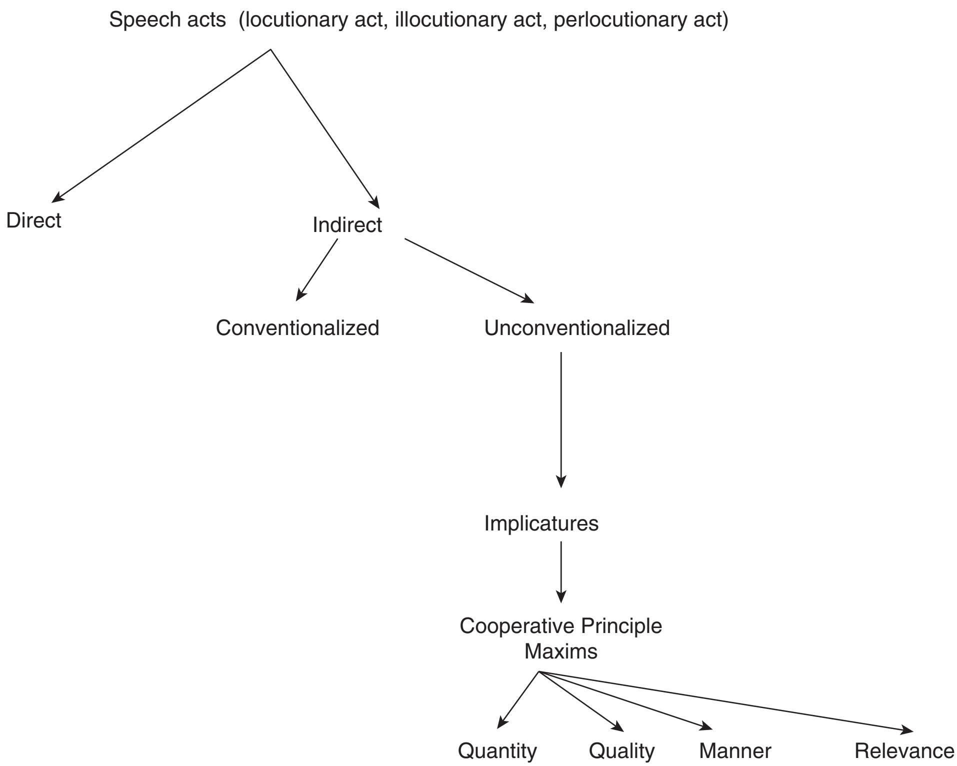



**Figure 3.2** Speech acts.

Implicatures highlight the fact that successful communication requires a shared understanding of the world and social conventions. Furthermore, although the existence of the Cooperative Principle and some maxims is not under debate, some authors have argued that the maxims of quantity, quality, relevance and manner have a Western bias and are therefore culture-specific, rather than universal. This possibility highlights an even greater role of culture and pragmatics in cross-cultural communication and in translation. Thus, as stated at the beginning of this chapter, pragmatics and, more specifically, speech act theory serve to articulate one aspect of the importance of cultural knowledge in translation. Figure 3.2 summarizes the main types of speech act.

We should not forget that, while the speech act examples provided so far have consisted of small excerpts (for illustrative purposes), speech acts can vary in size. Some scholars prefer to refer to text acts (cf. text types in

Chapter 4) to stress the idea that texts often consist of various speech acts with different priorities, serving various goals within the overall intention of the text.

The acquisition of pragmatic competence is known to be one of the most challenging areas of language acquisition. As mentioned above, language learners, even those with very advanced proficiency, may make mistakes involving implicatures and other sociopragmatic assumptions, especially in the area of indirectness, because so much depends upon extra-linguistic knowledge and implicit cues. The breakdown and failure of cross-cultural communication often can be traced back to pragmatic errors.

Pragmatic variation within the same language and among native speakers (e.g., English in America, Europe, India, Australia, etc.) poses another challenge, especially because of the assumption that the same language is spoken by all.

In sum, pragmatics is, in and of itself, a complex area of interaction between the linguistic and non-linguistic elements in language. When put into the context of translation, the picture that emerges is even more complex. In addition to the difficulties involved in acquiring pragmatic competence in more than one language, translation-specific factors can pose additional challenges for the translator, as we will see in the next section. However, before that, a few words are in order now with regard to one aspect of pragmatics closely related to speech acts: **politeness.**

How we do things with words is highly dependent on the interlocutors or readers and their power relations, which in turn determine politeness and distance. Politeness is closely connected to speech acts because of the role that indirectness plays in representing social distance. In other words, indirectness tends to be greater with social distance. For a speech act to achieve its perlocutionary force and thus achieve its goal, the necessary level of politeness must be used.

In cross-linguistic, cross-cultural situations, the degree of politeness varies significantly, not only with regard to linguistic markers and how politeness is captured by means of linguistic forms, but also with regard to the participants in the interaction and their roles. For instance, some cultures show more deference to elders than others; children also address parents differently depending on culture. Since translation is a cross-linguistic activity that tries to attain a specific purpose in the target language, the expression of politeness becomes crucial to its goals.

Given significant, cross-linguistic differences, politeness is one area where the target text can be considered independently of the source text, yet still within the context of the translation instructions. Target-text politeness serves to highlight the importance of referring to the brief for making decisions and the relative, complex nature of equivalence. When it comes to the expression of politeness in a target text, the source text becomes secondary, since politeness has to be evaluated with regard to the target language and target-culture norms (showing that equivalence is definitely trivial in such cases, and, if it does occur, it is as a consequence of target-text demands). We will deal again with the topic of politeness in Chapter 6 with respect to the social aspects of translation. In what follows, we consider how knowledge of the world plays a role in the interpretation of the pragmatic force of utterances and speech acts.

## 3.4 Presuppositions

Another area of pragmatics in which knowledge of the world becomes important for meaning creation has to do with presuppositions.

As illustrated in Example 3.15, **presupposition** refers to knowledge shared between the writer and the reader that is marked as given in the text.

### **Example 3.15:** Presuppositions

Why do you work so hard? (presupposition: you work hard)
Why don't you like me? (presupposition: you don't like me)

In cross-cultural situations, presuppositions rooted in the source culture that do not match those of the recipient culture may result in misunderstandings or incomplete comprehension. Consider the situations in Examples 3.16 and 3.17. (These are actual situations.)

**Example 3.16:** Cross-cultural mismatches: Presuppositions

For Sale by Owner [a sign on a house for sale]

Presupposition: People who are not the owner could be selling the house under contract for the owner, such as a real estate company.

Comment (by a foreign student recently arrived in the United States): "How could anyone who does not own something attempt to sell it? Who could be trying to sell it, someone who stole it or took possession of it?"

In Example 3.16 the presupposition entailed by the sign – that a financial or for-profit entity could be the seller – may not be common knowledge in some cultures. Similarly, some speakers not familiar with certain types of financing and ownership in the United States, or who do not know about real estate sales, may not share the knowledge presupposed in Example 3.16.

**Example 3.17:** Cross-cultural mismatches: Presuppositions

100% cheese [on a package of cheese]

Presupposition: Some products called cheese are not all cheese, as they contain additives and other ingredients added during their manufacture.

Comment (by a foreign student recently arrived in the United States): "What other types of cheese are there? Isn't cheese just cheese?"

In Example 3.17, the confusion is due also to a mismatch between the knowledge presupposed by the writer and that possessed by a reader from another culture, in this case, one in which processed cheese and cheese-products are not commonplace.

Translation situations often involve presupposition mismatches like the ones described above. In many cases, the knowledge shared by the writer and the readers of the source text is not shared by the readers of the translation. This is of course a consequence of the fact that the readers of the translation are not those the writer was writing for (with the exception of texts written to be translated). This frequently applies to specialized texts (expert knowledge) or culturally bound texts.

The translator is in charge of assessing the potential types of mismatch and whether it is possible to overcome them within the context of translation. When that is not feasible, some other form of cross-cultural communication may be called for (see Chapter 1, section 4).

If not addressed in the translation, the mismatch in presupposed knowledge may have an impact on the coherence of the text and successful communication. (Think, for instance, about technical texts translated by non-experts.)

One textual genre where presuppositions play a crucial role is advertising. Because of this, many advertisements do not lend themselves well to translation – we are all familiar with examples of translation bloopers in advertising. In some cases, the mismatch simply is a matter of audience, but in advertising, of course, the audience is crucial. Let us see a few examples.

Consider the presuppositions behind the advertising slogans (a) and (b) in Example 3.18.

**Example 3.18:** Presuppositions in advertising

a. We make it like you'd make it. (spaghetti sauce ad)
b. Is your breakfast a naturally good source of vitamin D? (egg ad)

The writer of the ad in (a) is relying upon the reader sharing with him/her an appreciation for a homemade spaghetti sauce, while assuming that the reader makes better sauce than the factory-made one. In (b), the assumptions are that the reader eats breakfast (or agrees that he/she should eat breakfast) and that vitamins are important. These presuppositions are important in terms of shared values, comprehension and textual cohesion (as shown in Examples 3.16 and 3.17 above), but also in terms of defining and targeting the ads to the right audience.

Presuppositions tell us much about audience. In advertising, inadequately targeting an audience can mean failure for a campaign or product. In Example 3.18 the presuppositions tell us that the audience for (a) consists of people who cook and who value home cooking, but also saving time; for (b), the audience is those who eat breakfast and eat healthily. While the translation of these ads into many languages may not be linguistically or conceptually problematic, publishing a translation of these ads in cultures or publications where the readers do not eat spaghetti sauce, home cooking is looked down upon (perhaps because only servants cook) or breakfast and vitamins are not important will not be very effective. In sum, awareness of presuppositions in the context of translation and cross-linguistic communication is crucial to the quality of a translation, but even more so to its potential for being effective as a medium of cross-cultural communication. This awareness also highlights the value of the communicative context, the participants, and their characteristics and knowledge, beyond textual and linguistic form.

## 3.5 The non-linguistic context

This chapter emphasized the role of the extra-linguistic context in language use and meaning creation, separately from any specific language or cross-linguistic activity involved. Context is extremely important for making sense of language. When speakers use language in real-life situations, generally they do not need to be made aware of this.

However, when the task is translation, we often encounter language use and texts that appear to focus on the linguistic form to the detriment of the context and its extra-linguistic factors. While the reasons for this may be multiple, depending on the case, frequently the source of the problem can be found in the traditional focus on equivalence and linguistic structure, both in translation studies and translation pedagogy. In some cases, of course, it is the commissioner of the translation who, not entirely familiar with the process of translation, separates the text sent to the translator from the situation in which it is to be used.

Figures 3.3 and 3.4 present examples of translations for which the physical context was not sufficiently considered. In Figure 3.3, the writer of the English text wants readers to grab a plastic bag from the crate where this text was posted and use it for shopping. The target text, however, instructs readers to approach someone (supposedly an employee) and ask to borrow a bag (*pide prestado*). The Spanish phrase *pedir prestado* ‘to borrow’ is a common dictionary equivalent of the English term, but not the one that fits the physical and locational context here, as there are no employees next to the bag, and the bags are in a crate for


**Figure 3.3** The non-linguistic context in translation: Yellow bag.

customers to grab. Had the situation surrounding the location of the sign been given more consideration in the mind of the translator, the translation might have been different.

In Figure 3.4, the English term ‘set’ appears in the Spanish target text as *gire* ‘turn.’ The problem arises when the Spanish reader tries to follow these instructions to set the refrigerator controls, as there is no knob or dial that could be turned, only a toggle mechanism. In this case, one can imagine that the source of the problem was that the Spanish translator did not see the refrigerator when translating, only the source text. In sum, one of the readers of the source text (the translator) was not presented with the same context for the sample of language to be translated as the other two readers, i.e., the reader of the source and the reader of the translation. A translation commissioner who did not provide the translator with enough contextual information about the refrigerator is only partly responsible for a less than effective translation. The rest of the

**Setting controls**
Set Deepfreeze® control to 4.
Set Fresh Food control to 4.
Wait 24 hours for Fresh Food and Deepfreeze® sections to reach desired temperatures.

If desired temperatures are not reached after 24 hours, adjust controls, one number at a time. 1 is warmest setting and 7 is coldest.

**Controles de ajuste**
**Gire** el control Deepfreeze® a 4.
**Gire** el control de alimentos frescos a 4.
Espere 24 horas hasta que las secciones de alimentos frescos y Deepfreeze® alcancen las temperaturas deseadas.
Si después de 24 horas no se alcanzan las temperaturas deseadas, ajuste los controles, un sólo número a la vez. El 1 es el ajuste menos frío y el 7 el más frío.

**Réglage des commandes**
Régler la commande Deepfreeze® à 4.
Régler la commande aliments frais à 4.
Attendre 24 heures jusqu'à ce que les sections Deepfreeze® et Fresh Food aient atteint les températures désirées.
Si les températures désirées ne sont pas atteintes au bout de 24 heures, régler les commandes, un chiffre à la fois. 1 correspond à la température la plus chaude et 7 à la plus froid.

**Figure 3.4** The non-linguistic context in translation: Refrigerator instructions.

responsibility probably falls on a translator not well-attuned to the context of situation and its effect on translation, and who did not ask such questions as "What if this little part is not a knob? What if it does not turn? What does it in fact look like?" In contrast, the French translation chooses a more neutral term, *régler* 'adjust,' that doesn't imply a knob. A similar strategy would have worked well in Spanish too.

Figure 3.5 and Figure 3.6 contain similar examples. In Figure 3.5 the notice in the picture advertises audiotapes to aid and guide the tourist without the presence of a tour guide. Had this information been considered, the translation would have reflected the reality of the service offered more accurately. "Automatic guide" leaves the English reader wandering what type of guide or device this is.

In Figure 3.6, Spanish, English and Catalan use some form of "press," normally associated with buttons to operate mechanical equipment; French, however, goes


**Figure 3.5** The non-linguistic context in translation: Automatic guide.

for “play,” often associated with buttons and music (e.g., play button, play music), but not with the type of button present in this particular context.

In sum, understanding the role of pragmatics in language and translation is crucial to translation practice: It brings to the foreground the importance of the non-linguistic aspects of language use that are essential for accomplishing communication goals. In addition, pragmatic awareness serves to articulate a


**Figure 3.6** The non-linguistic context in translation: Play button.

more realistic notion of translation that goes beyond words and beyond the simplistic notion of equivalence. While many have pointed at the reality that translation is more than words, pragmatics allows the student and practitioner to understand and articulate this concept.

Pragmatic awareness also forces the language professional to consider translation as one of various options on a cross-linguistic continuum: Translation may not be the appropriate communication strategy to meet the requirements and the function specified in the translation brief.

On an educational level, the need for high levels of bilingual pragmatic competence for the translator is clear. At the same time, second-language research shows that pragmatic competence is probably one of the most challenging areas in L2 acquisition. Pragmatic competence is always at stake in translation regardless of directionality, whether in connection with the comprehension of the source text or in the creating of the target text.

In this chapter, we talked about pragmatics and pragmatic competence with relation to the writer, the reader and the translator, and with regard to their knowledge of language and language functions. We also considered speech acts, indirect speech acts, presuppositions and functions of language. The next chapter expands on this information and takes it to the level of the text, looking at language in context at the textual level, examining textual functions and identifying how information flows in the text, as well as the role that all of this plays in translation.

## Summary

Pragmatics is of vital importance to translation practice for a variety of reasons: It highlights the significance of the extra-linguistic context, including the function of the target text, the audience and its characteristics (age, education, social position, etc.), as well as its knowledge of the world, culture, etc. Within this context, the notion of equivalence reveals itself as an overgeneralization, too simple and general to be of use in real translation tasks.

Speech acts refer to the actions that we accomplish with words. The linguistic form of a speech act constitutes the locutionary act, the function intended is the illocutionary force (request, directive, threat, etc.) and the perlocutionary force has to do with the result/response. When the linguistic form does not match the perlocutionary act, we talk about indirect speech acts. These can be conventionalized (e.g., Would you mind...? = request in English) or unconventional. Unconventional speech acts rely on the context of situation more than conventional ones, as their interpretation depends on the purposeful flouting of agreed-upon norms (quality, quantity, relevance, manner). The relation between form and speech act (locutionary and perlocutionary acts) varies across languages. Awareness of these differences is essential in a translation context.

The interpretation of presuppositions relies on the assumption of shared knowledge between sender and receiver. Shared knowledge becomes crucial in translation tasks in which the readers of the translation are not the same as those of the source text. It also highlights the complexity of the translation task. The separation from the physical context of the source text as well as the target text also poses challenges for a context-based translation. Armed with a good understanding of basic notions of pragmatics and their relevance in a cross-linguistic communication setting, translators and language professionals should be in a good position to make informed decisions in cross-linguistic, cross-cultural communicative tasks.

## Key words

Pragmatics, pragmatic functions vs. grammatical functions, speech act, indirect speech act, implicature, conversational maxims, locutionary, illocutionary and perlocutionary acts, Cooperative Principle, quantity, quality, relevance (maxims of), presupposition, politeness.

## Exercises

### Exercise 1

Imagine you are talking to someone who is bilingual but naive about how language works.

(a) How would you explain to this person what pragmatics is about?
(b) How would you explain that translation is about more than just words?

### Exercise 2

List the reasons why pragmatics is of vital importance to translation practice. Can you think of any others? Use examples from your own language/experience.

### Exercise 3

One could say that pragmatics validates the use of the translation brief as the criterion for making decisions about the target text. Why?

### Exercise 4

In pragmatics, the nature of the illocutionary act is not affected by the perlocutionary act. In other words, a request continues to be a request whether the receiver interprets it as such or not. In translation, however, the perlocutionary act is important. Explain why.

**Exercise 5**

Find a text (between 200 and 500 words) and identify three presuppositions.

**Exercise 6**

Explain one example of a mismatch between syntactic and pragmatic functions in a language you know. Discuss potential implications for translation.

**Exercise 7**

The question asked by (A) below could be answered in various ways. Each of the answers provided (i–iii) corresponds to a different illocutionary force for the speech act performed by (A). Indicate what the illocutionary act is for each answer (i–iii) and how the receiver could come to that interpretation.

A: Do you know what time it is?
B: (i) Yes, I know.
(ii) Five thirty.
(iii) I am sorry: I was so busy that I forgot to check my watch.

**Exercise 8**

Identify the presuppositions in the following sentences:

a. Survey your child's allergy risk.
b. Sleep better on a bed that adjusts to both of you.
c. You can't protect your kids from an unsupervised pool.
d. Can your life insurance help pay for his dream of college?

**Exercise 9**

For each presupposition in Exercise 8, discuss whether that could, in some situations or cultures, create difficulties for translation, and to what extent. Would it be better to accomplish the purpose behind these ads through some other form of cross-cultural communication?

## Further reading

Baker (2014) (chapter 7) is devoted to pragmatic equivalence in translation and includes many translation examples in non-Western languages such as Arabic. Baker (2001) offers an introduction to the same concepts seen in this chapter from the perspective of translation studies. Levinson (1983) and Yule (1996) are introductory textbooks in pragmatics for linguists or generalists, and/or students who would like an introduction to this field of research. The well-known linguistics textbook *Language Files* (2004) includes a beginner's introduction to basic concepts in pragmatics in chapter 8.

# 4 Texts and translation

## 4.0 INTRODUCTION

As seen in Chapter 3, pragmatics studies language with regard to its non-linguistic context; in other words, it studies how language is interpreted on the basis of shared knowledge, the characteristics of the sender and receiver, and the extra-linguistic context. In Chapter 3 the focus was on pragmatics in general, without reference to any specific unit of language. This chapter shows that pragmatics is also crucially relevant to textual units.

Different scholars and scholarly traditions use the term "text" in slightly different ways. This book, guided by preeminently practical purposes, views text in the more traditional sense of a linguistic unit made up of interconnected sentences. When a unit is presented as a text, readers try to interpret it as such, finding connections between the sentences, through various textual features. Generally, these features have to do with how information progresses through the text (i.e., information flow) – topics are maintained or dropped, and connections are established through linguistic markers and connectors; and with underlying relationships between sentences and paragraphs.

This chapter presents textual features in the detail necessary for elucidating translation practice, and, more specifically, for the purposes of this book. Starting with the essential distinction between a sequence of sentences and a text, we then examine textual features, that is, those elements that serve to distinguish between texts and non-texts and that give texts their identity (i.e., topic maintenance and continuity, information structure, coherence and cohesion). Section 4.3 examines text types and genres, and 4.4 looks at textual analysis, parallel texts and corpora. All throughout the chapter we show how these issues are relevant to translation.

## 4.1 Sentences vs. texts

A text is more than a concatenation of sentences or even of paragraphs. It is not unusual to encounter written units that look like texts on the surface, but that make little sense. In other cases, a text that contains no grammatical mistakes may not flow well or may be difficult to follow. These are "texts" that do not conform to the expected textual features for a particular language or culture. Figure 4.1 contains an example of one of these so-called "texts." It is the description found on the back cover of a bootleg CD for a movie.

One can come across atypical texts in a variety of situations, such as in second- or foreign-language contexts and in translation.

In second- and foreign-language learning, defective texts are usually a consequence of incomplete acquisition/learning and could be related to various areas of competence (syntax, pragmatics, lexicon, etc.). Young or adult native

> Captain America is frozen in a few years later, wake up. The world if not what he used to familiar appearance, various types of evil opponent to emerge in an endless stream, the whole society, turbulent, sheet relies on a person's power to unable to save the world. So the United States of America captain, iron man, Thor, the hulk and other super heroes together, consisting of the history of the most powerful Avengers team, the common good an evil, fighting for peace. Stocks come unexpectedly powerful evil forces on earth caused a deadly threat, no a super hero alone can resist. Long-term commitment to protecting the global safety shield board (SHIELD) was the commander be taken by surprise.

**Figure 4.1** Non-text.

speakers (e.g., heritage speakers, uneducated monolinguals), who are often fully competent in oral forms of the language, may also produce flawed texts, in most cases, due to a lack of textual/writing proficiency in the language. This is because, while children generally acquire overall linguistic competence (how to pronounce the language, how to make correct sentences) without instruction, textual competence has to be taught. Thus, it is not unusual for adults who are bilinguals educated only in one language, monolingual adults who have not had a formal education or children who have not yet completed it to lack the textual proficiency required to produce an adequate text.

Flawed texts that are the outcome of a translation process can result from a combination of all or several of the above factors. Nevertheless, translators who are otherwise in possession of the necessary linguistic and textual competence in the source and target languages also produce non-texts or texts without "texture," that is, texts that are flawed with regard to their textual features. Often, the reason lies in the fact that the translator approaches the translation task as a translation of a series of sentences, rather than a text with its own textual features. As we will show in this chapter, textual features normally have to be re-created according to the translation brief and textual norms and features for the target language. Disregard of this component often results in target texts that do not meet the functional or pragmatic requirements of the translation brief because textual features frequently do not correspond across languages (even for the same text type and function). Practice 4.1 guides you through an example of a "non-text," lacking texture. It explains how to alter it so that it contains adequate textual features.

### **Practice 4.1:** Texts and non-texts

The following text is not written according to textual standards in English; in other words, it is missing some elements that give it its texture. How would you revise it to make it an acceptable text?

Eating well can be healthy and easy

Choose different foods from each of the food groups. Different types of food give our bodies different vitamins and minerals we need. Eat balanced meals. They have protein, starch and non-starchy vegetables. If you need to lose weight, choose the lower number of servings from the Food Pyramid. (Adapted from Health and Wellness brochure, Molina Healthcare)

### Commentary

Although various ways of doing this are possible, introducing markers that show a temporal sequence is helpful; thus using "first," "next," or "first," "then," etc., with the ideas of variety and balance in a diet aid in the textual flow. Some type of connector is also needed between the third and fourth sentences, explaining how the two ideas are related. In this case, we chose: "What is a balanced meal?" Consider how these suggestions compare with alternatives you may have thought of.

Eating well can be healthy and easy

First, choose different foods from each of the food groups. Different types of foods give our bodies different vitamins and minerals we need. Next, eat balanced meals. What is a balanced meal? It has protein, starch and non-starchy vegetables. If you need to lose weight, choose the lower number of servings from the Food Pyramid.

[Excerpt from Health and Wellness brochure, Molina Healthcare]

In sum, in this section, we examined the difference between a sequence of sentences and a text, providing an overall perspective on the issue. In section 4.2, we look at the differences in more detail, considering the features that define a text.

## 4.2 Textual features

For a sequence of sentences to qualify as a textual unit, the unit must cohere. Coherence consists of the meaning and pragmatic relations that underlie a text and that give it unity, meaning and purpose. Some linguistic forms and expressions, known as cohesive devices, are used to help the reader establish the coherence necessary to make sense of the text. In addition, for a text to cohere, the reader must be able to trace referents and topics throughout the text (topic maintenance and continuity), and to follow the flow of information, from old information to new information, relating the new contributions of the text to what is already known (information structure). Topic maintenance and continuity, information structure, and coherence and cohesion are the subtopics of this section on textual features.

## Topic maintenance and continuity

**Topic** refers to the point of orientation of a text and to how this is developed and maintained throughout the text. For an individual sentence, the topic is the point of departure chosen by the author. While the topic of one individual sentence may not be entirely significant for a text, the accumulation of topics, and their development, maintenance and continuity produce a certain orientation in a text. For instance, in an investigative report, as in Example 4.1, a timeline of events, and thus expressions of time and sequentiality, often in initial position in a sentence, known as the **theme** position, provide the orientation for the text. These are shown as the underlined segments in Example 4.1.

### **Example 4.1:** Thematic development: Time orientation

On Monday, December 17, 2012 at approximately 12:20pm at the Fayke Hotel located at 1250 Main Street, Investigators Joe Sample and Jane Sample observed Mr. Example arrive at the hotel in a white convertible. The Investigators observed Mr. Example enter the hotel for roughly a minute, then depart the hotel parking lot. Then Mr. Example was observed arriving nearby in Applebee's Restaurant parking lot at 12:40pm. At nearly the same time, a woman arrived in a Jeep near the hotel entrance. Mr. Example and the woman who arrived in the Jeep entered the red Applebee's Restaurant at approximately 12:45pm. They greeted each other with a kiss. They were in Applebee's Restaurant until approximately 1:25pm. At that time they exited the restaurant and both entered the white convertible. Mr. Example drove the vehicle. At 2:00pm the white convertible arrived at the hotel and parked near a side entrance. Both Mr. Example and the female exited the white car. Mr. Example entered the side door using an electronic access control key (key card). He then waited at the door and opened the door for the female. At 3:20pm the female that accompanied Mr. Example into the hotel exited the hotel. Mr. Example was close behind her. The couple kissed and departed in their respective vehicles.

Excerpt adapted from *Sample Investigation Report* (Versatek Security)

Topics vary depending on the type of text encountered: As seen in Example 4.1, an investigative report crucially relies on temporal expressions. A first-person narrative will be oriented toward the subject, whereas a travel brochure may have place adjuncts in a prominent, thematic position. Example 4.2 contains a travel brochure with place adjuncts underlined.

### **Example 4.2:** Thematic development in a travel brochure: Place adjunct in theme position

Croatia's Dalmatian Coast enchants with rugged islands, hidden coves, and a rich maritime history dating back to the Venetian Empires. From the walled city of Dubrovnik, the "pearl of the Adriatic," set out by kayak and paddle along secluded inlets laced with limestone cliffs, all framed by turquoise water. On shore, hike through pine forests, fields of wildflowers, and vineyards to visit medieval monasteries and sun-drenched villages. Further north, venture into the lush hills of the Pelješac Peninsula and soak up the lively seafaring tradition of Orebić. The nearby island of Korčula offers more kayaking exploration and a beautifully preserved medieval town. Throughout our island-hopping adventure, discover Croatia's unique history and charm.

[From *National Geographic Adventures*, 2012–2013 Catalog, p. 34]

Thematic progression is a textual element that translators need to be aware of. When the purpose of the translation and other situational factors require a thematic development similar to that of the source text, differences in grammatical structure and other factors may pose challenges for a translator. Since themes tend to be placed in initial position, languages with syntactic requirements restricting word order create translation difficulties. For instance, in a language like English, in which objects cannot normally go before the verb, alternative ways of placing the object as the theme or point of departure must be devised (e.g., passive sentences, lexical changes in verbs). Example 4.3 illustrates this.

### **Example 4.3:** Object as theme in English

a. A blind artist painted this picture here.
b. This picture here was painted by a blind artist.

In (a) the theme is “a blind artist.” Since this is also the subject, it poses no conflict between thematic structure and syntactic structure. However, if the syntactic object of (a) “this picture” needed to be the theme, a different syntactic structure would be required, as normally objects cannot be placed before an active verb in English. One common strategy to accomplish this in English is to use the passive form of the verb, as in (b), “was painted.” Languages with flexible word order allow placement of themes in initial position, regardless of the syntactic function. Example 4.4, from Rogers (2006: 30), is an example of a language with flexible word order – German – which allows objects to be placed before the verb.

### **Example 4.4:** Object as theme in a language with flexible word order

a. Telephonkarten erhalten Sie im Postamt
phone cards receive You in-the post office
b. Phone cards can be purchased in the post office.

In Example 4.4. (a), the theme *Telephonkarten* is also the object of the verb *erhalten*. In German, because of flexible word order, the object can be placed in initial thematic position. This is not possible in English (**telephone cards you get in the post office*), where the word initial position is reserved for the subject. A more usual order such as *You can get telephone cards in the post office* does not preserve the telephone cards as the theme. In (b), a more acceptable solution is shown in which the theme has been made a syntactic subject by the use of a passive verb, so that it can appear word-initially.

Scientific abstracts are also relevant when considering thematic development and word order. Example 4.5 contains two examples.

### **Example 4.5:** Abstract samples and passive verb use

**Ishihara, S. 2011. "Japanese Focus Prosody Revisited: Freeing Focus from Prosodic Phrasing."** ***Lingua*** **121(13): 1870–1889.**

This paper revisits empirical and theoretical problems of focus prosody in Japanese, and proposes a new analysis. Contrary to the widely accepted assumption that focus directly or indirectly modifies prosodic phrasing, various studies have shown that prosodic boundaries remain unchanged when a focus is added to a sentence. <u>It is proposed that</u> phonetic effects of focus (F0-rise on the focused word, and reduction in the post-focal areas) result from manipulations of metrical prominences (addition of focal prominence on the focused word and deletion of head prominences in the post-focal area) that have no effect on prosodic boundaries. In order to allow prominence manipulation while keeping prosodic phrasing intact, <u>two modifications are made</u> to one of the widely accepted Optimality-Theoretic analyses of focus prosody. First, the syntax–prosody alignment constraint <u>will be ranked higher</u>, which allows it to dictate the location of prosodic boundaries. Second, metrical culminativity (one metrical prominence per prosodic constituent) <u>is treated</u> as a violable constraint, and <u>it is proposed</u> that this constraint is low-ranked in Japanese. As a result, Japanese allows multi-headed phrases (when focus adds a prominence), as well as headless prosodic phrases (when focus deletes post-focal prominences).

**Stone, S., Gonzales, R., Maselli, J. and Lowenstein, S.R. 2000. "Antibiotic Prescribing for Patients with Colds, Upper Respiratory Tract Infections, and Bronchitis: A National Study of Hospital-Based Emergency Departments."** ***Annals of Emergency Medicine*** **36(3): 320–327.**

**Methods:** Data were obtained from the 1996 National Hospital Ambulatory Medical Care Survey. Antibiotic prescribing rates were examined for colds, upper respiratory tract infections and acute bronchitis. Patients with comorbid conditions or secondary diagnoses, such as chronic obstructive pulmonary disease, pneumonia, sinusitis and HIV, were excluded. Bivariate and multivariate analyses were used to assess predictors of antibiotic use. **Results:** Overall, there were an estimated 2.7 million ED visits for colds, upper respiratory tract infections, and bronchitis by children and adults in 1996. Antibiotics were prescribed for 24.2% (95% CI 18.9, 29.5) of patients with common colds and upper respiratory tract infections and for 42.2% (95% CI 35.2, 49.2) of patients with bronchitis. There were no significant associations between antibiotic use and patient race, sex, Hispanic ethnicity, geographic location or source of payment. Antibiotics were prescribed less often by interns or residents than by staff or other physicians (odds ratio 0.43; 95% CI 0.19, 0.98), and patients younger than 18 years were less likely to receive antibiotics than adults (odds ratio 0.32; 95% CI 0.20, 0.52). Smokers were 4.3 (95% CI 2.2, 8.3) times more likely to receive antibiotics than nonsmokers. **Conclusion:** Antibiotics are commonly prescribed for ED patients with upper respiratory tract infections even though they are usually ineffective in otherwise healthy adults. Efforts should be made to reduce inappropriate antibiotic use for the sake of containing costs, preventing side effects and limiting the spread of antibiotic resistance.

As seen in Example 4.5, the academic abstract is a genre in which the passive voice is commonly used. This is because of the need to place objects in theme positions, before the verb. Academic abstracts are about findings, about what was done and found, rather than about who did it. Therefore objects need to be in theme position, at the beginning of the sentence, before the verb. Since this position is reserved in English for subjects, a passive sentence that reverses the order and allows for omission of the subject is a good alternative, as in the first sentence of the conclusion in Example 4.5, that is structured as “antibiotics are commonly prescribed” (passive), rather than “they commonly prescribe antibiotics” (active).

Another important aspect of topic continuity has to do with participants and how they are introduced in texts. To make sense of a text, a reader has to be able to identify the participants and any subsequent references to them. Keeping track of participants through discourse may be difficult at times due to how far the new reference is from the last mention of it (referential distance), as well as to competition with other participants that may have been introduced in the meantime.

Languages use a range of linguistic structures to identify participants, which also vary these structures according to referential distance and competition. Generally, the more difficult the participant is to access, the more explicit the reference will be.

For instance, in English it is common to introduce a referent or participant with a full mention the first time. In subsequent mentions, this participant can be referred to by a verb with no pronoun (known as zero anaphora), simple verb agreement, unstressed pronouns, stressed pronouns, definite noun phrases or focused (stressed) noun phrases. Example 4.6 contains the text first introduced in Example 4.1 showing how the participants and referents are introduced and traced. Each referent is identified with a subindex.

### **Example 4.6:** Tracing participants in discourse

On Monday, December 17, 2012 at approximately 12:20pm at the Fayke Hotel located at 1250 Main Street, Investigators Joe Sample and Jane Sample$_1$ observed Mr. Example$_2$ arrive at the hotel in a white convertible$_3$. The Investigators$_1$ observed Mr. Example$_2$ enter the hotel for roughly a minute, then depart the hotel parking lot. Then Mr. Example$_2$ was observed arriving nearby in Applebee’s Restaurant parking lot at 12:40pm. At nearly the same time a woman$_4$ arrived in a Jeep near the hotel entrance. Mr. Example$_2$ and the woman$_4$ who arrived in the Jeep entered the red Applebee’s Restaurant at approximately 12:45pm. They$_{2,4}$ greeted each other with a kiss. They$_{2,4}$ were in Applebee’s Restaurant until approximately 1:25pm. At that time, they$_{2,4}$ exited the restaurant and both$_{2,4}$ entered the white convertible$_3$. Mr. Example$_2$ drove the vehicle. At 2:00pm, the white convertible$_3$ arrived at the hotel and parked near a side entrance. Both Mr. Example$_2$ and the female$_4$ exited the white car. Mr. Example$_2$ entered the side door using an electronic access control key (key card). He$_2$ then waited at the door and opened the door for the female$_4$. At 3:20pm, the female$_4$ that accompanied Mr. Example$_2$ into the hotel exited the hotel. Mr. Example$_2$ was close behind her$_4$. The couple$_{2,4}$ kissed and departed in their respective vehicles.

Excerpt adapted from *Sample Investigation Report* (Versatek Security)

Consider referent 1. The first mention of it is a full mention, "Investigators Joe Sample and Jane Sample," then it is followed by the shorter noun phrase "The Investigators." Referent 2 is first presented as a noun phrase, "Mr. Example," and subsequently referred to in the same sentence with no explicit referent (zero anaphora) because the referential distance is short: "Mr. Example$_2$ enter the hotel for roughly a minute then depart the hotel parking lot." The fourth referent, a woman, is first introduced with a noun phrase and an indefinite article "a woman," and then a definite one, "the woman"; further in the paragraph, Mr. Example and the woman are referred to by means of a collective pronoun, "they."

Example 4.7 contains an additional example of how participants are marked in texts so that readers are able to track them.

## Example 4.7: Tracing participants in discourse

Rachel$_1$ regularly led training groups with a male colleague$_2$. He$_2$ always did all the talking, and she$_1$ was always angry at him$_2$ for dominating$_2$ and not giving$_2$ her$_1$ a chance to say anything. After hearing$_1$ me talk about conversational style, she$_1$ realized what was going on. He$_2$ would begin to answer questions from the group while she$_1$ was still waiting for a slight pause to begin$_1$ answering. And when she$_1$ was in the middle of talking, he$_2$ would jump in – but always when she$_1$ had paused. So she$_1$ tried pushing herself to begin answering question a little sooner than felt$_1$ polite, and not to leave$_1$ long pauses when she$_1$was talking. The result was that she$_1$ talked a lot more and the man$_2$ was as pleased as she$_1$ was. Her supervisor$_3$ complimented her$_1$ on having become$_2$ more assertive.

From Tannen (1986: 169).

"Rachel" and "male colleague," a proper name and a noun phrase, are used to refer to participants 1 and 2 at their first mention. After the first mention, 1 and 2 are identified by means of object or subject pronouns throughout the paragraph, except for a few instances of zero anaphora (identified with double underlining). In these cases, the distance between this reference and the previous one is very short, and there are no other competing referents introduced in this space. For instance, in the sentence "So she$_1$ tried pushing herself$_1$ to begin answering questions a little sooner than felt$_1$ polite," no other referents or participants intervene between "she" (subject pronoun) and "felt" (zero anaphora), both referring to participant 1. In the second-to-last sentence of the paragraph a noun phrase is used again to re-introduce participant 2, "the man$_2$," who has not been present in the text since line 5; in addition, an additional participant, referent 3, is introduced in the last sentence, creating competition in cognitive space and thus providing further justification for the need for a noun phrase.

Exercise 3 at the end of this chapter gives you an opportunity to apply these ideas to an additional text in a translation context.

We have just seen a few examples of how topic continuity is developed and marked in English. Languages, however, vary in how they express topic continuity: they use different syntactic and morphological structures, because of differences in sentence structure, in word order, in the use of explicit pronouns, verb agreement, etc. Variation may also be reflected in the frequency with which the structures are used. For instance, Example 4.8, from Larson (1984: 397), shows how Greek and English differ in their use of pronouns to trace a participant. The two texts presented are translations from the Bible. Text 1 is a modified literal translation from Greek to show Greek pronoun usage, and Text 2 reflects English usage.

## **Example 4.8:** Topic continuity in translation: Greek vs. English pronoun usage

### Text 1. Greek usage

And when he returned to Capernaum after some days, it was reported that he was at home. And many were gathered together, so that there was no longer room for them, not even about the door; and he was preaching the word to them. And they came bringing to him a paralytic carried by four men. And when they could not get near him because of the crowd, they removed the roof above him; and when they had made an opening, they let down the pallet on which the paralytic lay.

### Text 2. English usage

A few days later Jesus went back to Capernaum and the news spread that he was at home. So many people came together that there was no room left, not even out in front of the door. Jesus was preaching the message to them when four men arrived, carrying a paralysed man to Jesus. Because of the crowd, however, they could not get the man to him. So they made a hole in the roof right above the place where Jesus was. When they had made an opening, they let the man down, lying on his mat.

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A translation like the one in Text 1 would be unusual to an English reader who is not used to tracing referents, Jesus in the example, the way Greek does it, i.e., with more personal pronouns and fewer full references with a proper noun.

The target text in Example 4.9 (an authentic translation from English in use in the United States) contains another illustration of a mismatch between continuity in the source and in the target resulting from translation and, possibly, a translator's unawareness of how continuity works in discourse and across languages.

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## **Example 4.9:** Topic continuity mismatches in translation

### Source text

How to apply

If you are currently receiving Food Stamps of CS benefits, a Free Meals Program Letter will not be mailed to you. The School/District now has access to a Direct Certification System and is able to verify households receiving DES benefits. These children will be automatically qualified to receive free meals.

The School/District will notify the household of the child's free meal benefits. If you are currently receiving FDPIR benefits, you will receive a letter indicating that you are certified to receive FDPIR. A copy of this letter may be obtained from your Indian Tribal Organization. If you wish for your child to receive free meal benefits, please submit a copy of this letter to your child's school. If you have not received a copy of this letter, complete the application with your child's name, FDPIR case number and the signature of one adult household member.

### Target text

Como aplicar

Si actualmente esta [sic] <u>usted</u> recibiendo beneficios de Estampillas de Comida o Asistencia Monteria [sic], no se le enviara [sic] una carta de parte del Programa de Comidas Gratuitas (Free Meals Program). El distrito escolar cuenta ahora con acceso directo al Sistema de Certificación, el cual nos permite verificar aquellos hogares que reciben beneficios a través de DES (Departamento de Seguridad Económica). Estos niños calificaran [sic] automáticamente pare recibir comidas gratuitas. Si actualmente esta [sic] <u>usted</u> recibiendo beneficio de FDPIR, se le enviara [sic] una cara [sic] indicando que <u>usted</u> esta [sic] certificado para recibir FDPIR. <u>Usted</u> puede obtener una copia de esta carta a través de su Organización Tribal de Indios. Si <u>usted</u> desea que su hijo/a reciba beneficios de comidas gratuitas, favor de someter una copia de esta carta a la escuela de su hijo/a. Si <u>usted</u> no ha recibido copia de esta carta, complete el formulario con el nombre de su hijo/a, su numero [sic] de caso FDPIR y la firma de un adulto miembro de su hogar.

As we saw in Examples 4.6 and 4.7, in English, for syntactic reasons, an overt subject pronoun indicates a high degree of topic continuity (high recoverability). In Spanish, and in other languages that indicate the subject through the conjugations of the verb, explicit subject pronouns are used when the participant is more difficult to access than a subject pronoun in English. In other words, the same degree of recoverability and continuity tends to be marked through agreement on the verb. Since the participant in the target text is not more difficult to access than it is in English, the frequent use of explicit subject pronouns in the target text in Example 4.9 (instead of agreement on the verb) presents a shift in topic continuity (in the marking of participants) that was not necessitated by the translation instructions. One could speculate that this was due to a failure to consider the textual dimension in the context of translation: the translator, unaware of how participants are marked and traced in a text, simply translated a personal pronoun in English with the corresponding pronoun in Spanish. One or two instances in which the English pronoun was rendered as an explicit pronoun in the translated text may not have had much of an impact. However, the cumulative effect of multiple instances of unusual explicit pronouns disrupts the normal process of identification of participants by the target reader in unintended ways, creating processing difficulties not justified by the brief.

## Information structure of a text: Old and new Information

The topic of information structure (old information **and new information**) was introduced briefly in Chapter 3 in connection with pragmatic functions. The point made then was that linguistic form can sometimes be used to refer to the extra-linguistic content, such as the reader's knowledge of the world, by marking content as new or known to the reader.

We return now to the topic of old (also "known" or "given") and new information because the connection between linguistic form and information structure is a crucial aspect of textual organization. In a text, information flow generally progresses from known information, shared by the writer and the reader, to new information – the writer's contribution which moves the text forward. Old information serves to establish a common ground to which new information is added. Old information is known because it has been mentioned before or because it is part of the shared extra-linguistic context.

Example 4.10 contains a short text with the standard information flow from given to new information.

## **Example 4.10:** Old and new information in discourse

### Compounding$_{\text{New1}}$

(1) [Compounding$_{\text{G1}}$]$_{\text{Given}}$ [is a process that forms new words not by means of affixes but from two or more independent words$_{\text{N2}}$]$_{\text{New}}$. (2) [The words$_{\text{G2}}$ that are the parts of the compound$_{\text{G1}}$]$_{\text{Given}}$ [can be free morphemes, words derived by affixation, or even words formed by compounding themselves] $_{\text{New}}$.

In Example 4.10, “Compounding” is introduced in the title as new information $_{\text{(NewN1)}}$, and then repeated in the text as old or given ($_{\text{GivenG1}}$). The rest of the sentence is added as new information. In the second sentence (2), the information that was new in (1) is repeated now as old, i.e., “the words that are the parts of the compound”; to this, new information regarding the nature of these words (they can be free morphemes, derived, or compounds themselves) is added in the second half of the sentence.

Old information is marked through reference and linguistic markers of reference (also known as deictics – from a Greek word meaning ‘to point’ – because they *point at* a referent), such as pronouns, definite articles, lexical repetition, etc. In Example 4.10, “Compounding” in the title is the first mention of this referent and therefore is considered new; the next reference to the same referent (first word in the paragraph, i.e., “Compounding”) is now given, and it is marked through lexical repetition. Also, in sentence (1) a new referent is introduced toward the end (new information), i.e., “two or more independent words.” A second reference to these words, at the beginning of sentence (2), is now given information, marked with the definite pronoun “the.” Likewise, at the beginning of sentence (2), “the compound” is referred to using a definite article; thus, it is identified as given information. Finally, the first reference was introduced with a synonym, i.e., “compounding,” pointing to the same referent in the reader’s consciousness.

Information structure and its progress through the text create coherence in the text. Languages mark given vs. new by various linguistic means: articles, pronouns, word order, and intonation and stress. Some languages resort to certain strategies more than others, in many cases due to their formal characteristics. English, for instance, makes frequent use of prosody, and intonation and stress (which means that typographic conventions are used in writing). Others, such as Spanish and Arabic, rely more on word order to indicate informational structure. It is not surprising that word order is a common strategy to mark old vs. new information, given that old information tends to precede new information (for cognitive reasons). A consequence of this fact, however, is that languages with stricter word orders (e.g., English, French) face limited strategies for marking informational structures compared with their counterparts with freer word order.

Translators need to be aware of how their languages organize and mark informational flow, as well as make the necessary adjustments on the basis of the brief (see Baker [2014: 176–180] for some strategies). Shifts in word order and other markers often result in differences in information structure in translation that were not intended by the translators (or that do not respond to the requirements of the brief). As we mentioned earlier, differences in shared knowledge (cultural or specialized), in addition to differences in linguistic markers of information structure, become relevant for translation decisions. In an effort to help their readers, translators may make information explicit that is implicit in the source text – a strategy known as explicitation – in particular, information shared by the source-text author and readers, but not by target-text readers.

Example 4.11 contains a couple of examples of explicitation, one dealing with Hebrew and the other with Finnish. The Hebrew text shows that a translator recognizes that information marked as given in the English source text ("You've already cooked your casserole") may be new for the average reader of the Hebrew target text. In connection with the suggestion that the person in question may be a vegetarian, the translator wants to make sure that the Hebrew audience understands the implication that this is a dish with both meat and vegetables. As a result, this is included as new information in the Hebrew translation, "You've already cooked your casserole dish. It contains both vegetables and meat." Similarly, the Finnish translator realizes that his/her readers may not know that Knopf is a publishing house (rather than a person), making this information explicit (new information) in the target text.

### **Example 4.11:** Mismatch in shared knowledge between readers: Explicitation in translation

Example from Blum-Kulka (1986)

| **(a) ST (English)** | **(b) TL (Hebrew)** |
|---|---|
| 1. Deeley: She may be a vegetarian. | |
| 2. Kate: Ask her. | |
| 3. Deeley: It is too late. You've already cooked your casserole. *Pause* Why isn't she married? I mean, why isn't she bringing her husband? | 3. Deeley: meuxar miday, at kvar bišalt et tavsil hakaserol šelax. Yes baze gam basar vegam yerakot (It's too late. You've already cooked your casserole dish. It contains both vegetables and meat.) |
| Pinter (1971), *Old Times* | Translation by R. Kislev |

Example from Arffman (2007)

| **ST (English)** | **TL (Finnish)** |
|---|---|
| He sent his manuscript to Knopf. | Hän lähetti käsikirjoituksensa Knopfiin, newyorkilaiseen painotaloon. (He sent his manuscript to Knopf, a New York publishing house.) |

Example 4.12 shows how lexical repetition is used to assure topic continuity and to mark new information across languages and genre. It also shows how one translation decision affects the structure of the target text.

### **Example 4.12:** Mismatch in shared knowledge between readers: Explicitation in translation

*RollerShade*™ protects your children from the sun's harmful rays. *RollerShade*™ may either be clipped onto roll-down window top or applies to stationary window surface with enclosed suction cups.

La *cortina para bloquear el sol* protege a sus niños de los rayos dañinos del sol. Esta cortina puede ser colocada en una ventana que sube y baja o puede ser colocada con las copas de succión en una ventana fija.

Notre *Store sur Rouleau de luxe*$^{TM}$ aide à protéger vos enfants contre les rayons nocifs du soleil. Vous pouvez le fixer sur le bord de votre fenêtre, ou l'appliquer sur la surface de la fenêtre avec les ventouses incluses.

[*RollerShade*$^{TM}$, Product instructions]

Italics = explicitation, information not present in source text.
Underlining = subsequent (relevant) references to the referent, after the first mention

In Example 4.12, the English source RollerShade™ is used at its first mention and then again the second time; while this is not the usual way to establish topic continuity and to refer back to a topic/referent already introduced, RollerShade™ is the name of the product, and the repetition works well for advertising purposes (genre-specific feature). In the Spanish text, the English name is not used, probably to help readers understand what type of product this is; the phrase *la cortina para bloquear el sol* (a curtain/shade to block the sun) appears instead. Thus, the second reference to this object can consist of a shorter version of the noun phrase 'this shade,' leaving out 'to block the sun,' since this known information. Note, of course, that an alternative translation decision would have been to use a combination of the original product name and the target language explanation, i.e., *la cortina para bloquear el sol* RollerShade™. This decision would allow the translator to simply use the name of the product in the second reference: *RollerShade*$^{TM}$ *se puede colocar.*

Like the Spanish text, the French translation does not include the English product name, similarly referring to the product also with the French name for a roller shade. The second and third references to it are achieved through the use of a pronoun.

Exercise 4 in the Exercise section at the end of this chapter provides additional practice and examples about informational structure in translation.

In Figures 4.2a and 4.2b and the commentary following them, we provide and comment on another authentic example illustrative of informational structure in a translational context. Like Examples 4.11 and 4.12, it highlights the need for translators and those involved in translation to be aware of informational structure.

(a)

**4** | **Some people should not get IPV or should wait.**

**These people should not get IPV:**

- Anyone who has ever had a life-threatening allergic reaction to the antibiotics **neomycin, streptomycin** or **polymyxin B** should not get the polio shot.
- Anyone who has a severe allergic reaction to a polio shot should not get another one.

**These people should wait:**

- Anyone who is moderately or severely ill at the time the shot is scheduled should usually wait until they recover before getting polio vaccine. People with minor illnesses, such as a cold, ***may*** be vaccinated.

Ask your health care provider for more information.

(b)

4 | Algunas personas no debieran ser vacunadas con la IPV, o debieran esperar.

**Las siguientes personas no debieran ser vacunadas con la IPV:**

- Cualquier persona que alguna vez haya tenido una reacción alérgica que le puso en peligro la vida al usar los antibióticos **neomicina, estreptomicina o polimixina B** no deberá recibir una inyección antipoliomielítica.
- Cualquier persona que haya tenido una reacción alérgica grave a la inyección antipoliomielítica no deberá ser vacunada otra vez.

**Figure 4.2** Informational structure in translation contexts.

In Figure 4.2a, the English text consists of health-care instructions for individuals who should not get or who should wait to get the IPV vaccine. In the English text, the new information indicating who should not get vaccinated appears first in the bulleted list (the title "These people should not get IPV" is given information), followed by new information, as illustrated in Example 4.13. This is, of course, not unusual in English, a language that often uses intonation and other strategies to mark informational structure.

### Example 4.13: Informational structure in translation

These people should not get IPV:

- Anyone who has ever had a life-threatening allergic reaction to the antibiotics neomycin, streptomycin or polymyxin B should not get the polio shot.

**New:** Anyone who has ever had a life-threatening allergic reaction to the antibiotics neomycin, streptomycin or polymyxin B
**Given:** should not get the polio shot

- Anyone who has a severe allergic reaction to a polio shot should not get another one.

**New:** Anyone who has a severe allergic reaction to a polio shot
**Given:** should not get another one

However, as seen in Example 4.14, a duplication of the Spanish target text, the informational structure is not the usual, i.e., given + new. This is obviously a consequence of retaining the word order of the source. The consequence for translation is that it alters the informational structure of the text and, for readers who are used to the flow given + new, it increases the cognitive load and reading difficulty in ways not necessitated by the purpose of the translation.

### Example 4.14: Informational structure in translation

Las siguientes personas no debieran ser vacunadas con la IPV:
The following people not should-subjunc. be vaccinated with the IPV

- Cualquier persona que alguna vez haya tenido una reacción alérgica que le puso en peligro la vida al usar los antibióticos neomicina, estreptomicina o polimixina B no deberá recibir una inyección antipoliomielítica

New: Cualquier persona que alguna vez haya tenido una reacción alérgica
Any person who some time has had a reaction allergic

*que le puso en peligro la vida al usar los antibióticos neomicina,*
that to-him put-past in peril the life on using the antibitiotics neomycin,

*estreptomicina o polimixina B*
streptomycin o polymyxin B

**Given:** *no deberá recibir una inyección antipoliomelítica*
Not shall receive an injection antipolio

- Cualquier persona que haya tenido una reacción alérgica grave a la inyección antipoliomelítica no deberá ser vacunada otra vez.

  New: *Cualquier persona que haya tenido una reacción alérgica grave a la*
  Any person who has had a reaction allergic grave to the

  *inyección antipoliomelítica*
  injection antipolio

  **Given:** *no deberá ser vacunada otra vez*
  Not shall be vaccinated another time

As illustrated in Example 4.15, one way to deal with information structure in the text is to simply omit the repetition of the given information, as the heading already serves that function, making this the first part of the bulleted section.

### **Example 4.15:** Informational structure in translation

**Given:** Las siguientes personas no debieran ser vacunadas con la IPV:

- New: Cualquier persona que alguna vez haya tenido una reacción alérgica que le puso en peligro la vida al usar los antibióticos neomicina, estreptomicina o polimixina B
- New: Cualquier persona que haya tenido una reacción alérgica grave a la inyección antipoliomelítica

So far we have covered how topics are presented in discourse, how topic orientation is related to the purpose and theme of texts, how referents are introduced and then marked linguistically through a text so readers can identify them, and finally how information is structured and marked as new or old. One final aspect of texts that we need to address with regard to translation is coherence and cohesion. We do this in the next section.

## Coherence and cohesion

Coherence consists of the meaning and pragmatic relations that underlie a text and that give it unity, meaning and purpose (see discussion on pp. 114–115 above). Linguistic forms, known as cohesive devices, are used to help the reader establish the coherence necessary to make sense of the text. Yet coherence is not a linguistic concept, but a pragmatic one.

In English the coordinating conjunction ‘but’ conjoins contrasting ideas. It is a cohesive marker that helps the reader identify a contrasting relation between ideas. However, in order for the ideas/text to cohere, the reader must be able to identify a meaning relation of contrast between them. In Example 4.16, both sentences are grammatically correct; however, only (b) is coherent. While the word ‘but’ expresses contradiction, this meaning relation only exists in the clauses in (b).

### **Example 4.16:** Coherence

a. *My brother went, but I left.
b. My brother went, but I stayed.

A relation of contrast may be pragmatic in that it is not part of the linguistic content of the expression or the semantic relations, but belongs to the extra-linguistic context: the participants, their shared knowledge, presuppositions, etc., as in Example 4.17.

### **Example 4.17:** Coherence

The salad had fresh pepper in it, but it was still really good.

The two ideas in Example 4.17 will not cohere for many readers in some English-speaking countries because the presupposition shared by many members of their cultures is that fresh pepper on a salad is a good thing, added to make it better. Imagine now that the interlocutors are a daughter and a mother who knows that her daughter has a strong dislike for pepper. In that case, the statement by the daughter would be perfectly coherent to her mother.

**Cohesion** thus refers to the explicit marking, through linguistic means, of the links between a sequence of distinct sentences that make those particular sentences hang together. **Cohesive devices** are overt textual signs that help the reader establish textual coherence. As seen above, conjunctions are cohesive markers. Pronouns, lexical repetition or synonyms, and parallel structures are common cohesive markers in English. Some examples of these can be found in Examples 4.20 and 4.21.

Topic continuity and informational structure are two elements of textual structure closely related to coherence; a reader's ability to identify topics in a text, to trace participants and to determine what is new information and what is given (i.e., the flow of information) so that it can be related to background knowledge is essential to deciphering the logical relations underlying a text. As seen earlier (section 4.2), topic continuity is established through reference (noun phrase, pronoun, omission, etc.); these linguistic markers of topic continuity are also examples of cohesive devices.

To highlight the importance of cohesive devices in making a text cohere, go back to Example 4.1 and read it normally. Consider now Example 4.18.

### **Example 4.18:** Cohesive devices in discourse

On Monday, December 17, 2012, at approximately 12:20pm at the Fayke Hotel located at 1250 Main Street, Joe Sample and Jane Sample observed Mr. Example arrive at the hotel in a white vehicle. The Investigators observed Mr. Example enter the hotel for roughly a minute, then depart the hotel parking lot. Then Mr. Example was observed arriving nearby in the restaurant parking lot at 12:40pm. At nearly the same time, a woman arrived in a Jeep near the hotel entrance. Mr. Example and the woman who arrived in the car entered Applebee's at approximately 12:45pm. They greeted each other with a kiss. They were in Applebee's until approximately 1:25pm. At that time, they exited the restaurant and both entered the white convertible. Mr. Example drove the vehicle. At 2:00pm, the white convertible arrived at the hotel and parked near a side entrance. Both Mr. Example and the female exited the white car. Mr. Example entered the side door using an electronic access control key (key card). He then waited at the door and opened the door for the female. At 3:20pm, the female that accompanied Mr. Example into the hotel exited the hotel. Mr. Example was close behind her. The couple kissed and departed in their respective vehicles.

Excerpt adapted from *Sample Investigation Report* (Versatek Security)

Example 4.18 resembles the text in Example 4.1, but you will probably agree that it is much more difficult to read. While Example 4.18 is perfectly grammatical and it looks like a text, it does not cohere because we have altered some of its cohesive devices. What you experienced is, in fact, similar to the experience of readers of some translated texts.

Now, using your knowledge of the situation gained by reading the previous version of the text in Example 4.1 (do not go back to it now), think about how you would modify Example 4.18 so that it is easier to read and more coherent. Pay special attention to the underlined phrases in Example 4.19.

### **Example 4.19:** Cohesive devices

On Monday, December 17, 2012, at approximately 12:20pm at the Fayke Hotel located at 1250 Main Street, Joe Sample and Jane Sample observed Mr. Example arrive at the hotel in a white vehicle. The Investigators observed Mr. Example enter the hotel for roughly a minute, then depart the hotel parking lot. Then Mr. Example was observed arriving nearby in the restaurant parking lot at 12:40pm. At nearly the same time, a woman arrived in a Jeep near the hotel entrance. Mr. Example and the woman who arrived in the car entered Applebee's at approximately 12:45pm. They greeted each other with a kiss. They were in Applebee's until approximately 1:25pm. At that time, they exited the restaurant and both entered the white convertible. Mr. Example drove the vehicle. At 2:00pm, the white convertible arrived at the hotel and parked near a side entrance. Both Mr. Example and the female exited the white car. Mr. Example entered the side door using an electronic access control key (key card). He then waited at the door and opened the door for the female. At 3:20pm, the female that accompanied Mr. Example into the hotel exited the hotel. Mr. Example was close behind her. The couple kissed and departed in their respective vehicles.

Excerpt adapted from *Sample Investigation Report* (Versatek Security)

As you may have guessed, some of the problems in the text in Example 4.19 have to do with the underlined phrases, i.e., "the investigators" (line 3), "the restaurant" (line 5), "the white convertible" (line 10), and the references to Applebee's (lines 8 and 9). These referents are being presented as if they had been introduced before, but the flawed use of cohesive devices in the text makes it difficult for the reader to trace the referents back to their first mention. Who are the investigators? What restaurant's parking lot did Mr. Example arrive in? When was a white convertible mentioned? Is this the same as the white vehicle?

The investigators are, of course, Joe Sample and Jane Sample, the restaurant is Applebee's and there is only one white car, so the white vehicle in line 3 must be the same as the convertible. Adding a few key cohesive devices will help the reader connect the problematic references to their first mention in the text and thus restore coherence to the text. Thus, "Joe Sample and Jane Sample" becomes "Investigators Joe Sample and Jane Sample"; the restaurant is now "Applebee's restaurant"; and "white vehicle" is "the white convertible." This is shown in capitals and italics in Example 4.20.

### **Example 4.20:** Cohesive devices

On Monday, December 17, 2012, at approximately 12:20pm at the Fayke Hotel located at 1250 Main Street, *INVESTIGATORS Joe Sample and Jane Sample* observed Mr. Example arrive at the hotel in *a white ~~vehicle~~ CONVERTIBLE*. The Investigators observed Mr. Example enter the hotel for roughly a minute, then depart the hotel parking lot. Then Mr. Example was observed arriving nearby in *APPLEBEE'S restaurant* parking lot at 12:40pm. At nearly the same time, a woman arrived in a Jeep near the hotel entrance.

Mr. Example and the woman who arrived in the car entered Applebee’s at approximately 12:45pm. They greeted each other with a kiss. They were in Applebee’s until approximately 1:25pm. At that time, they exited the restaurant and both entered the white convertible. Mr. Example drove the vehicle. At 2:00pm, the white convertible arrived at the hotel and parked near a side entrance. Both Mr. Example and the female exited the white car. Mr. Example entered the side door using an electronic access control key (key card). He then waited at the door and opened the door for the female. At 3:20pm, the female that accompanied Mr. Example into the hotel exited the hotel. Mr. Example was close behind her. The couple kissed and departed in their respective vehicles.

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In sum, Examples 4.18, 4.19 and 4.20 and the commentary following them should have foregrounded the importance of cohesive devices in creating coherence for a text. Coherence is a crucial element of a text, without which the text becomes a non-text or a defective text. As mentioned above, translation is a situation that often produces defective texts – texts lacking coherence.

Cohesive devices vary cross-linguistically. This variation does not simply affect the linguistic form of the markers, but how they are used. In translation, textual connections will often have to be reworked according to target language norms, bearing in mind the requirements imposed by the brief. Translating source-text cohesive markers simply using dictionary equivalents or lexical equivalents will in most cases affect the cohesive relations and coherence of the target text.

An illustrative example can be found in Finnish, a language that lacks articles. As we saw in Example 4.6, articles are used in English, as in many languages, to trace referents in discourse. When a new referent is first introduced (unknown), it is marked with the indefinite article (*A boy came*). When the referent has been introduced before and is given or known (identifiable), then the definite article is used (*The boy left soon*). Because of the lack of articles, in Finnish the reader has to infer whether a referent has been introduced before (thus establishing cohesion) (Arffman [2007: 74]). Context and word order are used to this effect. Noun phrases occurring clause-finally are normally interpreted as introducing new or unknown referents into the text, where referents in clause-initial position are interpreted as given, as seen in Example 4.21 (from Arffman [2007: 74]).

**Example 4.21:** Word order as cohesive device in Finnish

*Pihalla on lapsi* *'There is a child in the garden'*
*Lapsi on pihalla* *'The child is in the garden'*

The referent *lapsi* 'child' in Example 4.21 appears at the end of the sentence when it is mentioned for the first time (new, indefinite article in English), and in phrase-initial position, if it is an identifiable referent that has been introduced before (given, definite article in English).

Example 4.22 contains examples from a translation (taken from Chesterman [1991: 100] – from the Finnish translation of Beatrix Potter's *The Tale of Mr. Jeremy Fisher*).

**Example 4.22:** Word order as cohesive device in Finnish

(a) *Lumpeenlehden alla ui iso vesikuoriainen*
Lily leaf-GEN under swam big-NOM water-beetle-NOM
A great big water-beetle came up underneath **the lily leaf**

(b) *Pintaan Viuhahti Jättiläislohi*
Surface-ILL splashed giant-trout-NOM
A great big enormous trout came up

(c) *Sitten lohi teki täyskäännöksen ja sukelsi lammen pohjaan*
Then trout-NOM made full-turn-ACC and dived pond-GEN bottom-ILL
And then **it** turned and dived down to the bottom of the pond

As we can see in Example 4.22, in (a), "the lily leaf" is not a new referent in English (definite article), and thus it appears in clause-initial position in the Finnish translation (*Lumpeenlehden*). The opposite is true of "a great big water beetle," which is introduced for the first time and marked as new by means of the indefinite article "a." The Finnish target text captures this by placing *vesikuoriainen* in sentence-final position. In (b), a big enormous trout is introduced as a new referent; thus *jättiläislohi* is placed in final position. After that, the next mention of the trout (no longer new) in (c) has *lohi* in clause-initial position.

Example 4.23 presents another illustration of differences in cohesive devices that are relevant for translation. The source text in this example contains news headlines that appeared in a Spanish online newspaper. In Spanish journalistic texts, it is extremely common to refer to participants previously introduced in discourse by means of an attribute of that participant, often quite specifically (Lance Armstrong = the Texan). The technique – similar to a certain extent to the use of synonyms – relies on knowledge about the participant that may or may not be shared by the readers of a translation. Moreover, this particular cohesive marker may not be used in the same manner in the target language; thus, a target text that translates the content of participant's attribute without considering its function in discourse will negatively affect the cohesiveness and coherence of the target text. In English journalistic text, for instance, coreference through an attribute of the referent is possible, but not as frequent as it is in Spanish. In our example, the English target text shows in fact that the Spanish cohesive technique has not been recognized, and the references to the participants have been translated according to their lexical meaning. (As in previous examples, participants are identified with subindices, which are used to link all subsequent references to the same participant.)

### **Example 4.23:** Cohesive devices cross-linguistically

#### Spanish text

*Nike*$_1$ *rompe su contrato con Lance Armstrong*$_2$

La marca deportiva$_1$ dice que las pruebas del dopaje del ciclista$_2$ son "irrefutables." Al mismo tiempo el tejano$_2$ anuncia que deja$_{2\ (\text{él})}$ la presidencia de su$_2$ fundación contra el cáncer.

October 17, 2012 www.abc.es

### English target

*Nike$_1$ terminates contract with Lance Armstrong$_2$*

The sports brand$_1$ says that there is insurmountable evidence that the cyclist$_2$ participated in doping. Also, the Texan sportsman$_2$ has announced that he$_2$ is stepping down as chairman of his$_2$ anti-cancer foundation.

Note that, in most cases, the English reader's first interpretation of "the sports brand" or "the Texan sportsman" will be to try to find an additional participant. One could argue that eventually readers will see the connection and that they both refer to one and the same participant. However, the resulting increased cognitive difficulty in the processing of the text and the identification of participants – not intended by the writer – will most likely have a negative impact on the effectiveness of the text.

In this section (4.2), we reviewed the features that make a text a well-formed text and that have to be present if texture is not to be lost. Texts without these features are deficient as textual units, just like ungrammatical sentences are defective at the syntactic level and incorrect verb endings are examples of incorrect morphology. Textual features are essential to the translation process. Failure to consider them and follow target-language norms often results in deficient target texts that do not fulfill brief requirements. Figure 4.3 presents a visual summary of textual features and the main concepts presented in section 4.2.

Now that we know what features make a text well-formed and acceptable, we will discuss textual units and their functions in a broader, extra-linguistic context. This, of course, brings us to the notions of **text type** and **genre**, the topic of the next section.

## 4.3 Text types and genres

Just as language is associated with specific purposes and functions (to inform, convince, argue, express, etc.), texts are organized around a particular function. Texts associated with a particular function constitute a text type. In Chapter 2,

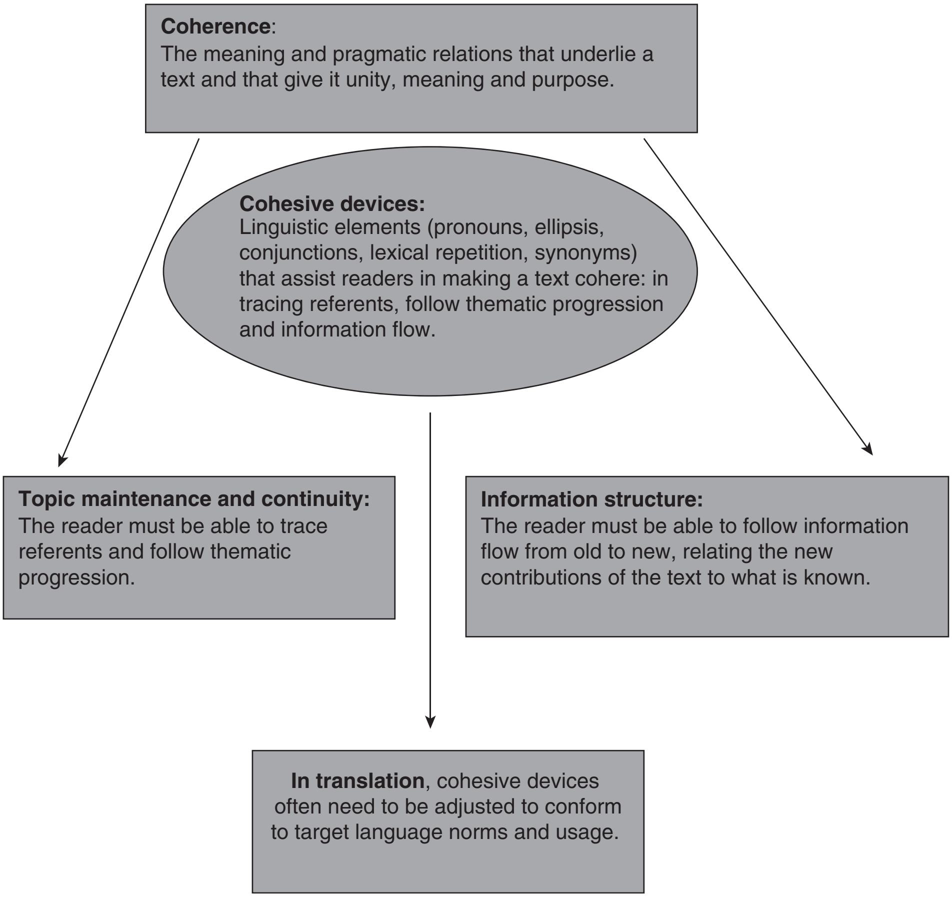



**Figure 4.3** What makes a text: Coherence.

we discussed the function of a translation as a guiding principle for making translation decisions; text types are closely connected to the function of a translation, because identifying the text type is crucial to identifying the function of the text.

Text types are usually related to speech acts and, therefore, to the writers' intentions: trying to convince the reader of a viewpoint (argumentative), offer information (expository), express feelings (expressive) or make someone behave/react in a certain way (instructional, operative).

A text type may have other subtypes within it, generally subordinate to the function of the main type. For example, an argumentative piece on the need for health-care reform may use an expository segment (a personal narrative about an individual who lost his job and thus his health insurance) to serve the main goal of bringing others to the author's point of view.

As seen in section 4.2, textual units contain various types of linguistic marker that help the reader process a text and its elements, such as coherence, topics, participants and information structure; similarly, textual units with a specific function or rhetorical purpose have developed conventional patterns of organization, structure and linguistic markers that help readers identify them as a particular text type. As Baker (2014: 123) puts it: "textual material is packaged by the writer along patterns familiar to the reader." Knowledge of text-type features helps readers recognize the text type and the function of the text, and it is part of the knowledge that readers bring to the process of text comprehension.

In other words, textual features, textual markers and textual organization vary according to text types and genres: particular text types have specific features associated with them, which are often language- and culture-specific, e.g., the form of an instructional text, such as a textbook, may not be the same in the United States as it will in China.

Consequently, correctly identifying textual patterns and their linguistic markers means properly recognizing the writer's purpose and is essential for successful accomplishment of textual goals. In the translation process, making sure that target readers are able to properly interpret textual functions often involves adaptation of textual markers and their organization to those of the target culture for a particular text type.

Genres are the labels used to classify texts according to the contexts in which they occur; they are conventionalized forms of texts that reflect features of a social occasion (audience, time, place, medium). Genres also tend to be associated with specific functions and text types. The recipe is a genre associated with an operative text type, whereas a textbook belongs to the informative text type. Other examples of genres are a poem, a book review, a novel, an abstract, an editorial, an office memo and a report.

As with text types, translators need to be aware of the culture-specific features attached to a genre and their implications for translation. They need to recognize that genres are categories that are packaged in language- and culture-specific forms, whose formal features may need to be adapted in translation if the function, text type and genre of the source are to be retained. If genre features in, say, a book review differ in the source and target languages, and the function of the translation requires that the target text also be a book review, featural adaptation will be necessary.

Consider the case of recipes. Recipes exhibit various textual features that help readers to identify the writer's intentions (to instruct in the preparation of a dish). For instance, in English, one of these features consists of the omission of object pronouns and articles, e.g., "Put in container" (vs. "Put it in the container"). In other languages, like Spanish, there is no omission of objects or articles. In Russian, it is common to use the infinitive to give directions in a recipe, whereas English prefers the imperative (Baer [forthcoming]). If the purpose of the translated text is to be used as a recipe in the target culture, the above-mentioned featural differences must be adapted to the requirements of the target language: articles and objects need to appear in Spanish, but can be omitted in English, and a translation from Russian into English should avoid using the infinitive in favor of the imperative.

Adjustments like the ones just described are necessary in order for target readers to successfully recognize the text as a recipe, as a token of the operative text type, consequently facilitating identification of the writer's intentions and attainment of the translation's communicative purpose.

Yet, before any type of adaptation or modification of textual features can take place, we must know what those genre and text-type features are for the source and target texts. This is no small enterprise, given the lack of descriptive grammars of genre and text-type features and the scattered nature of the research in the field, often too difficult to locate for teachers or translators. Translators must frequently learn how to do their own analysis/descriptions through ST and parallel-text analysis. (We will discuss this topic further in section 4.4.)

By using parallel text analysis, we will find out, for instance, that English recipes contain far more detailed and specific instructions than Russian ones, explaining every step in the process, and leaving few choices. Russian recipes, on the other hand, contain more implicitation and offer less precise directions, such as: "Bake at 325–350 degrees." English recipes do not normally have a temperature range. In addition, Russian recipes tend to assume the reader can do simple preparatory procedures, such as hard-boiling eggs, whereas those procedures may be spelled out in an English-language recipe. Finally, English recipes that involve baking will almost invariably begin with "Preheat oven to

X degrees," whereas no such information appears anywhere in Russian recipes (Baer [forthcoming]).

Examples 4.24 and 4.25 reproduce some features of recipes listed by Colina (2003) on the basis of a small English/Spanish corpus of recipes (Colina [1997]). They present additional, detailed examples of the types of feature that readers use to quickly and effortlessly identify a text with a genre and a textual function.

### **Example 4.24:** Genre-specific textual features: Recipes in English

1. Omission of prepositions (with ingredients), e.g., 1 cup all-purpose flour, vs. *1 cup OF all-purpose flour.
2. Article omission. Although the definite article is normally used in English after the first introduction of a referent, in recipes it is normally omitted. Recipes often leave out the article where most other genres would prefer definite or indefinite articles (missing article is shown in brackets [ ]).

   Pat [the] frankfurters dry. Heat [the] oil (2 to 3 inches) in [a] deep fryer or [a] Dutch oven to 365°. Mix [the] flour, cornmeal, baking powder and salt. Cut in [the] shortening. Stir in [the] remaining ingredients. Dip [the] frankfurters into [the] batter, allowing excess to drip into [the] bowl. Fry, turning once, until brown, about 6 minutes; drain. Insert [a] wooden skewer in [the] end of each frankfurter if desired. 4 servings; 580 calories per serving. Accompany with carrot and celery sticks, potato chips and ice cream with Crunchy Chocolate Sauce. If using self-rising flour, omit [the] baking powder and salt.

   From Anon. (1990: 153).

3. Zero anaphora/ellipsis. Once a topic/referent has been introduced, the writer refers to it by means of zero anaphora, i.e., ellipsis (indicated as Ø).
   a. Trim excess fat from lamb shoulder; cut lamb into 1-inch cubes. Place lamb in glass or plastic bowl. Mix lemon juice, oil, salt, oregano and pepper; <u>pour</u> Ø over lamb.
   b. Dip frankfurters into batter, allowing excess to drip into bowl. Fry Ø, turning once, until brown, about 6 minutes; <u>drain</u> Ø.

Zero anaphora is used in (a) after "pour" to refer to the entity just introduced: lemon juice, oil, salt, oregano and pepper. In (b), Ø refers first to the batter-dipped frankfurters, and later, after "drain," to the batter-dipped, browned frankfurters. Zero anaphora is possible due to the immediacy of the non-linguistic context (the ingredients and tools as they are being used in the preparation of the dish) available in recipes. This possibility is exploited in English recipes.

4. Subordination less common; complex sentences tend to make use of coordination. Punctuation signs are preferred to conjunctions.
5. The imperative is the most common verbal form.

---

**Example 4.25:** Genre-specific textual features: Recipes in Spanish

1. Prepositions are used in the list of ingredients.

   Un cuarto de kilo de meluza u otro pescado blanco
   *a fourth of kilo of hake or other fish White*
   50 gramos de queso Gruyere
   50 grams of cheese Gruyere
   Medio litro de leche
   half litre of milk

   (Landa [1992: 109])
2. Article usage is required, e.g., se pelan las patatas, *se pelan Ø patatas (*are peeled the potatoes, *are peeled potatoes*) (articles are underlined).

   Se pica la cebolla muy menuda y se fríe en una tacita de aceite hasta que esté dorada.

   Se pelan las gambas y se pican junto con la merluza, todo en crudo, en trozos pequeños. Se añaden entonces a la cebolla, para que se hagan junto con ella. Cuando el pescado está hecho se le agregan dos cucharadas de harina, se deja freir un poco y se empieza a añadir, poco a poco y sin dejar de remover, la leche fría para hacer una bechamel. Tiene que cocer unos diez minutos. Por último, se echa a la bechamel la mitad de la mantequilla, y se sala al gusto.

   (Landa [1992:109])

3. No zero anaphora. Explicit object pronouns. Zero anaphora is not possible to refer to objects that point back to previously established topic entities: A pronoun or noun phrase must appear (noun phrases and the pronouns referring back to them are identified by the use of the same subindex).

   Haz puré$_1$ las frambuesas o las fresas$_2$ con la mezcladora eléctrica y reserva
   *puré the raspberries or the strawberries*

   algunas$_2$ para decoración. Añade la miel y vuelve a batir.
   *some*

   Bate la nata$_3$ hasta formar picos duros e incorpórala$_3$ al puré$_1$
   *the cream* *incorporate-it to-the puré*

   junto con el vino$_4$, si es que lo$_4$ utilizas.
   *the wine* *it*

   (Bowen and Spencer [1985: 15])

4. Subordination is common: Spanish texts show a higher degree of preference for hypotactic constructions.
5. *Se-passive* and infinitives: Spanish uses the imperative or the *se-passive* as the dominant tense in recipes.

Consider now Examples 4.26 and 4.27, which contain two translated recipes. Practice 4.2 refers back to these examples and applies what you learned about textual features of recipes in English and Spanish to a translation context.

### **Example 4.26:** Translated recipe

2 cups crushed graham crackers
⅓ cup butter, melted
5 cups cream cheese
5 cups cottage cheese, drained
1 cup granulated sugar
2 tsp. vanilla extract
5 eggs, yolks separated from the whites. . .

Preheat oven to 450°. Grease sides and bottom of a 9” spring-form cake pan. Combine crushed crackers with butter and press Ø firmly into cake pan. Refrigerate Ø 15–20 minutes or until set.

In large bowl, mix cream cheese, cottage cheese, sugar, vanilla, salt and yolks. Beat Ø until uniform and creamy. Add milk, whipped cream and flour. Beat egg whites until hard peaks form and fold Ø into cheese mixture. Add lemon rind. Pour Ø over mixture into pan and bake Ø at 360° for 45 minutes. Allow Ø to cool in oven, with door open. Refrigerate Ø before serving.

### **Example 4.27:** Translated recipe

100g **of** butter
225g **of** crushed gingerbread cookies
450g **of** cream cheese
50g **of** powder sugar
6 tablespoons **of** cream [. . .]

Lightly grease a 23cm cake pan with butter. Melt the remaining butter in a small saucepan; add the crushed gingerbread cookies and mix well. Use **this mixture** to cover the bottom of the cake pan, and place **it** in the refrigerator until it hardens.

In a bowl, mix the cream cheese with the sugar until it becomes smooth and creamy. Stir in **the cream** and 450g of blackcurrants. Dissolve the gelatin in 2 tablespoons of boiling water, and combine **it** with the currant mixture. Pour **this** onto the refrigerated cheesecake crust. Let chill in the refrigerator approximately one hour or until it hardens.

Meanwhile, whip the cream until it is very smooth, and add the egg white. Spoon **this cream** onto the chilled cheesecake. Decorate the cream topping and the edge of the cheesecake with the remaining blackcurrants. Refrigerate 15 minutes before serving.

### **Practice 4.2:** Text types and genres in translation

Referring back to Examples 4.26 and 4.27, which one of the two would you say better represents the recipe genre in English?

#### Commentary

As you may have guessed, Example 4.26 is much closer to the stereotypical recipe in English. The text in Example 4.26 has many of the features discussed in Example 4.25 (omission of prepositions, omission of articles, zero anaphora, etc.); while that in Example 4.27 actually shows features typical of Spanish (indicated through bold font and underlining). Following a translation brief in which the English text is to be used as a recipe to cook the described dish, the text in Example 4.26 would be a much more adequate translation.

Example 4.27 was actually a student translation of a source Spanish text. The brief was that the translation was to serve as a recipe for an English reader. The text in Example 4.27 shows, among other things, that the student needs to be made aware of how textual features work in translation and what their roles are in the translation process.

The camera text in Chapter 1 (Figure 1.9) contains one more instance of a mismatch in text type and genre features arising in translation. We will refer to the text in Figure 1.9 again in Chapter 7 in the context of evaluation (of textual and functional adequacy).

In this section we discussed the important role played by textual features in identifying and accomplishing textual functions. As an example, we included features for recipes in English, Spanish and Russian; we also mentioned that these features are difficult to locate because detailed inventories or even brief lists of textual features are not readily available for many text types and languages. Consequently, translators need to develop an intuitive awareness of these features or be able to research them. One important way of doing this is through textual analysis, parallel-text analysis and corpora. This is the topic of section 4.4.

## 4.4 Textual analysis, parallel texts and corpora

Parallel texts constitute an excellent resource for learning about textual markers and organizational features. In Chapter 5 (section 5.1 and Figure 5.3), we will also learn that parallel texts and corpora are useful tools for reading in translation, especially when the source text is in a second language.

**Parallel-text** analysis consists of examining a corpus of target-language texts (referred to as "parallel texts"), independently produced (not translated), and of the same type and genre as the one assigned to the target text, in order to isolate common features of organization and textual markers. As we mentioned earlier, the features of recipes listed and exemplified in Example 4.24 were obtained by means of parallel-text analysis. The Russian recipe features listed in section 4.3 (Baer [forthcoming]) are also the result of parallel analysis.

Extensive experience with similar types of text can help translators develop an intuitive sense of textual features; experienced translators frequently compile their own collection of parallel texts for the text types they translate most frequently, and many translation teachers like to ask their students to collect parallel texts in preparation for the translation of a specific text type. The Internet has in this respect become a valuable resource that provides easy access to countless samples of authentic texts for parallel-text collection.

Example 4.23 discussed the use of specific characteristics of the participant as a marker of topic continuity in Spanish journalistic prose, thus referring to that participant. A collection of parallel texts (journalistic prose) collected about the same topic and containing almost the same information shows that, in fact, this linguistic marker of continuity is not used in the same way in English journalistic prose. As seen in Example 4.28, the only reference to the participant that consists of an attribute of the participant is of a very general kind – a cyclist, referring to the activity he is most known for.

### **Example 4.28:** Parallel texts

*17 October, 2012 bottomline.nbcnews.com*

**Lance Amstrong steps down from Livestrong, loses Nike, Bud contract**

Lance Armstrong has stepped down as chairman of anti-cancer foundation Livestrong. On the same day, Nike said it terminated its sponsorship contract with Armstrong after what they termed "seemingly insurmountable" evidence that he participated in doping.

*17 October, 2012 msn.foxsports.com*

Lance Armstrong stepped down as chairman of his Livestrong cancer-fighting charity and Nike severed ties with him as fallout from the doping scandal swirling around the famed cyclist escalated Wednesday.

*17 October, 2012 newsyahoo.com*

**Lance Armstrong steps down from charity, Nike drops him**

Austin, Texas (Reuters) – Lance Armstrong stepped down as chairman of the cancer support charity he founded, as Nike Inc dropped the disgraced cyclist over the doping scandal that will cost him his seven Tour de France titles.

As mentioned above, the texts in Example 4.28 also illustrate the usefulness of parallel and assistive texts. For a translator faced with the Spanish source text, the English texts in Example 4.28 are a good source of information regarding language use in context, with a particular function and topic. Parallel texts like these English journalistic texts can help non-native translators or those with lower English proficiency make up for linguistic gaps. For instance, a translator may ponder what word works in English for the discontinuing of the relationship with Nike, referred to literally in the Spanish as "breaks contract." While "Nike breaks its contract with Lance Armstrong" is grammatical, the parallel texts examined suggest that this may not be the most commonly used word in English for this text and for this content, as none of them use it. Instead they prefer: "terminate," "drops him," "sever ties with him." Since the mention of the contract is explicit only in "terminate," and there is no other requirement that forces one to omit such a reference, we would probably choose this verb over the others.

Notice also the importance of the use of parallel texts from a cognitive point of view. Without the alternative forms of expressing meaning presented by these texts, the translator would be unfairly biased toward the form in his/her most immediate consciousness, that which most closely resembles, formally and structurally, the source text, e.g., “breaks contract.”

In addition to parallel texts (found online or elsewhere), searchable online corpora allow translators to perform automated searches on use and collocations. For instance, imagine I am unsure as to whether the Spanish word *dejar* can be translated as ‘leave,’ meaning ‘to resign a position,’ such as that of a chairman. In other words, I need to know whether the verb ‘leave’ is used with ‘chairman.’ One online corpus that allows for automated searches of journalist prose is the Magazine Corpus at BYU (corpus.byu.edu/time/). This allows me to search for collocates in a large corpus of *Time* magazines to see if the word ‘leave’ can be found in the vicinity of ‘chairman.’ Given that the corpus gives access to the context (extended context and online magazines as well), I can check to see if this is actually used with the same meaning (making sure that the chairman is not leaving a room or a place, rather than his post). Syntactic searches are also possible. Alternatively, I can check how often ‘chairman’ collocates with ‘step down’ or ‘resign.’

Finally, parallel texts can be of assistance for translators or student translators who are heritage speakers of one of their languages. Heritage speakers are bilinguals who have acquired one of their languages (the heritage language) in a naturalistic environment, without any formal instruction in it, in most cases because the heritage language is a minority language (and therefore not the language of education in their community).

Heritage speakers often differ from other translators with regard to textual competence (i.e., the ability to write texts that adhere to textual conventions in a particular language in terms of textual features, or organization), as they tend to have lower or insufficient textual competence. More specifically, heritage speakers frequently lack the knowledge of text types and genre conventions necessary to perform a translation task. (The reason for this is that the acquisition of textual competence does not happen in naturalistic conditions, but generally requires exposure to written texts and instruction.) Parallel texts can be a valuable resource for heritage speakers or anyone lacking textual proficiency: Exposure to and the availability of parallel texts can help these speakers with translation tasks, as well as with the acquisition of textual competence.

It is important to draw a distinction between parallel texts, which share the same purpose and audience as the target text, and **background texts**. Background texts share the same content as the target text, rather than genre and audience. For instance, an encyclopedia entry about informed consents is a background text that may be useful with regard to the translation of an informed consent into English. The entry would be an informative (reference) text on these documents, rather than an informed consent per se, and is therefore a background text rather than a parallel text. Background texts are assistive devices that can be very useful to translators, in particular with regard to content and terminology for specialized text.

Translated corpora are another textual resource for translators. They differ from parallel texts in that they are collections of translated texts in which the source and target texts are aligned, or presented side-by-side on the page. Multiple sites on the Internet offer collections of translated texts for research or educational purposes.[1]

## Summary

Not all combinations of sentences that look like texts are in fact texts. A text needs to have texture. Texture is the result of specific textual features that make the text cohere and function as a textual unit. Coherence consists of the semantic and pragmatic relations that underlie a text and that give it unity, meaning and purpose. Linguistic markers, known as cohesive markers, are used to help the reader establish the coherence necessary to make sense of the text. In addition, for a text to cohere, the reader must be able to trace referents and topics throughout the text (topic maintenance and continuity), and to follow the flow of information, from old information to new information, relating the new contributions of the text to what he/she already knows (information structure).

[1] The artificial intelligence community often uses the term "parallel corpora" to refer to translated corpora or to multilingual, aligned texts.

Topic maintenance and continuity, information structure, coherence and cohesion are universal characteristics of texts; however, the strategies, norms and ways of creating coherence and managing topic continuity and information flow vary cross-linguistically. As a consequence, they often have to be re-created in translation for the target. Unless justified by the translation brief, direct transfer of the textual markers and features from the source text may negatively affect texture in the target text. In addition to cross-cultural and cross-linguistic variation in textual features, textual features vary according to text types and genres. Since text types and genres are crucially connected to the function of the text, text type and genre markers need to be considered for the target text independently of what they may be for the source text. One way to research text type and genre markers for specific texts and language combinations is through parallel texts and corpora.

## Key words

Texture, text type, genre, textual features, non-texts, topic maintenance, theme, thematic progression, old information, new information, information structure, coherence, cohesion, cohesive devices, zero anaphora, parallel texts.

## Exercises

### Exercise 1

What makes a text something other than a sequence of sentences on a page? In other words, does any sequence of sentences and/or paragraphs on a printed page qualify as a text? Why, or why not?

### Exercise 2

Comment on the situations that could give rise to a non-text or flawed text.

### Exercise 3

(a) Identify all of the references to the participants in the text below. Mark all references to Jane with a subscript 1, those to Sharon with a subscript 2, those to Jane's mother with a subscript 3 and those to Sharon's with a subscript 4. For each reference indicate the part of speech used to trace topic continuity (e.g., verb agreement, overt subject pronoun, noun phrase, etc.) and comment on the reasons for more or less explicit markers (e.g., distance from previous mention, interference).

(b) Translate the text into your target language. Translation brief: You are doing this as part of the translation of Tannen's book into your target language. It is, as in English, for a general audience, educated, with an interest in learning about communication styles. Make sure that referents can be traced well in your target text, independently of the part of speech used in English to refer to them.

(c) Comment on how linguistic markers are used in your target language to express topic continuity. Compare them with their use in the source English text.

> Jane and Sharon were talking about their mothers' holiday visits. Jane told Sharon that hers had been a bit trying because her mother complained a lot and made comments that were critical of Jane. Sharon told Jane that hers had been terrific; her mother was always optimistic, and even if she said things that could be seen as offensive, Sharon didn't take offense because she knew her mother meant well. Jane began to feel uncomfortable. She regretted talking against her mother and wanted to take it all back. Her mother also meant well, and furthermore she was warm and youthful and generous.
>
> From Tannen (1986: 47).

### Exercise 4

A promotion on a cereal box allows the consumer to order an action figure for the cost of shipping only. In order to do this, an order form needs to be filled out. The form is in English, but a couple of lines on the side of the package refer consumers to the inside of the box for the Spanish form. These lines read:

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| TT: | Adentro | hay | un formulario | en español para hacer su pedido |
| *Interlinear T:* | *Inside* | *there-is* | *a form* | *in Spanish to make your order* |
| Literal Eng T: | 'Inside is the Spanish order form' | | | |

Making use of the interlinear translation in italics and the literal translation in quotes under it, comment on the informational structure. Hint: Why does the literal English translation sound odd, despite the fact that it is perfectly grammatical? What would be a more commonly used translation in English (vs. "Inside is the order form")?

**Exercise 5**

Go back to Examples 4.26 and 4.27 in this chapter. What is a possible brief under which the text in Example 4.27 would be more adequate than Example 4.26?

**Exercise 6**

What are parallel texts? How are they related to text types and genres? What is their role in translation?

**Exercise 7**

How are parallel texts different from dictionaries?

**Exercise 8**

Find a health education brochure on a topic of your choice (e.g., diabetes, dental hygiene, high blood pressure, etc.). Select a target language and find at least three parallel texts in that language.

(a) Explain why they are parallel texts.
(b) Find two specific aspects of the parallel texts that would be helpful to you, with a translation of the source brochure.

## Further reading

Baker (2014) (chapter 5) focuses on thematic progression from the point of view of textual equivalence in translation. It contains discussion of the linguistic foundations of information structure in texts and its translation consequences, along with multiple examples.

Rogers (2006) and Ventola (1995) are more detailed research studies of thematic development in English and German and in translation between these two languages, focusing on specific genres: the investment report and academic books.

www.beaugrande.com/introduction_to_text_linguistics.htm contains some basics of text linguistics, including cohesion, coherence and cohesive devices.

# 5 Reading and translation

## 5.0 INTRODUCTION

A long-standing precept in the field of translation is that translators should have solid, native or native-like proficiency in their languages. Also related to this idea is the belief that once in possession of the necessary linguistic proficiency, reading ability will follow. As a result, reading has received limited attention in translation studies. In this book, we devote an entire chapter to reading, (i) to highlight the significance of reading for translation and translation practice, (ii) to provide the readers of this book with some basic concepts about reading processes and (iii) to guide them in using this knowledge toward a more complete understanding of translation.

If considered at all, reading in translation has been traditionally conceptualized as a language-decoding process. However, current research in language and reading tell us that a text is not a static object and that reading comprehension is a much more complex activity than a "simple" decoding activity. The misguided belief that reading is decoding and that there is an objective meaning hidden in the text has in turn facilitated the view that translation consists of recoding the decoded meaning into another language, namely, reproducing the objective meaning present in the source text. By providing a more accurate notion of reading, this chapter also presents a more accurate view of translation.

This chapter summarizes what reading as an interactive process means for the practice of the translator, including concepts such as background knowledge and its relation to specialized texts, new and old information, word meaning as activation of a potential meaning within a particular text and the translator as a reader.

## 5.1 Reading comprehension: An interactive process

### Top-down and bottom-up models of reading comprehension

In a **bottom-up model** of comprehension, reading proceeds from smaller units on to larger ones: from letters, to words, to sentences, to paragraphs and texts. It is a serial process that moves up from part to whole. According to these models, in an alphabetic system, the reader starts by identifying letter features, which then help him/her recognize letters; letters are then combined into phonemes and spelling patterns (phonotactics), that assist with word recognition; words are grouped into syntactic units, and syntactic units combine to form sentences and paragraphs; paragraphs are combined into texts. Traditional and decoding views of reading are often based on a bottom-up approach to reading comprehension, also used in the phonics methods of teaching reading in some educational contexts.

In a **top-down model**, a reader relies on **world knowledge** (i.e., **background knowledge**), contextual information and other higher-order processing strategies to understand a text. Reading is seen as a process of constructing meaning. A top-down approach can be recognized behind such statements as: "readers can comprehend a selection even though they do not recognize each word"; "readers should use meaning and grammatical cues to identify unrecognized words." It is a common experience to read words that are not physically in the text; for instance, while proofreading, one may not be able to spot a missing word if it is a common function word (e.g., an article) or part of a fixed expression. This is evidence that when we read we use a top-down strategy, whereby linguistic background knowledge fills in information that is not actually present. An important contribution of the top-down model is increased awareness of the role of background knowledge and schemata in reading comprehension.

## Background knowledge and schemata

Background knowledge is knowledge possessed by the reader that he/she contributes to his/her comprehension of the text. It can consist of general world knowledge, where "world" can refer to a specific culture, language or situation, or it can be specialized, expert knowledge. It allows the reader to process information on the page and to create a mental representation of the content of the text. In terms of information structure and information processing (cf. section 4.2), background knowledge that is coded as such in the text corresponds to old, given information.

In the proofreading example above, familiarity with fixed expressions, syntactic structures and word order for a specific language is an instance of background knowledge, in this case related to linguistic form. In Chapter 4 we mentioned that readers are able to identify genre and text types through various organizational and linguistic features associated with them. This is another example of background knowledge possessed by literate users of a language (often missing in those not exposed to written texts). Organizational patterns can be textual (i.e., text types, genre) or situational. Organizational structures known to the reader and related to a particular situation are known as schemata. In a restaurant situation, in Western cultures, the schema usually includes participants, such as the waiter, the manager and other customers, with specific roles, for instance, welcoming guests and taking them to their table, taking an order, delivering the order, bringing the bill, relaying complaints, etc. Schemata are conceptual organizers that facilitate comprehension of the text, helping the reader form a mental picture. They are part of the reader's background knowledge. The text in Practice 5.1 illustrates the role of schemata in comprehension.

## Practice 5.1: Schemata in comprehension

In a couple of words or so, what is this text about?

> The sequence is quite simple. First you arrange things into different groups. Of course, one pile may be sufficient depending on how much there is to do. If you have to go somewhere else due to lack of facilities, that is the next step, otherwise you are pretty well set. It is important not to overdo things. That is, it is better to do too few things at once than too many. In the short run this may not seem important but complications can easily arise. A mistake can be expensive as well. At first the whole procedure will seem complicated. Soon, however, it will become just another facet of life. It is difficult to foresee any end to the necessity for this task in the immediate future, but then one never can tell. After the procedure is completed one arranges the materials into different groups again. Then they can be put into their appropriate places. Eventually they will be used once more and the whole cycle will then have to be repeated. However, that is part of life.
>
> (Van den Broek and Espin [2010: 2–3], adapted from Bransford and Johnson [1972])

### Commentary

If you have not seen the text before, most likely you probably had trouble answering the question and understanding the text. However, comprehension changes radically if the passage is accompanied by the title *Doing Laundry*. The difference highlights the importance of schemata in comprehension.

When you read the text without the title you were unable to access the necessary schema for comprehension; once the right schema is prompted by the title, comprehension follows effortlessly. In this case, it is the absence of a title that poses difficulties for schema access. However, one can also imagine situations where the relevant schema cannot be accessed because it is not a part of the world knowledge of the reader; for instance, an individual in a remote area of the Amazon may have difficulties with the laundry text (even if written/read in their language). This situation is commonly encountered in translation.

Practice 5.2 helps you understand how background knowledge, specifically expert knowledge, contributes to reading comprehension. Without it, comprehension is seriously affected.

**Practice 5.2:** Background knowledge in reading comprehension

> The moon exerts gravitational pull on the earth. Thereby it contributes to the development of life on earth.
>
> (Van den Broek and Espin [2010: 5])

What is the connection between the moon's gravitational pull and life on earth? How would you paraphrase this text?

**Commentary**

If you have no expert knowledge related to the topic, or had trouble answering the first question, then most likely you also had difficulty with the second one and understanding the text.

Lay readers who are not experts in this topic have little difficulty identifying the referential relation between "it" in the second sentence and "the moon" in the first sentence. There is also a clausal relation between the two sentences clearly marked with the cohesive marker "thereby." However, despite the linguistic markers of cohesion, this relation is hard to establish, because it requires access to expert knowledge that not all readers possess: The moon contributes to the electromagnetic field that protects the development of life on earth from lethal cosmic rays.

## Interactive models of reading comprehension

Most researchers today believe that **reading comprehension** is a **combination of both top-down and bottom-up models**. Excessive or inappropriate reliance on one type of processing or the other may result in flawed comprehension. It is not hard to come up with examples of inappropriate use of one kind of processing strategy to the detriment of the other: Think, for instance, of when we misread the time or address of an event in an email or invitation because we thought we knew it (excessive top-down); or when, bogged down by details, we miss the main point of a story or the purpose of the writer (bottom-up). English even has an idiomatic expression to refer to this type of misguided cognitive processing: "not to see the forest for the trees."

Successful comprehension requires an appropriate combination of both top-down and bottom-up processing; how much of one or the other may be necessary often depends on the type of text and the purpose of reading. Good readers know how to use both types of processing strategy to their benefit. Inexperienced readers or those lacking in some crucial area of textual comprehension may rely excessively on top-down or bottom-up processing in an effort to make up for their deficiencies, while at the same time trying to make the text cohere. This can be the case for some L2 learners who lack linguistic proficiency and overuse background knowledge to compensate, or for those who, lacking pragmatic or textual proficiency, depend excessively on words and structures.

**Interactive models of comprehension** are referred to as such because they view reading as a process by which the reader attempts to construct a coherent mental representation of a text through interaction with it. The reader brings in his/her background knowledge and schemata to discover and build logical connections marked in the text through cohesive devices. When the cues in the text (e.g., cohesive devices) and the reader's knowledge are sufficient to create a coherent mental representation, reading comprehension takes place. In other words, comprehension is successful when the assumptions made by the writer as to what the reader knows, marked through cohesive devices and linguistic markers of new and given information, coincide with what the reader does indeed know. In sum, textual meaning is not an objective reality hidden in the text that the reader must decipher; rather, it is constructed by the reader in interaction with the text.

One important feature of reading comprehension closely related to its interactive nature is its variability. In other words, the mental representations created by readers of the same text show variation, even successful examples of comprehension. Since reading is an interactive process in which the reader creates meaning by relating textual elements to his/her background, knowledge and experiences, textual understanding cannot be a fixed abstraction but must be a fluid construct that reflects variation according to multiple factors, such as readers' individual characteristics, time, language, culture, socioeconomic factors, etc. And yet, not unlike oral communication, which is possible despite many individual and social differences, successful textual comprehension happens, among much variation, due to a common core of representation shared by the reader and the writer.

This idea of a common core in reading comprehension is important for our purposes because it brings us back to the notion of equivalence in translation seen in Chapter 1. If textual comprehension and communication are subject to variation so that two readers' understanding of the same text is never exactly the same, the goal of equivalence and equivalent effect in translation seems an idealistic, prescriptivist target, with no empirical or descriptive basis to support it. This is even more so in translation, as a complex web of reader/writer roles emerges, with some playing multiple roles as readers and writers (e.g., the translator is a reader of the original, the writer and a reader of the target text; the target reader is also a reader of the target text).

Figure 5.1 presents a visual summary of reading as an interactive process, including the concepts of scenes and frames to be discussed in the next section.

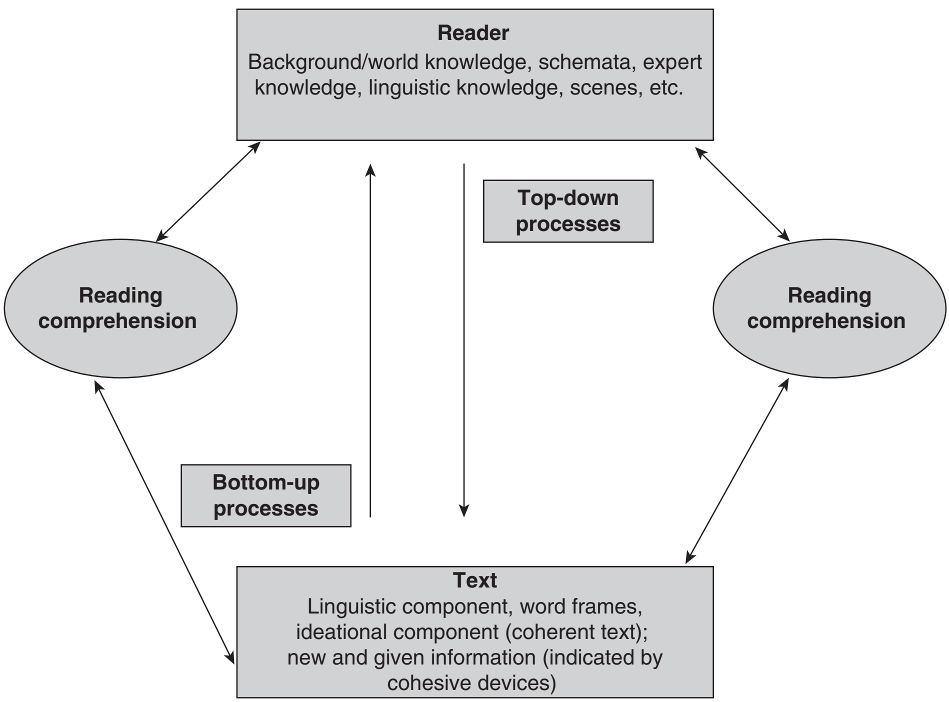



**Figure 5.1** Reading as an interactive process.

## Semantic models

Traditionally, the analysis of meaning (semantics) has occupied a prominent place in translation. Some theories of meaning (e.g., componential semantics) propose that meaning is made up of smaller components that, when contrasted, serve to highlight differences within and across languages. For instance, a term like "child" in English would be made up of the components [+human] [+young] [+/−male], whereas "man" consists of [+human] [+adult] [+male]; Spanish *niño* is [+human] [+young], like "child," but it is [+male]. In practice, this type of analysis (known as componential analysis) is not always very useful for the translator because (i) it is time-consuming; (ii) not all meaning can be neatly divided into components or contrasted; and (iii) it is too focused on word meaning.

Frames-and-scenes semantics (Fillmore [1976], [1977]) offers an explanation of word meaning that ties into textual meaning, textual comprehension and the notions of top-down and bottom-up processing just introduced. In this model, words are the frames that activate mental scenes or pictures related to past experiences and world knowledge. For comprehension to take place, frames must activate the proper scenes (i.e., those that fit into the mental representation of the text). In this context, word meaning acquires a new dimension: Words (frames) do not have meaning per se, only potential meanings (scenes), which are realized through context activation. When context activates the relevant meaning of the word to fit a particular scene, this meaning is foregrounded or activated, and the others are suppressed (or never activated). Thus, processing is bottom-up, from the word that activates various scenes (meanings) to the potential scenes, and top-down, as the reader, making use of his/her world knowledge, selects the correct meaning through the foregrounding of the scene that best fits the mental representation of the text.

Example 5.1 illustrates how various scenes present in a word, "piano," are differentially activated as a function of context (Barclay et al. [1974: 472]; also in Kussmaul [1995]). Pianos are heavy, musical, made largely of wood, have a large surface perpendicular to gravitational pull, and a characteristic shape and beauty. Each of these properties is foregrounded in each of the sentences in Example 5.1 (a–e) respectively, while others are deactivated.

### Example 5.1: Activation of scenes as a function of context

a. The man lifted the piano. (heavy)
b. The man tuned the piano. (musical)
c. The man smashed the piano. (made of wood)
d. The man sat on the piano. (surface to sit on)
e. The man photographed the piano. (beautiful)

The riddle in Example 5.2 illustrates how scenes work in textual comprehension. See if you can solve it without looking at the answer.

### Example 5.2: Scene activation in reading comprehension

Riddle: What goes through a door but never comes in or goes out?

The answer is "a keyhole." If you did not guess the answer, think about why. Among the scenes associated with "go through/come in/come out" the context (the mental representation of the text) activates a scene containing a doorway and a human or living agent (e.g., a dog, a cat). By activating this meaning component and suppressing alternative ones (e.g., the actual door vs. the doorway), your understanding of the text is steered away from other potential scenes (i.e., a door = solid inanimate object) that could lead you to the right answer/frame, that is, a keyhole. In sum, in Example 5.2, the reading comprehension process is purposely manipulated to lead the reader astray, thus making it difficult to find the answer to the riddle.

Consider now Example 5.3, a translation example from Kussmaul (1995: 94–95).

### Example 5.3: Background knowledge in reading and in translation

Background: In Oscar Wilde's *The Importance of Being Earnest*, Lady Bracknell finds out that Jack, who wants to marry his niece, has a country house. She immediately becomes interested and asks:

"A country house! How many bedrooms?"

The number of bedrooms is a conventional measure of the size of a house in British English. Lady Bracknell's purpose is to ascertain Jack's financial situation. Consequently, the scene activated by "bedroom" in this context is simply a room, one in which the presence of a bed is not important. Kussmaul tells us that some German translations replace "bedroom" with *Schlafzimmer* ("Ein Landhaus! Wieviele Schlafzimmer?"). Referring to the size of a house in German by the number of bedrooms is unusual; in addition, the term *Schlafzimmer* refers to a room that has a bed in it. In sum, the scene foregrounded in German may leave readers wondering about why the old lady is interested in bedrooms, definitely not the scene evoked by "bedroom" in the English context.

We cannot discuss word meaning, especially in the context of translation, without referring to dictionaries. Bilingual dictionaries in particular give equivalents in the target language for each term they list. They do this by offering a target language "frame" – recall that frames are words that activate mental pictures or scenes – which corresponds to an equivalent frame in the source language. In translating a text, translators must choose between a range of frames available to them and locate one that will activate the necessary scene for the target text. In order to make the correct selection, the translator needs to have sufficient knowledge of the target language and culture to determine which of the frames in the dictionary (if any) is associated with the appropriate scene for the text.

Two challenges arise in this context: First, misunderstanding of the nature of word meaning and of translation may lead to the selection of inadequate dictionary equivalents (cognates, literal translations, etc.); and, second, subjects reading in their second language (e.g., language learners or translators translating into the native language) often have no scene for a particular frame or frames. As a result, determining which of the various target-language frames provided by the bilingual dictionary matches the scene created by the text becomes a guessing-game. Example 5.4 presents an example of the first situation, in which translators selected the wrong frame most likely due to their misunderstanding how word meaning works and their defective use of reading comprehension processes.

### **Example 5.4:** Frames, scenes and the bilingual dictionary

Dos piezas que datan del período <u>comprendido</u> entre 330AC y 800
*Two pieces that data from-the period included between 330BC and 800*

son especialmente notables, y cada una representa un símbolo mítico.
*are especially noteworthy, and each one represents one symbol mythic*

Especially valuable are two pieces [dating] from the period between 330BC and 800, each representing a mythic symbol.

From Saboia (1990: 59).

The example comes from student translations collected over a number of years in an introductory translation course and is mentioned in Colina (2003). Among the students, who were native speakers of English translating into Spanish, a common translation for Spanish *comprendido* was 'known.' *Comprendido* can certainly be associated with knowledge and achieving understanding, but another scene evoked by this term is that of space or time in between two points. In fact, in this text, the only scene activated by *comprendido* for a native speaker is that of a time period between two points; others, such as the achievement of understanding or knowledge, are never activated because they are unrelated to the scene created by the text.

The students' processes, however, are quite different. They do not involve foregrounding or suppression of the feature or scenes associated with *comprendido* at all. Instead, they look up the term in a bilingual dictionary (or retrieve from memory a list of English frames) and select 'known,' probably because it is more prominent, more common or maybe even the first frame listed. The students obviously selected the frame 'known' and plugged it into the text without considering that the text was talking about a time period, and that therefore 'known' did not fit the scene created by the text. From this, it can also be inferred that the students' comprehension process does not involve the creation or restructuring of schemata as they make their way through the text, but rather the replacement of linguistic signs.

If comprehension had proceeded normally, the fact that *comprendido* was an unknown term would not have been an obstacle to the selection of the

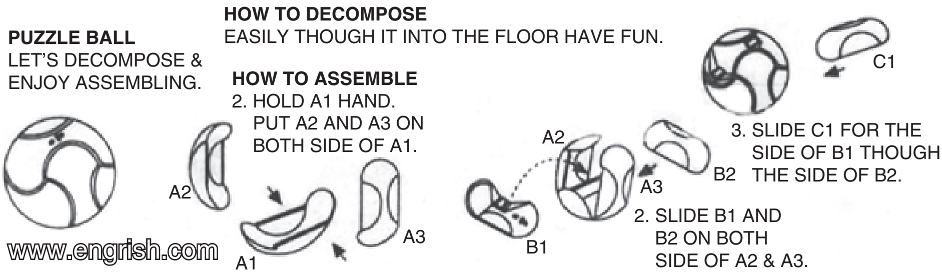



**Figure 5.2** Misuse of bilingual dictionary – unavailable scene.

appropriate scene, since the presence of a date before, and another after, would have been sufficient to activate the idea of a time period. This scene would have facilitated the selection of the correct frame among dictionary equivalents.

The difficulty entailed in the process of target-term selection among dictionary equivalents is further compounded by the fact that the meaning potential contained in language-specific words does not match across languages. The translator needs to be aware of these differences and retain those meaning components essential to the function of the target text by using a variety of linguistic tools, not merely lexical items. Parallel texts and corpora are useful tools for researching and acquiring the scenes associated with particular words that do not appear in dictionaries.

Consider now Figure 5.2 as an example of the problems involved in bilingual dictionaries. It also illustrates the mismatch in meaning potential across languages. In Figure 5.2, the target text contains the term 'decompose,' which clearly evokes the wrong scene (e.g., decay, of a dead body; or breaking down into smaller pieces, of a chemical). The scene created by the text, however, is that of breaking an object apart, thus necessitating the word 'disassemble.' In other words, the correct frame matching the scene should be 'disassemble,' as seen in the picture.

This example suggests that in bilingual-dictionary look-up the translator came across 'decompose,' a possible choice among other target options/frames; without any available scenes for these target-language terms, the translator went with 'decompose.'

We mentioned above that in order to make up for missing scenes in their second language, translators can use online and electronic corpora. A search of

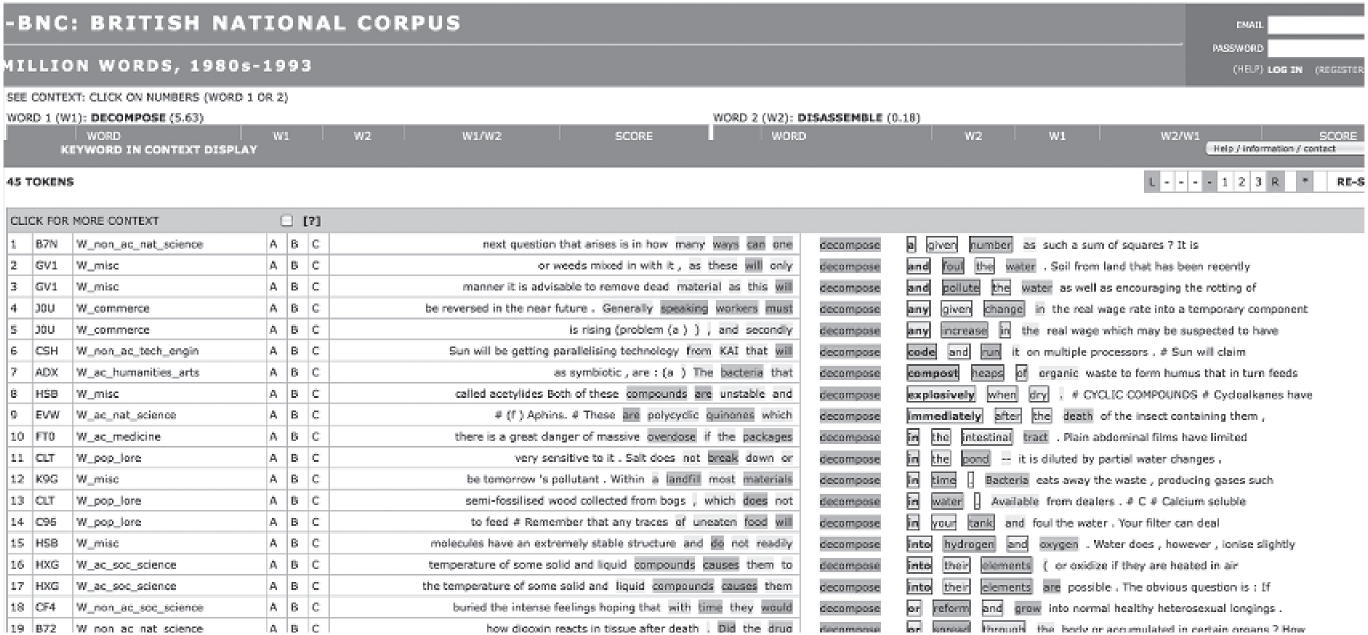



**Figure 5.3** British National Corpus: Sample of a search for word in context.

'decompose' would have revealed sufficient examples evoking scenes very different from the one needed here. See, for instance, Figure 5.3, a screen capture of a search on the British National Corpus, showing also collocates, and revealing that the words most frequently appearing with 'decompose' are 'compound' and 'materials.'

To summarize, scenes-and-frame semantics highlights the fact that dictionary look-up is not a matter of linguistic replacement, but of finding the linguistic unit(s) that, with the rest of the author's directions encoded in the text, will permit activation of the meaning(s) that are the best fit for the overall textual plan.

## 5.2 Reading and translation

This section explicitly addresses the implications for translation and translation practice of the models of reading comprehension reviewed above. It covers the following areas: reading as interaction in translation; reading and language directionality in translation; reading for translation purposes; and understanding reading in translation.

### Reading as interaction in translation

Recall that, as seen in section 5.1, reading is an interactive process in which a reader brings his/her contribution to the text in the form of schemata and world knowledge. Although the context we referred to then was mostly a monolingual one, the reader probably realized that the interactive nature of reading has significant implications for translation.

Reading comprehension within a translation context comprises multiple levels of comprehension. The translation process involves multiple readers: the translator (as a reader of the source and the target), the target-text reader, proofreaders, revisers, etc., who construct meaning from the text and form mental images, guided by the task of creating a target text for a target-text reader. As discussed earlier in this chapter, and assuming there are no comprehension issues, readers of a source text can form somewhat different mental images of it because of the interactive nature of reading and the differing world experiences of each reader. A translation situation adds an extra layer of complexity to the reading of the source text because translation professionals generally belong to a multiplicity of linguistic and cultural backgrounds, which they bring to their comprehension of the text.

Finally, to obtain a complete picture of reading as interaction, one should not forget the writer and his/her role with regard to the reader. Recall from Chapter 4 that writers make assumptions about what their readers do and do not know, marking the information in the text accordingly, as new or given information. With the exception of texts written to be translated (for instance, in multinational companies or other large organizations like the European Union, which write a source text to be translated into multiple languages), the reader of the translation is not the one anticipated by the writer, and, therefore, many of the assumptions made with respect to his/her knowledge and schemata will not apply. This may happen accidentally in monolingual texts, but it is, by definition, the situation in translation, further complicating the relationship of the reader with the text. What all of this means is that multiple readers bring in multiple perspectives and potential variation with respect to reading in the context of translation.

Although the reader of the target text tends to be the ultimate reader in translation, awareness of the reality of multiple intermediary readers provides for a better understanding of the translation process and the decisions associated with it. One should not forget that before the target text makes it to the reader, the text will already have gone through multiple readings. While this was irrelevant for older models that viewed textual meaning as an objective reality contained in the text, it is crucial once we accept that reading is by nature interactive.

Figure 5.4 summarizes in a visual way the main points presented in this section.

## Reading and language directionality in translation

An additional factor that adds to the complexity of reading in a translation context is language proficiency. Despite the widely held belief among practitioners that translators should be perfectly bilingual, balanced proficiency in

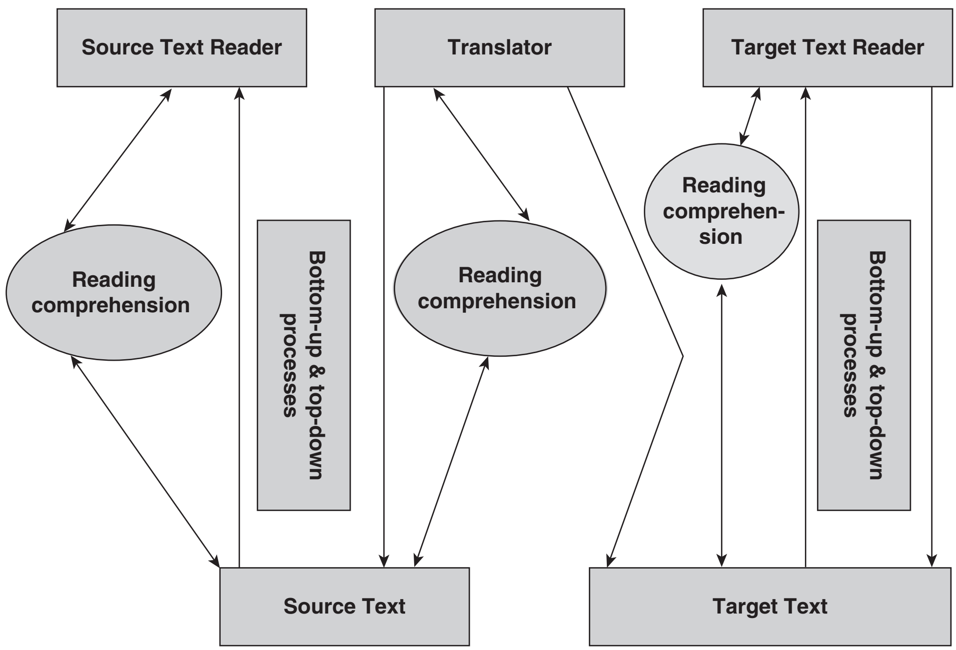



**Figure 5.4** Reading and translation.

translators is more of a prescriptivist myth than a descriptive fact. In reality, most translators are not perfectly bilingual (i.e., compound bilinguals), and linguistic proficiency, no matter how advanced, can be the source of translation difficulties. In the best of cases, when the directionality of translation is into the first or dominant language, reading is influenced by language proficiency, as the translator will be reading in his/her second (or less dominant) language. As a second-language reader, in addition to linguistic issues (e.g., lexicon, syntax, etc.), the translator may experience problems accessing the right background knowledge (cultural, situational) and the relevant scenes for the frames in the text. This is probably what happened to the Spanish translator of the text in Figure 5.5a, who drew on mistaken background information (and mostly likely cultural stereotypes) to render "Alabama wilderness" into "the wild state of Alabama" (*el salvaje estado de Alabama*).

Example 5.5, taken from Kussmaul (1995: 34–35), illustrates the defective use of top-down processes (to the detriment of bottom-up processing) by two student translators, (a) and (b).

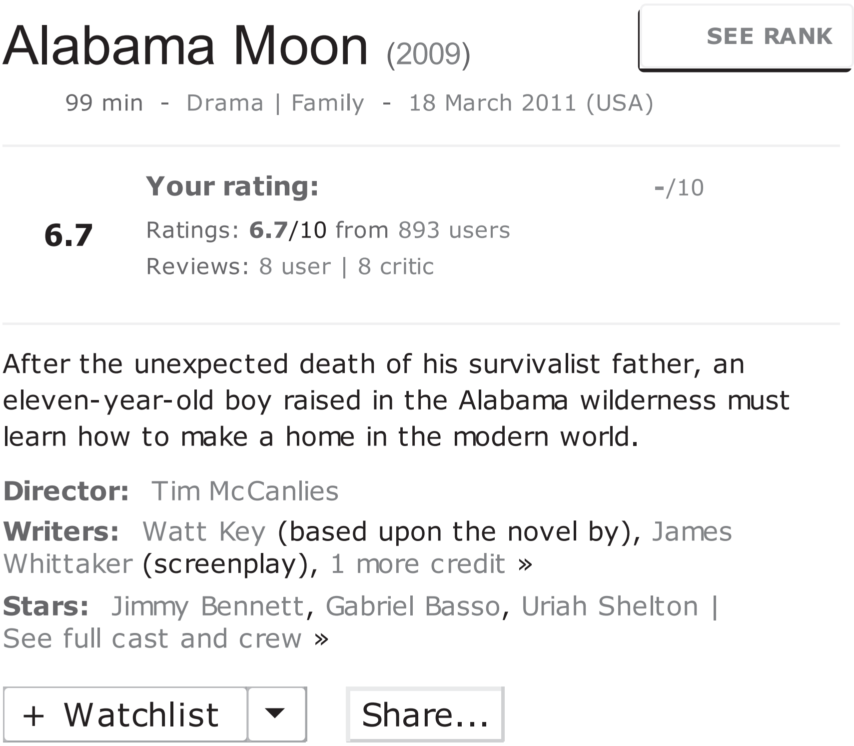



**Figure 5.5a** Background information: Movie synopsis. English.

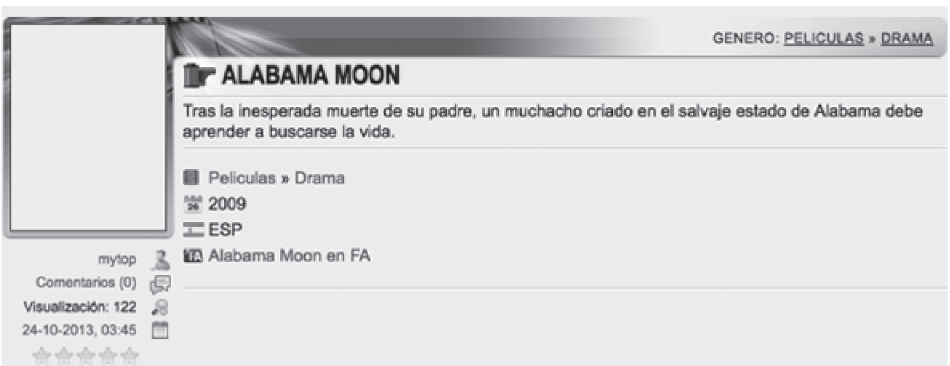



**Figure 5.5b** Background information: Movie synopsis. Spanish.

## **Example 5.5:** Overreliance on top-down processes in translation

English source text:

. . .both men and women share the same images of what makes a marriageable or unmarriageable woman, a good husband, a fascinating lover whom any woman would be a fool to marry, or a born old bachelor.

Margaret Mead. 1962. *Male and Female.* Harmondsworth: Penguin Books. p. 271.

German target text:

(a) . . .einen faszinierenden Liebhaber, den jede Frau auf der Stelle heiraten würde.

(b) . . .einen faszinierenden Liebhaber, den jede Frau sofort heiraten würde.

The German target texts say the opposite of the English source. As Kussmaul explains, one can make a good case that the female translators let their culturally determined notions of the ideal husband (based on late twentieth-century notions of sex and romance as essential to marriage) take over comprehension, impeding the bottom-up processing necessary to render the content of the source.

One way to deal with comprehension issues due to linguistic proficiency is through the understanding of reading processes and coping strategies. Even the best, most knowledgeable first-language readers will sometimes face comprehension problems. What makes them good readers is not perfect comprehension, but awareness. Executive control over the reading process is important because it alerts the reader to deficiencies in comprehension and initiates the use of strategies to make up for them. Some of these strategies consist of activating relevant background knowledge; allocating attention to the major points over the trivia; critically evaluating content for consistency with prior knowledge; self-monitoring to see whether comprehension is happening; and drawing on and testing inferences, etc. (Palincsar and Brown [1984: 120]). As we mentioned above, and due to his/her language proficiency and the need to work with a wider variety of texts, the translator will often face more challenges than a monolingual reader. Consequently, translators must be aware of when and how comprehension fails, in order to: (i) determine how to fill in knowledge gaps; and

(ii) see whether knowledge gaps can be filled in a reasonable and timely manner (through research, consultation, parallel texts, etc.).

Read-aloud protocol research has shown that novices and student translators often make ineffective use of reading strategies, such as bottom-up and top-down processing; sometimes they depend excessively on previous knowledge, filling in information that is not present in the text (these are often content experts who are overconfident), or they get stuck on unknown words or linguistic structures without realizing that knowledge of the world can offer valuable assistance. As mentioned above, the text in Example 5.4 offers an excellent illustration of deficient use of top-down processing, because the readers could have filled in an adequate term in the English target text, even without recognizing the word in the source text. In addition, the translators in that example would have benefited from monitoring strategies: a cursory reading of the target text (which was in the translators' native language in Example 5.4, and thus unrelated to language proficiency) should have been sufficient to spot a problem in the target text.

Translators can resort to strategic reading to improve reading comprehension. General reading strategies are closely tied to a better understanding of reading in general and, more specifically, in translation. In a classroom setting, a fill-in-the-blank activity, such as in Example 5.6, illustrates a way to make students aware of their own reading processes in connection with translation, even in their native language.

### **Example 5.6:** Sample fill-in-the-blank exercise: Reading processes in translation

Exercise: Complete the target text by filling in the blanks. Do not use any dictionaries or other resource.

Dos piezas que datan del período <u>comprendido</u> entre 300AC y 800 son especialmente notables, y cada una representa un símbolo mítico.

'Especially valuable are two pieces from the period ________ 300BC and 800, each representing a mythic symbol.'

Reading comprehension activities, such as those in Colina (2003: 92–93), can also be used to activate readers' prior knowledge, while familiarizing them with the use of background knowledge in reading and in translation. An

**Reading comprehension**

*The text is a survey to determine what type of refuse collection – alley- or curbside – is preferred by residents.*

*The comprehension test could be done in class before pre-translation activities.*

> *This text appears deceptively simple. Note, however, that there could be comprehension problems – for instance, for students who are not residents of the Chandler, Arizona, area. In this regard, this is a good text for explaining the role of background knowledge in translation; it also serves to demonstrate that it isn't just terminology or technical knowledge that can pose problems for the translator.*
>
> 1. What does "alley" mean? And "curbside"? Do not look them up in the dictionary at this point. As a class, try to guess what these terms could be referring to in the text. Discuss what you know about how refuse is collected.
> (*Brainstorming session. Guide the discussion. After some discussion, especially if the students still don't know what the issue is, allow them to look up the words in the dictionary. Point out to them the limitations of the dictionary*.)
>
> 2. Your teacher will provide you with some information relative to trash pick-up in certain areas of the United States (if you haven't already obtained that information during your class discussion).
> (*Explain how trash is collected in certain areas of the United States. Houses are separated by an alley where dumpsters are located. These alleys are easily accessible through the back-yard doors, so that residents can take out and deposit their trash in the dumpsters whenever necessary. Once or twice a week waste trucks come through the alleys to empty the dumpsters*.)
> Think about how this piece of information has modified your "refuse collection" scene (review notions of frames/scenes). Does this piece of knowledge affect your ability to translate the text? How?
>
> 3. Why would alley collection raise concerns about "alley debris, illegal dumping, overflowing containers and safety"? Discuss this with your classmates and your teacher.

Italic text: for the teacher.

**Figure 5.6** Reading comprehension for translators (Colina [2003: 92]).

example is included in Figure 5.6. The text to be translated is a short cover letter and a survey in which residents of the city of Chandler, Arizona, are asked which type of refuse collection they would like – alley- or curbside service (2003: 96–97). To translate this text, students must be in possession of the background knowledge relative to a specific method of trash collection. Otherwise they will lack the mental scene necessary for comprehension of the source text, which includes such lines as:

> The City is conducting a survey to determine what type of refuse collection is desired – alley- or curbside service. (*cover letter*)
>
> or
>
> I want curbside collection/I want alleyside collection (*survey*)

The exercises (along with the teacher instructions in italics) in Figure 5.6 are meant to help the student create the following scene: Dumpsters are placed in an alley behind rows of houses and are accessible through a back door in their yard. Trash trucks drive through the alley and collect the refuse. This keeps the dumpsters and trash out of sight. Once they understand how alley collection works, reading comprehension of the source text will become much easier.

## Reading for translation purposes

Good readers are aware of different purposes in reading and adjust their strategies accordingly. Reading for translation in general is one specific type of reading, which typically requires detailed, close attention and multiple readings. The purpose of the reading of the source text is, in turn, closely related to the purpose of the translation (i.e., the translation brief), as the translator reads to translate, to create a target text for a particular purpose specified in the brief.

Philosophers like Hans-Georg Gadamer consider that reading per se entails an act of translation and that, therefore, translation is translation for the second time. Just as reading involves translation, translation involves multiple levels of readings and readers, i.e., the translator and other professionals engaged in the translation process (who will read both the source and target text), the readers of the source text and the intended readers of the target text (who in their reading may or may not be aware that the text is a translation, thus reading it separately or somehow in connection with the source text).

In sum, reading for translation is by definition much more intricate than reading per se, and significantly much more complex than traditionally recognized. Translation and reading are also intimately connected. A solid understanding of reading contributes to a better understanding of translation and vice versa. Misunderstanding of the process of reading comprehension can affect the notion of translation, as it often has – for instance, when the former is seen as a decoding operation automatically resulting from language acquisition (reading word-by-word). This often leads to word-for-word translation.

## Summary

Reading research has advanced significantly over the last few decades. Leaving aside inaccurate concepts of the past related to deciphering or decoding a static and objective textual meaning contained in a static text, reading comprehension is now conceptualized as an interactive process in which the reader contributes his/her knowledge to the process in interaction with the information presented in the text by the author. Comprehension cannot happen without the participation of the reader. When the assumptions made by the author regarding what the reader knows match the reader's knowledge, comprehension will most likely be successful. Yet, careful attention to the relevant details in the text is also important, as overreliance on prior knowledge will affect comprehension by filling in information not present in the text. The reader needs to use the appropriate combination of bottom-up and top-down processes, for the text and for reading purposes. Good readers also use strategic reading to monitor reading difficulties and make up for them. An interactive notion of reading entails some variation around a common core, rather than a static notion of comprehension.

Semantic models of word meaning such as scene and frame semantics explain that words do not have meaning per se, but only meaning potential that is activated in the text, as the reader starts to form a mental picture; these models are very adequate for the understanding of word meaning in connection with textual meaning, rather than as a separate notion.

Once reading is seen as an interactive process, and the reader's characteristics are recognized as playing an active role in the process, the relevance for translation becomes obvious. Some important aspects of reading in translation are: the translator as a reader; translation involving multiple readers who bring a variety of features to the reading process; translators belonging to various cultures, whose background knowledge is therefore more diverse than that of the readers of the original; and language proficiency affecting the reading process in translation, especially when the translator is a second-language reader.

Awareness of reading processes and of the nature of reading is crucial for anyone involved in translation. Awareness can be created in the classroom by teaching these concepts, through independent learning, using resources like this book and through practical exercises that focus on specific aspects of reading comprehension.

## Key words

Top-down, bottom-up models of reading comprehension, world knowledge, background knowledge, schemata, interactive models of comprehension, frames-and-scenes semantics, frames, scenes, bilingual dictionaries.

## Exercises

Exercise 1

Indicate whether the following statements are illustrations of bottom-up (BU) or top-down (TD) processing.

(a) Individual handwritten letters are easier to decipher in a language we know than in one we do not know because we can use ________ processing.
(b) When we type we sometimes miss some commonly used short words, such as "a," "the." If the writer reviews the writing, he/she is likely to continue to miss the word. This is due to excessive reliance on ________ processing.
(c) Computers have a hard time discriminating between meanings of the same word (e.g., polysemous words) because they have trouble accessing the information necessary for ______ processing.
(d) Looking up all unknown words in a text in a bilingual dictionary, writing down their dictionary equivalents and proceeding with the text is an example of _______ processing.
(e) A proofreader checking for typos is relying heavily on ______ processing.

Exercise 2

How are background knowledge, schemata, world knowledge, prior knowledge and expert knowledge similar *or* different?

**Exercise 3**

Include an example from your field of expertise along the lines of the one in Example 5.2. Explain the role played by expert knowledge in the comprehension of your segment.

**Exercise 4**

Find an example of machine-translated output (e.g., Google Translate, etc.). Examine the translation and find one mistranslation due to misuse of world knowledge (i.e., defective top-down processing).

**Exercise 5**

Which of the following attributes do you associate with reading as an interactive process and/or with a translation process that sees reading as interactive? Underline your selections.

Static meaning
Decoding
Variation in textual comprehension
Interaction between reader and text
Objective meaning
Equivalence
Meaning construction
Equivalence dependent on context
Meaning hidden in the text
Fluid mental image of the text

**Exercise 6**

Explain what is meant by "a word in isolation does not have meaning, only potential meanings."

**Exercise 7**

The term *interpretation* can be associated with various properties that activate related scenes: e.g., a. detailed, analytical, explanatory; b. artistic and personal, work of art, dramatic part, music, etc.; c. bilingual and professional. Indicate which scene is activated in each of the sentences below:

1. The actor's *interpretation* of the role of Hamlet did not appeal to the public.
2. Constitutional *interpretation*, even with seemingly clear passages with straightforward language, is far more complicated than many seem to think.
3. The contestant was eliminated from the competition because his *interpretation* of the play was found to be too radical for the judges.
4. The exam on analysis and *interpretation* of literature includes questions on passages taken from American and British literature.
5. The judge questioned the reliability of the *interpretation* on the basis of a series of mistakes made by the interpreter working with the witnesses.

## Further reading

Within the context of translation, Roger (1991: 211–228) offers a description of reading as text processing, a problem-solving activity, similar to writing. Kussmaul (1995: chapter 5) discusses meaning and reading in comprehension and translation, with translation examples. Snell-Hornby (1995: 79–86) addresses frames-and-scenes semantics and word meaning from the point of view of translation studies.

# 6 Social aspects of translating

## 6.0 INTRODUCTION

Language and language use are influenced by **social factors**, such as socio-economic background, education, register, participants and power relations, etc. **Sociolinguistics** is an area of linguistics that studies how social factors are reflected in language. All of these elements are responsible for a significant amount of variation in language, which is in turn closely related to language change. This chapter goes over notions of **sociolinguistics**, **language variation** and **language change** in order to understand how they affect translation and what their implications for translation practice are. Some the topics to be addressed are: the nature of language change and variation, dialectal variation, social variation, prestigious varieties vs. stigmatized ones, registers and translating in multilingual societies.

## 6.1 Language variation and change

In this section we briefly examine the nature of variation and change, and the connection between the two. We also highlight their relevance to translation practice.

Most of us are aware that there is variation in how we use language. The English spoken in India is different from that of the United Kingdom and that of Ireland. Moreover, one person's English will differ from one context to another and from one day to the next. All languages are affected by variation, and all languages are affected by change. Change is an unavoidable aspect of life. People, places, nature, etc., are all subject to change over time, and human language is no different. Variation and change are essential to language, which, like any human activity, is in constant flux.

Unlike variation, language change, however, is very difficult to observe, especially for an individual, because it is very slow, to the point that generally it is only noticeable across generations. Furthermore, change takes place on a continuum in time, so there is no clear line separating the language before and after the changes. Terms such as Old English, Middle English, Old French, Old Spanish, etc., which may suggest discrete entities across time, are just convenient terminological labels for those who study the language of that period. They are used to refer to a stage in the evolution of a language – that is, a linguistic system with a specific group of characteristics at a specific point in time.

An additional factor that makes language change difficult to notice is that it is gradual and often preceded by variation: Change often has its origins in variant forms. When one of the variant forms completely replaces the other(s), change can be said to have taken place. An example of change that originated in variation is found in the history of English. Unlike in Modern English, the double negative (e.g., "I don't have no time") was the standard in Old and Middle English. By Shakespeare's time, however, the double negative was rarely used by educated speakers, although it was still found in many dialects.

Variation is an inherent element of language found not only in previous stages, but also in the present. Example 6.1 illustrates this variation in

American English today. It includes examples of alternative forms ([a] and [b] for each sentence) that can be found in this language today.

### Example 6.1: Language variation in contemporary American English

1a. This situation must remain between you and me.
1b. This situation must remain between you and I.
2a. As I said before, you do not need to go over this chapter.
2b. Like I said before, you do not need to go over this chapter.
3a. I think I did well on the test.
3b. I think I did good on the test.

In Example 6.1, the (a) sentence in each example contains the grammatical, normative version; yet, the (b) form is just as common, or even more common, in spoken English. In (1b), for instance, speakers apply a mistaken analogical pattern, the correct grammatical (and formal) subject form "You and I" (e.g., "You and I need to go to class") to "between you and I." This is, of course, a case of hypercorrection, as the presence of the preposition "between" requires the use of the object case, "me." The sentences in (2b) and (3b) involve cases of misapplication of a grammatical rule. All in all, it is not difficult to imagine a future scenario in which the ungrammatical (b) forms will have become the standard. Bearing in mind the slow pace of language change, however, it is unlikely that this will take place soon.

Reactions to change are often negative. One reason for this is that writing, a more permanent and stable medium, is frequently associated with education, formality, higher economic status and more prestigious forms of language. Change, however, tends to originate in oral, informal and generally less prestigious varieties, where variation is more common because of the nature of the oral medium. Therefore, innovative varieties of a language are frequently considered corrupt and are accompanied by attempts to stop and slow down the "erosion" of the rules.

As seen above for Old English, the history of many languages provides evidence of variant forms that led to change in later stages. The innovative, less prestigious forms were considered "errors," and grammarians attempted to correct them (thus effectively trying to prevent change). In some cases, the standard, prestigious form loses out to the innovative one, as in the case of the double negative in English, where the Old English standard, the double negative, becomes the less prestigious form in Modern English.

The *Appendix Probi*, an appendix to a third- or fourth-century book traditionally attributed to Latin grammarian Valerius Probus, offers some examples in the evolution from Latin to the Romance languages where the grammarian advises against the use of some innovative forms, indicating what the correct form should be. Interestingly enough, many centuries later we now know that these innovative forms represent systematic changes in the history of the Romance languages and are much closer to the current forms than the prescriptive ones. Example 6.2 contains some of the items included in the *Appendix* along with the corrections by "Probus." (a) shows the elision of an unstressed vowel (spec<u>u</u>lum>speclum); (b) is an example of the change ns>s, which also gave Spanish *isla* 'island,' from *insula* (along with deletion of the unstressed vowel 'u'); (c) evidences early palatalization of /e/ that becomes /i/ after some consonants like [k] or [n], sometimes affecting the consonant as well, as in Spanish n>ñ; and (d) shows the loss of declensional endings (class and function markers) at the end of some words.

**Example 6.2:** *Appendix Probi*: Variation as the source of change

(a) Speculum NON speclum (cf. Modern Spanish *espejo*)
    Oculus NON oclus (cf. Modern Spanish *ojo*)
(b) Ansa NON asa (cf. Modern Spanish asa)
    Mensa NON mesa (cf. Modern Spanish mesa)
(c) Lancea NON lancia (cf. Modern Spanish *lanza*)
    Vinea NON vinia (cf. Modern Spanish *viña*)
(d) Numquam NON numqua (cf. Modern Spanish *nunca*)

As you may have realized by now, one conclusion that can be drawn here is that today's languages (e.g., Modern Spanish, Modern English, etc.) often come from what were, at one point in time, considered "corrupt" versions of the language. In what follows we review why these concepts are useful to translation and translators.

## Understanding language variation and change: Why should translators care?

While language variation and change and the concepts reviewed in the preceding section may be of interest to many readers, those who want to learn more about the practice of translation may, with good reason, wonder about their relevance for translation. This section explains why understanding language variation and change is crucial to those involved in translation.

### (i) Debunking language myths in translation practice

As a general principle, a translator would be well advised to base his/her selection of the language variety for the target text on the basis of the translation brief and translation specifications, rather than on social perceptions of the status of specific varieties. And yet, a translator who does not have an understanding of the nature of language variation and change, of language varieties, and of how society views them and assigns values to them is likely to base his/her translation decisions on the social views and values of the society he/she belongs to. Unlike such fields as chemistry, engineering, etc., language is part of human societies and is not exclusively the domain of language experts. As a result, most adult individuals come to language professions or language classes with some sort of view on language and language varieties, which may not necessarily be in line with current knowledge in the relevant fields (e.g., translation studies, communication studies, linguistics, etc.). As a result, inadequate views on language variation and change can affect the translation process and the translation product in significant ways.

Consider, for instance, the case of contact and border varieties. These are language varieties that coexist in various conditions across political and geographical borders, or even within them in the case of contact dialects. Speakers of non-contact varieties of the same languages often refer to them as "corrupt" forms of the language and avoid them as a rule. While some of these forms and features may be truly unacceptable for some translation briefs (see Chapter 2 on the translation brief), the same can be true of textbook-like, normative varieties. Translators need to be cognizant of these issues to make informed, professional decisions. Practice 6.1 shows how two translators go about selecting the best variety for their translation, with choices involving a prestigious and non-prestigious variety of a language.

## **Practice 6.1:** Choosing a language variety for a target text

### Background

Two translators are asked by an agency to translate an educational brochure on diabetes for a community clinic in South Texas. The patients who visit these clinics tend to be monolingual Spanish speakers, immigrants, working in agriculture or construction, with an elementary-school education. The goal of the translation is to educate these patients and to encourage them to take care of their diabetes.

(a) A translator – Mr. Jerome – just moved from Mexico City to the United States. Mr. Jerome decides to translate these materials into normative Spanish, using the formal register typical of written materials for this variety, because that is the "best Spanish." He holds the view that Southwest Spanish is a corrupt form of Spanish and that the readers need to be educated.

(b) Another translator – Ms. Linguist – is a native speaker of Peninsular Spanish. However, she decides to go for the local variety of Southwest Spanish found in the Spanish media in Texas, with the help of a local colleague.

Which translation – Mr. Jerome's (a) or Ms. Linguist's (b) – will come closer to accomplishing the commissioner's goal? Why? Which translator was unaware of the issues presented in section 6.1? What were the criteria used by Mr. Jerome and Ms. Linguist in choosing one language variety?

### **Commentary**

Ms. Linguist's translation has a better chance of educating the patients and having them take care of their diabetes. As you probably imagined, these patients may have a hard time reading Mr. Jerome's brochure. It is hard enough to have to learn about diabetes, especially for people with a basic level of education, but having to try to understand a different language variety will definitely demotivate them.

Ms. Linguist made decisions on the basis of the translation brief, not on her personal or social views about a specific variety of the language. She was aware of social views of language and language variation (Example 6.1). Mr. Jerome, unaware of how society influences our perceptions of language change and variation, and of the translation brief, decided, with the best of intentions, to produce the best translation possible, i.e., with the best Spanish he knew how to produce.

Using the appropriateness of a specific variety for a specific translation brief to make a translation decision (the policy followed by Ms. Linguist in Practice 6.1) reflects a view of language change and variation more consonant with the realities of translation than following social perceptions. While some normative varieties may be prestigious and socially desirable because they are often associated with the educated and with a higher socioeconomic status, the translation context and instructions will require a range of varieties, which the translator needs to be able to select according to the brief, rather than assume that the normative variety is, by default, the best one. Each translation task requires consideration of the specific requirements of the job to determine the language variety most appropriate for it.

A comparison with the world of fashion may be useful here: While a formal suit may be elegant and expensive, it would be entirely inappropriate for an informal gathering with friends or for going on a picnic. Similarly, one would not want to wear shorts to the state governor's reception. In sum, one needs to be able to dress according to the occasion, independently of how beautiful or expensive the clothes in one's closet might be. The same can be said about the language variety used for a particular translation task, where the situation and purpose of the translation often determine the most adequate target language variety to use.

When evaluative and social labels are removed, a "corrupt" form of language is nothing more than a language variety, affected by variation and change in a specific way, due to the inevitable nature of change, as well as to such other factors as language contact, social and economic issues, and sometimes even system-internal reasons (simplification of sounds, regularization of irregular structures, etc.). Whether a particular variety is considered prestigious, less prestigious or even corrupt has to do with how a society or group of individuals views it, as well as its relationship to social factors, and not to any linguistic feature of the language itself. Some examples of prestigious language varieties are Katharevousa Greek, Classical Arabic, Classical Latin, Castilian Spanish, High German, etc. Less prestigious forms are Demotic Greek, the Arabic vernaculars, Popular (or Vulgar) Latin, Southwest Spanish, German dialect vernaculars, etc. As we saw with regard to the Old English example above, social views and the social status of a language variety can, and do, change over time.

### (ii) Translation is about language use

Translation is concerned with language use, with language in context. As we mentioned in Chapter 2, translation decisions are often made considering the situational context of the target text, including the readers and their characteristics (education, social class, region of origin, etc.). As a result, awareness of how situational and social factors affect language and texts is crucial for translation tasks. Understanding language variation provides for a better understanding of the translation instructions, and how these and the target-language context influence the target language. Armed with this knowledge, the translator can make better and more informed decisions, based on the translation brief, rather than on social or personal biases. This also allows for more objective and professional discussions regarding translation alternatives with colleagues and customers, since they are guided by contextual factors rather than by the translator's personal preferences and social biases.

Furthermore, sociocultural awareness serves to highlight the translation brief and to focus on important aspects of it that may go unnoticed by a translator who has not developed a sensitivity to the social aspects of language. Many novice translators assume that all commissioners provide translation briefs with their translation requests. Often this is not the case. Moreover, most clients are not language experts, and as a result they may not provide instructions or features of the target text that could be crucial to translation decisions. A socially aware translator can identify those elements of the brief that hold social and cultural relevance for the target text. Figure 6.1 summarizes the benefits of sociocultural awareness and expert understanding of language variation for the translator.

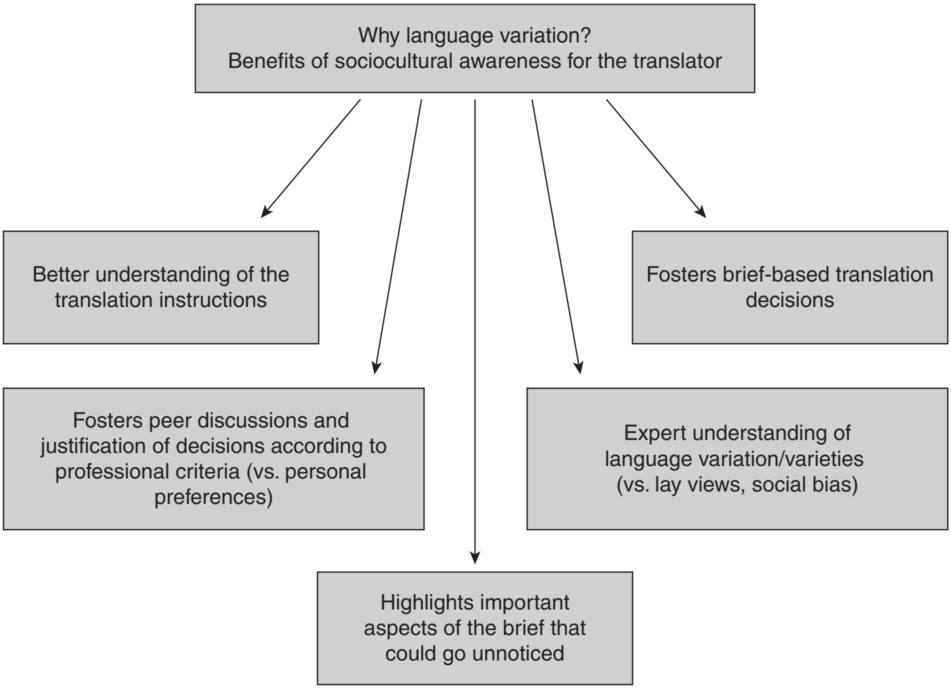



**Figure 6.1** Language variation and the translator.

In the rest of this chapter, we explore these issues in more detail as we delve into additional concepts of language variation and change. The content is organized with regard to two types of variation: user-related variation (sections 6.2 and 6.3) and use-related variation (sections 6.4 and 6.5).

## 6.2 Dialectal variation

Dialectal variation is the type of variation observed in language due to geographical (and sometimes political and demographic) reasons. People who live closer in geographic space, for instance in the same village or same province, will tend to speak alike. The language variety they speak, also known as a dialect, will have more features in common than the variety spoken by someone who lives, say, 200 miles away, even within the same country. As a point of fact, it is no surprise than when French speakers moved to Canada, they eventually developed a variety of French with common features with regard to one another but different from those of native speakers who remained in France.

Geographical barriers create separations, but, as with time, they often lack discrete boundaries (especially land boundaries). To illustrate, the Spanish spoken in the northern part of the province of León, which borders with Galicia (a region where Galician, a Romance language, is spoken, in addition to Spanish), has many features taken from Galician, in contrast with other areas of León (southern and eastern) that lack them entirely.

In the previous paragraph we mentioned the term **dialect**. Sometimes this word is used in lay circles with a pejorative sense, meaning an “inferior” language variety. In linguistics and the language professions, however, a dialect is defined as a language as it is spoken/written in a specific time and place. In other words, everyone speaks a dialect.

In contrast, the term **language** is reserved for the abstract notion that captures the collective speech and writing behaviors of a community. Thus, we can refer to the English **language** in general, and to regional **dialects** of individual speakers, such as New York City English, Scottish English, American English, Australian English, etc. In some contexts, the term “language” is also used to refer to a variety that is a conglomerate of specific varieties or dialects and is agreed upon as the standard, common variety for writing and other situations. The other varieties are referred to as dialects. An example of this is High German. High German is the standard variety almost exclusively used for writing, while all other varieties of the language used for spoken interaction with speakers from the same area are considered “dialects.” In this book, in accordance with standard usage in sociolinguistics, we consider all to be dialects of German. Among them, High German is the standard dialect. The German language is the abstract notion underlying all varieties. The fact that High German has been agreed upon as the dialect to be used in writing and formal situations is, again, a consequence of a variety of non-linguistic factors (e.g., social, historical, etc.).

The evaluative and subjective connotations found in the lay use of the term “dialect” can be attributed to the social views and perceptions associated with the speakers of particular varieties. As mentioned in section 6.1 with regard to language varieties in general, whether a particular dialect (in its actual form or as a mix of features coming from several varieties) is considered more or less prestigious, or is selected for specific contexts and not others (e.g., formal writing), has more to do with social issues (e.g., how a society views the particular language community) than with any scientific facts.

Practice 6.2 includes a real-life example of social attitudes as reflected in language. Although this example does not involve a geographical dialect, it does illustrate how a social attitude toward a socioeconomic group transfers to the language spoken by them.

### Practice 6.2: Language attitudes

**Background**: A few years ago, the US media reported that a judge in Texas reprimanded a mother who was talking to her son in Spanish in court. The judge told her that she was harming her son and denying him opportunities by not speaking English to him. According to the judge, Spanish is the language of maids and field laborers, and no good mother would to wish limit her children's potential by speaking this language to them.

How does the judge's attitude illustrate social views and social biases in society? How do you think this one originated? What argument would you use against the judge's statement that "Spanish is the language of maids and field laborers"?

#### Commentary

This judge associates a language with a specific group of speakers – the one he has had exposure to. While speakers share aspects of specific language varieties (social, economic and geographic), this judge overgeneralizes by equating a particular socioeconomic variety of a language with a world-wide language and therefore assumes no other varieties or purposes are possible in the language. He transfers the social views and the social statuses of speakers in his community to the language in general. Ample evidence against the judge's statement can be found in the wide range of socioeconomic, educational, professional, cultural and literary contexts in which Spanish is used throughout the world.

Despite their biases and other unscientific views, social perceptions are real and must be considered. Just as a speaker needs to understand the social connotations involved in the use of a specific variety, the translator needs to be aware of how the social views regarding a particular dialect of the target language affect the translation brief. That the status associated with some dialects is not based on scientific reasons, but on social perceptions, does not mean that such a status should be disregarded. The truth is that we all live in a society; while one is free to disregard social norms, it is wise to be aware of the consequences of such a choice. Consequently, a translator should be cognizant of the origin and role of social views on dialects in order to be able to make informed decisions about dialect choice in the context of the translation function.

One important consequence of an inaccurate understanding of dialect or language variation is that novice translators tend to evaluate the adequacy of translations on the basis of their intuitions about their own dialects, and frequently rule against alternatives because "It's not what I say." While it is not realistic to expect that one individual will master numerous dialects of the same language, an awareness of linguistic varieties, their types and functions with regard to context and the translation brief is essential. Dialectal awareness helps the translator move from linguistic intuitions as a criterion of quality to a more principled understanding that considers multiple linguistic, social and functional factors. As a result, the translator has less difficulty shifting from the personal and subjective to a more objective and systematic method of monitoring, evaluation and decision-making.

Along similar lines, dialectal awareness is key for acquiring the ability to use informed, objective argumentation skills in discussions with other professionals or customers. Years ago, the translation profession was seen as a solitary one in which the translator interacted mostly with dictionaries and a typewriter. Nowadays, social media, blogs and other forms of Internet-based communication have created global communities of translators and other language professionals who collaborate on a task, or exchange ideas and suggestions on a regular basis. In view of this situation, it is more important than ever for translators to learn how to interact with the community of translators, including having the ability to formulate principled arguments to support or propose specific translations. Without an understanding of dialectal selection in relation to the translation brief (as opposed to personal preferences), translators cannot defend their decisions in an unbiased, informed manner.

An additional issue of dialectal variation in translation relates to the use of a dialect for purposes of the characterization of an individual; in these cases the use of a particular dialect is meaningful per se. This is a common occurrence in literary works, movies, etc. Guided by the illusion of equivalence, some translators try to find a dialect of the target language that carries similar connotations. Unfortunately, the connotations and meaning(s) of a particular variety of speech in one community are rarely replicated by another dialect in another community. Societies and cultures are never the same. When dialectally marked speech is translated into another dialectally marked variety of the target language, in most cases the source connotations will be lost or affected, and some compensation may be needed to attain the intended effect(s). Considering what we learned in Chapter 5 about reading as an interactive process in which the reader contributes his/her knowledge of the world to the process, a source-text reader's knowledge and world view of social meaning of dialectal variants will never be equivalent to those of a target-text reader. This illustrates what some scholars of reading refer to when they talk about reading as transformation, as readers (regardless of language) will always bring their understanding of the world and make the text their own.

## 6.3 Socioeconomic variation

Another element that shapes language use is a speaker's socioeconomic background. The language variety spoken by people of a particular socioeconomic status and education tends to be similar to that of individuals belonging to the same socioeconomic group. For example, upper-class graduates of elite universities will use certain expressions, words, pronunciations, etc., not found in the speech of, for instance, working-class, high-school-educated individuals.

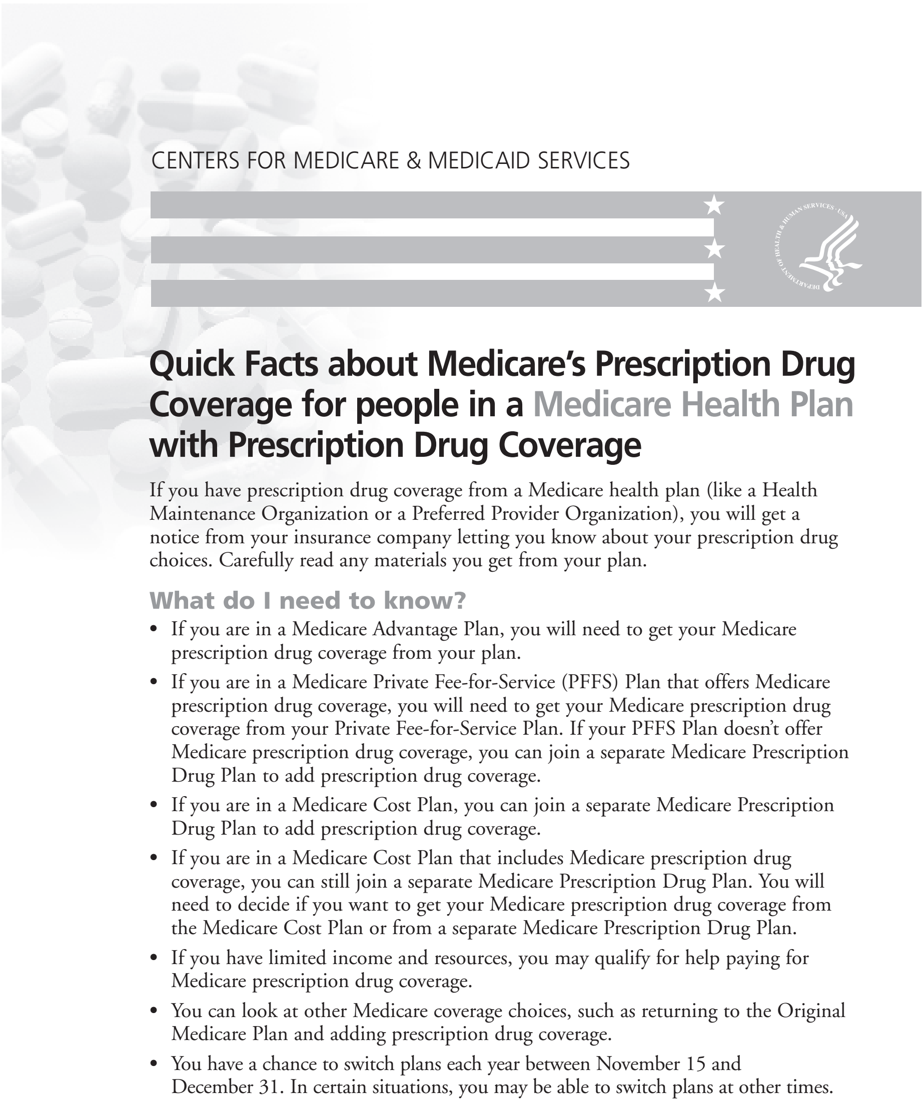
Gender and age also affect language use and variation. As clearly shown by the work of sociolinguists such as Robin Lakoff, Deborah Tannen and many others, women speak differently from men, and teenagers' speech has features, such as slang and new, innovative forms, that are absent from the speech of seniors. As we saw earlier, variation is connected with change. Women's speech tends to be more innovative, less conservative and therefore a better indicator of change in progress than that of males. The same can be said of young speakers, a fact that has become abundantly obvious in the language of texting and social networking sites generally dominated by young speakers.

While the meaningful use of varieties dialectally marked by geographical area, gender and age is important in artistic texts, generally it is not so crucial in everyday communicative texts (e.g., brochures, government communications, advertising, product instructions, etc.), where a more dialectally neutral variety tends to be used, so that various geographical groups can relate to the text. Socioeconomic varieties, however, play an important role in communicative texts. Socioeconomic status and education are important in written texts, considering the close connection between literacy and education. Consequently, many source texts will reflect an educated middle-class speech, which tends to correspond to the standard variety of the language (often stripped of dialectal markers).

In general, the same can be said to apply to target texts; nevertheless, it is fundamental to always consider the translation brief, since one cannot determine a priori whether the same standards apply to the target, independently of the translation instructions. Think, for instance, of a source text in a dominant language that must be translated into a minority language, whose monolingual speakers are of a lower socioeducational background, as in the case of Spanish in the southwestern United States, immigrant languages in Australia, or languages with oral traditions. Examples of these types of text include health education materials, some simplified versions of the news in local newspapers (also available in English), and notifications of community meetings and community events, etc. The educational purpose of the materials and the educational background of the audience justify the use of a variety more typical of a lower socioeconomic or educational status than that of the source. Text types and genres are an additional consideration: What we just said will not generally apply, for instance, to legal materials, as their purpose is not to facilitate the understanding of the reader or change behavior, but simply to fulfill a legal requirement.

Cultural norms also play a role in the relevance of socioeconomic or educational factors and their shaping of the target text in translation. While some cultures consider the audience and adapt or create texts for different socioeconomic or educational levels, others are not so willing to make these types of accommodation, even when the purpose of the text is to reach out to, or to educate, the readers.

For instance, as we mentioned above, some newspapers in the United States have a section in which news is presented in a format accessible to readers with a low educational level; health education brochures also tend to have simple sentences, bullet points, short paragraphs and general language so that they are more attractive and easier to read. However, this is not the norm in many cultures. Failure to accommodate readers in the original materials demonstrates that some cultures are more inclined toward reader-oriented materials than others, independent of language and translation. An important corollary for translation is that, when translating for a linguistic community or culture without a tradition of reader accommodation, the cultural norm should be given serious consideration,



CENTERS FOR MEDICARE & MEDICAID SERVICES

**Quick Facts about Medicare's Prescription Drug Coverage for people in a Medicare Health Plan with Prescription Drug Coverage**

If you have prescription drug coverage from a Medicare health plan (like a Health Maintenance Organization or a Preferred Provider Organization), you will get a notice from your insurance company letting you know about your prescription drug choices. Carefully read any materials you get from your plan.

**What do I need to know?**

- If you are in a Medicare Advantage Plan, you will need to get your Medicare prescription drug coverage from your plan.
- If you are in a Medicare Private Fee-for-Service (PFFS) Plan that offers Medicare prescription drug coverage, you will need to get your Medicare prescription drug coverage from your Private Fee-for-Service Plan. If your PFFS Plan doesn't offer Medicare prescription drug coverage, you can join a separate Medicare Prescription Drug Plan to add prescription drug coverage.
- If you are in a Medicare Cost Plan, you can join a separate Medicare Prescription Drug Plan to add prescription drug coverage.
- If you are in a Medicare Cost Plan that includes Medicare prescription drug coverage, you can still join a separate Medicare Prescription Drug Plan. You will need to decide if you want to get your Medicare prescription drug coverage from the Medicare Cost Plan or from a separate Medicare Prescription Drug Plan.
- If you have limited income and resources, you may qualify for help paying for Medicare prescription drug coverage.
- You can look at other Medicare coverage choices, such as returning to the Original Medicare Plan and adding prescription drug coverage.
- You have a chance to switch plans each year between November 15 and December 31. In certain situations, you may be able to switch plans at other times.

**Figure 6.2** Reader-oriented text.

### How can I get more information?

For more information about your choices, contact your plan. You can also look at the “Medicare & You” handbook, visit www.medicare.gov on the web, or call 1-800-MEDICARE (1-800-633-4227). TTY users should call 1-877-486-2048. For more information on who can get extra help with prescription drug costs and how to apply, call the Social Security Administration at 1-800-772-1213, or visit www.socialsecurity.gov on the web. TTY users should call 1-800-325-0778.

**Figure 6.2** (cont.)

side by side with the purpose of the translation. Thus, while it may be helpful to make textual decisions that facilitate the effectiveness and the accomplishment of the educational goal of a text, a reader-oriented text in the target culture will pose an obstacle due to its unexpectedness and to the violation of cultural norms. Note that, in this section, we refer to “culture” because the same language may behave differently in different countries. For instance, the Spanish found in health-care materials in the United States is much more reader-oriented than, say, that of Spain or Argentina. Similarly, different languages in the same country may exhibit a similar approach when creating more or less reader-oriented texts.

Figure 6.2 contains an example of a reader-oriented text. Note the interactional style, in which a question is presented from the point of view of the reader (“What do I need to know?”) and it is answered with short sentences with bullet points. The text is mostly in the second person, showing the prominent place of the reader in the interaction.

As we mentioned above, not all cultures give readers such a prominent place in text reception, even when the function of the text is to convince or to move the reader to action. In some cultures, such texts may be scarce or non-existent, presenting the translator with a dilemma in terms of how to achieve the function of the translation.

## 6.4 Other language varieties: Registers

The previous sections focused on factors that are responsible for variation and that are user-related, originating in characteristics of the speaker or writer, such as age, socioeconomic background, educational background, sex, geographical origin, etc. This section covers sources of variation that originate outside the language user: in the context and its use – although we should not forget that they also interact with the user and receivers, as we will see below. These varieties are often referred to as registers. Some of the factors that influence register are: the field, medium (also known as mode) and level of formality (also known as tenor).

## Field of activity

The language of specialized fields differs from general language and also from one specialized field to another. It emphasizes the occupational, professional and specialized nature of the activity. It is reflected, of course, in technical terms, but also in linguistic structures and textual organization, among other features. For instance, a linguistics article will often be written differently from a literary one, or one on medical research. Within the humanities fields, and translation studies in particular, research articles on literary translation are frequently written and structured differently from those using, for example, an empirical research design.

In addition, the field of activity interacts with the audience in non-trivial ways. When an expert writes for another expert in the same field, the markers of the field of activity are shared by both writer and reader (terminology, content, textual features, etc.). Consider, for instance, the text in Example 6.3. In it, a physical therapist is writing a report for a doctor on a patient referred to him by that doctor.

### **Example 6.3:** Field shapes text

#### Physical therapy consultation

The patient has a problem of sciatica, problem code 536.3.

**Subjective findings:**
The patient is a 43-year-old male with chief complaint of left low-back pain radiating down the left lower extremity to the knee. The patient states that he

has had this problem on and off for several years and states that he was in a motor vehicle accident five years ago and possibly has a lumber fracture. The patient can recall no recent mechanism of injury, states an insidious onset that progressed over time.

**Objective findings:**
The patient ambulated into physical therapy but had a very slow, painful-looking gait. Active range of motion of the lumbar spine was moderately limited in all ranges of motion. On palpation, muscle tightness was noted in the low lumbar paraspinal muscles bilaterally. Slight tenderness was noted in the left SI joint and left gluteal region in the area of the sciatic notch. I instructed the patient in a low-back flexibility exercise program. The patient received ultrasound to the left lumber paraspinal muscles, left SI joint and left gluteal region, followed by electrical stimulation.

The patient tolerated treatment well. The patient presents with symptoms that appear consistent with sciatica. Will continue physical therapy on a two time per week basis for approximately five visits.

Provider's signature:

Date:

Compare now the report in Example 6.3 with Figure 6.3. In Figure 6.3 the communication is between an expert and a lay reader. More specifically, it is a patient education record that contains information for a patient written by a health-care professional. Notice that this is a mixed-medium and mixed-audience text in which a health-care professional assesses the patient's understanding of the knowledge presented on the far left column by filling out the empty boxes on the right. In other words, the first column is aimed at the patient, while the ones to the right are for the health-care provider. The field of expertise, in interaction with the communication partners (expert-to-lay person), has significant consequences for the form of the language, shaping the actual texts (see also Chapter 2).

We must note that the differences between Example 6.3 and Figure 6.3 are not exclusively due to audience. Textual purpose also differs as a function of audience: Materials written for patients are more likely to be educational than

| Goal: I will be able to have pain relief | Date | Level of understanding | Signature |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1. How does my epidural work?<br>A. The catheter (tube) is inserted into your lower back (outside of the spinal cord). It may be placed for short-term or for long-term use. It will be taped and ready to be used. | | | |
| 2. What can I do while this tube is in place?<br>A. Walking<br>1. Call for help if you are weak or dizzy.<br>2. You may need to use a walker.<br>B. Personal care<br>You may have a sponge bath or shower if okayed by your doctor.<br>C. Bowel habits<br>Your doctor may give you softeners. Pain medicine may constipate.<br>Tell the nurse if you have not had a bowel movement for more than 3 days.<br>Eat plenty of fruits, vegetables and bran cereals.<br>Avoid dairy products and fried foods.<br>Drink at least 8 glasses of water in a day. | | | |
| 3. Be sure to have plenty of rest periods in between activities. | | | |
| 4. Call your nurse if your IV machine is not working. | | | |
| 5. Please rate your pain on a scale of 0–5. 0 = no pain; 5 = the worst pain you have ever had. | | | |

**Figure 6.3** Field of activity shapes text.

those written for health-care professionals. Notwithstanding, the examples provided illustrate how texts vary as a result of the field of expertise and audience.

As is usually the case when communication across fields of activities involves translation, the scenario is more complex. Languages exhibit variation with regard to the field of activity: Different languages frequently structure specialized texts differently and use a variety of language-specific conventions for a particular field. As a consequence, modifications may be needed, depending on the brief, to adjust to target-text/field conventions.

In the case of, for instance, an expert writing for a lay audience, the degree of approximation to the reader or the willingness of the expert to reach out to the needs of the audience can differ according to the culture. Thus, in the case of translations for a lay audience, some target cultures necessitate greater modifications with regard to technical content, terminology and textual features than others. Some cultures may place the responsibility on the reader to understand an informational sheet or a doctor's report, while others will make sure that the language and structure of the text are something the patient can comprehend. Once again, we see the importance of considering the translation brief and the audience in detail. While translational norms may not allow a translator the liberty to make significant changes to a text, he/she can advise the customer of the need for an adaptation in order to meet the requirements of the brief.

Another element of the translation situation that is affected by the field of activity is the translator. Most frequently, the translator is not a member of the specialized field of activity and has to compensate for it by acquiring as much knowledge as possible about the field. Even translators with specialized knowledge (because they have subject-field expertise – a degree or a former career in the area) are rarely members of the expert community and may not be privy to the latest developments or writing conventions. (An exception is, of course, the expert who is not a translator but who happens to occasionally translate.) This is one important reason technical or specialized translation is challenging for many translators.

Consider now Practice 6.3. It offers further practice on the connection between the translator and field.

**Practice 6.3:** Background

Real anecdote: Years ago a Fortune 500 company in the United States used to have a high volume of technical translations (repair manuals for technicians, etc.) and employed a number of translators. At the time, there was a story circulating in the translation department that technicians with some knowledge of English were discarding the translated materials in favor of the English source texts. The reason given was that it was easier for them to understand the English texts than the translated ones.

Why do you think this was happening? What can you hypothesize about the field of activity of the users of the translations (the foreign technicians), the writers of the English source text and the translators?

### Commentary

Most likely what happened was that the technicians and the writers of the source text shared – to a significant extent – field conventions. However, the translators were probably full-time translators and thus not members of the field of activity. It was easier for the technicians to relate to shared conventions and members of the same field in English (despite their limited knowledge of English) than to a text that had been read and translated by individuals outside the field, and that possibly did not adhere to field-content expectations and conventions in the target language. In other words, the reading of the source text by a translator who did not share field conventions affected the target text to the point that the experts had difficulty with it.

## Medium/mode

A monolingual example of how medium affects a text lies in the differences observed between works to be put on stage and those to be read. Similarly, novels are sometimes adapted for the stage, which involves making changes to the text because of the requirements of a new medium.

An additional example of the effect of medium on text is that of subtitled television or film productions. Subtitles in close-captioned films are to be read and thus exhibit different features from those of the original script, which is oral and intended to be listened to. Yet subtitles, although in a written mode, differ as well from other types of written text, such as a novel, in that they are shaped by the visual, being thus a type of mixed medium. For a hearing audience, subtitles may be combined with audio input, as they are in foreign-language films, where the audience hears and reads input in two different languages (depending on the degree of linguistic competence).

Example 6.4 illustrates how medium shapes text.

### Example 6.4: Medium shapes text

[Medium: oral] “Here!”
[Medium: written] He said: “Here!”, pointing at the table.

Consider the differences in the form of the two statements above, which are the result of the medium. In a written medium, more elements need to be explicit than in an oral medium: For instance, it is necessary to indicate who says the words and what he is doing as he says them (“pointing at the table”).

## Level of formality/tenor

The level of formality and politeness of a text varies according to social relations among participants (i.e., social distance). Texts addressed to a supervisor (e.g., a report on a professional assignment) will have a greater level of formality and politeness than those for a friend or relative. While formality and politeness play a role in all languages, they are indicated in different ways. The marking of politeness is not limited to forms of address and titles (e.g., “Mr. Smith” vs. “Joe,” or informal *du* vs. formal *Sie* ‘you’ in German [and similarly in other languages]). As Example 6.5 shows, sometimes lexical and syntactic choices make a text more or less formal.

### Example 6.5: Formality shapes texts

As you probably know, he missed the appointment today.
I’m sure you know, he didn’t show up for the appointment today.

Consider the differences in formality created by the use of the phrase “I’m sure you know” vs. “As you probably know,” as well as “didn’t show up” vs. “missed.”

Example 6.6 contains a translation example in which two Spanish target texts differ in their degree of formality (we also saw this example earlier in Chapter 4, Exercise 4, with regard to textual features). Considering that this translation is to appear on the outside of a cereal box, directing the reader to the inside of the box for an order form for the product advertised on the outside, the text should be semiformal. The lexical items for "inside" in the target text – *adentro* and *en el interior* – differ precisely in level of formality, *en el interior* being the more appropriate one.

**Example 6.6:** Level of formality in translation

[*On a cereal box*]

See inside for Spanish order form

a. Adentro hay un formulario en español para hacer su pedido
b. Formulario de pedido en el interior

It is reasonable to wonder what would make a translator choose (a), the more informal option in Example 6.6. One explanation is that he/she did not consider the level of formality needed in the target text. Yet, we could still ask why *adentro* would be the preferred choice. While we cannot be sure, one possibility is that the translator's competence is register-restricted, i.e., he/she is not aware of the differences between the two terms and may or may not know the two terms. Another possible explanation is that the translator views translation as a word-replacement activity; thus, he/she chose the most common dictionary equivalent for "inside" (see section 6.5).

Another example of a shift in register is given in Example 6.7 (Kim [2009: 142]). The Korean translations are for a magazine that is the equivalent of *The Economist*, and, therefore, the lexical choices in the example are too informal. As mentioned by Kim (2009: 142), the more appropriate choices would be the Korean equivalent of "investment" for *spending* and the equivalent of "exported" for *has gone*.

**Example 6.7:** Formality shifts in translation: Korean

| English source text | Korean target text |
|---|---|
| It is big business for Australia: Exploration companies are at present spending ten times more money searching for deposits than they did three years ago. | 우라늄은 호주에게는 큰 사업으로 우라늄 탐사 기업들은 현재 저장된 우라늄을 찾는데 3년 전보다 10배에 가까운 돈을 쓰고 있다. |
| Until now all this has gone to countries that have signed the Nuclear Non-Proliferation Treaty (NPT). | 지금까지 모든 우라늄은 핵확산 방지 조약 가입국으로만 팔려갔다. |

In general, the direct transfer of the source-text form to the target text can have unintended consequences in the formality realm, especially when the directionality is from a more casual culture to a more formal or traditional one.

Many written texts that often undergo translation tend to be associated with a standard norm that often is semiformal. Formality can be indicated in the choice of vocabulary, syntactic structure, density of paragraphs, etc. Use of an inappropriate level of formality in the target language may not be offensive (as an inadequate level of politeness or system of address often is); however, it may be inappropriate and negatively affect the achievement of the requirements stated in the translation brief. Sometimes it may be funny or may make the text sound unprofessional, because linguistic registers tend to be associated with situations and specific individuals: Reading the features and words normally associated with those situations will bring such things to mind.

Formality shifts can be a problem with regard to the translation of official letters. Figure 6.4 contains excerpts of the Spanish translation of a letter written by a church official to his congregation. On reading the translated letter in Spanish, one has trouble imagining that the official is an educated person in a position of power, addressing his congregation as their bishop. This is definitely

[Salutation]

On June 25, I announced that I was summoning the first Synod in the history of the Diocese.

I am frequently asked, "What is a Synod?" Put simply, from December 4 to December 9, 400 of the laity, priests, deacons and religious will meet together in prayer and study to chart the future direction of the Diocese.

You might also ask, "What will the Synod discuss?"....

[....]

This Synod is a great event in the history of the Diocese, and I ask for your support in this great endeavor.

Target text

No introductory paragraph. Straight to the point.

[Salutation]

El 25 de junio, yo anuncié que convocaría el primer sínodo en la historia de la diócesis.

Me preguntan con frecuencia, "¿Qué es un sínodo?"En pocas palabras, desde el 5 al 8 de diciembre, 400 laicos, sacerdotes, diáconos y religiosos se juntarán en oración y estudiarán para programar la dirección futura de la diócesis.

Very informal phrase, oral discourse

A la mejor también se preguntan, "¿Qué se discutirá en el sínodo?"

Abrupt ending

[....]

Este sínodo será un gran evento en la historia de la diócesis y les pido su apoyo en este esfuerzo.

[Closing salutation and Signature]

Excerpts adapted from original letter from a North American Catholic Diocese.

**Figure 6.4** Formality in translation: Shifts in official letters.

not the case in the English letter actually written by the bishop, without the intervention of a translator. There is no reason to believe that the brief requires anything other than a covert approach, whereby the translated text works as if it had been written by the bishop himself in Spanish.

More specifically, the translated letter lacks some of the structural elements of formal letters in Spanish, such as an introduction and conclusion. Furthermore, the sentences are short and simple, also following the structure of the English source text, whereas Spanish formal writing is characterized by heavy use of complex, subordinated sentences. The letter also contains very casual informal expressions, such as *a la mejor también se preguntan*, along the lines of 'maybe you are wondering' in English. It is obvious that the cause of the inadequate level of formality was the direct transfer of the English source, without considering the necessary markers of formality in Spanish. Note that although the example is in Spanish, some of these issues apply to translations from American English into other languages, as American English leans toward a more informal style.

Shifts in formality can also be the result of societal **diglossia** (cf. societal bilingualism, section 6.6), rather than a translator's individual (conscious or unconscious) behavior. This is the case with Arabic, which involves two varieties, Standard and Colloquial Arabic in a diglossic situation, with Standard Arabic generally serving as the formal and written language. The following examples are from Al-Qinai (2009: 35), showing that the use of lexical items from Standard Arabic has made the target text much more formal than in the original – Hemingway's *The Old Man and the Sea*. For instance, in Example 6.8, the word عتياً used to denote 'old age' is actually cited from a Quranic verse, and الرزق 'blessing or boon (of God)' carries a religious nuance. غلام 'lad, page, slave' was originally used in the early Islamic era and is rarely used today.

## Example 6.8: Formality shifts in translation: Arabic

He was an old man who fished alone in a skiff in the Gulf Stream and he had gone eighty-four days now without taking a fish. In the first forty days, a boy had been with him.

" كان الرجل قد بلغ من الكبر عتياً. ولكنه لا يزال رابضاً في زورقه، وحيداً، يطلب الصيد في"
خليج "جولد ستريم". وقد عبرت به حتى الساعة، أربعة وثمانون يوماً لم يجد عليه البحر
خلالها بشيء من الرزق. في الأيام الأربعين الأولى، كان له غلام يعينه على أمره. " (زكريا)

'The man has reached quite an old age. But he was still lying down in his boat, alone, seeking to fish in the gulf of Gulf[1] Stream. Up to this hour, forty-eight days have passed and the sea has not granted him any blessings. In the first forty days he had a lad who helped him in his affair.'

Some additional examples, also mentioned by Al-Qinai (2009: 36), consist of subtitles of films and TV series. The Arabic translations often use formal vocabulary that is not found in everyday language. For instance, for 'I'll fix you a drink,' Al-Qinai cites the translation:

سأهيء لك كأسا من الشراب.

which would normally appear only in very old films, instead of the more contemporary سأحضر لك مشروبا.

Another example found in Arabic subtitles is ما الخطب؟, for 'What's the matter?'/'What's up?' This Arabic expression is generally used in the context of calamities. The more appropriate phrase in terms of formality would have been ما الأمر؟

We conclude this section with a visual summary, in Figure 6.5, of the types of variation and language varieties we have seen in sections 6.2 to 6.4.

## 6.5 Register selection in translation: Linguistic and translation competence

In this section, we continue to discuss register, specifically the criteria that guide register selection, as well as the consequences and causes of inadequate selection. This topic leads to the discussion of linguistic competence and multilingual societies.

Similar to what we saw earlier with respect to dialects and user-based varieties, registers are associated with specific speakers and contexts, and thus

[1] Al-Qinai has here corrected the text of the Arabic translator (Zakariya), who originally, and mistakenly, wrote "Gold Stream." I thank Paul Sundberg for this observation and for his valuable help with the Arabic examples. I also want to acknowledge Sarra Said for assistance with the Arabic texts.

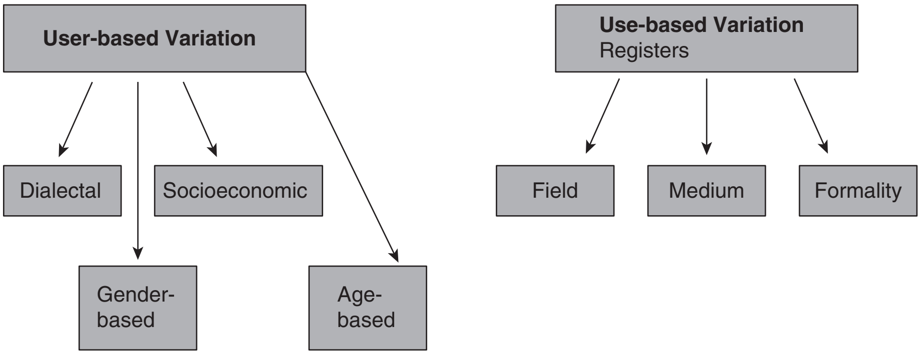



**Figure 6.5** Variation types.

acquire social and pragmatic meaning. Adequate use of those associations is key in translation and can serve various purposes. In section 6.4 we saw how the level of formality can affect the communicative function and the purpose of a translation when it is not consonant with the target-language norms required to achieve the purpose of the brief. Consequently, a letter from a church official may not be taken seriously, or business correspondence may sound unprofessional and be dismissed.

Furthermore, register, like dialect, is also a useful tool for the portrayal of characters in literary texts and can be crucial to their depiction as intended by the author. The use of an informal register in a formal situation may suggest a low educational background or a rebellious character, among many possibilities; an excessively formal register may depict an individual as strict and inflexible or perhaps bound by propriety and norms. Selection of an inadequate register may portray a character in a different way, not intended by the author, or it can have negative consequences for the text producer or for the commissioner of the translation, as when a stigmatized register is selected for a formal context that requires a standard or prestigious variety.

Unlike geographical dialects, which may be difficult to reproduce in translation, because they often do not have the same social meaning or connotations in their respective cultures, all languages with a written tradition express levels of formality on the basis of context, genre, purpose, etc. As we mentioned earlier, translators need to develop register awareness and learn how their languages mark and identify registers and other use-based varieties of language; using the brief, translators need to decide the level of formality required for their target text and be capable of writing a text that marks it in accordance with the target-language conventions. Transferring formality markers from the source language can significantly affect the purpose of the translation.

In translation, the selection of an inappropriate register for the target text often comes about as the result of inappropriate translation decisions or insufficient translation competence. A translation sometimes is carried out without consideration of the translation brief or differences in the linguistic and textual markers of register that vary cross-linguistically and cross-culturally. For instance, while semiformal texts are often found in business communication in the United States, business correspondence in Spanish-speaking countries (and others in which European languages are spoken) requires a higher degree of formality. Direct translation of the content from English to Spanish without considering the appropriate level of formality generally produces a target text that is inadequate because it is too informal (cf. Figure 6.4). In addition to the failure to consider the translation brief, other reasons for inadequate register in translated texts are insufficient (domain or register-restricted) linguistic or textual competence.

In general, register and textual competence as a source for inadequate target texts is not a well-studied topic and, overall, has not received sufficient attention in the field. Much of the original work in the field of translation studies was centered in a European context, where it is common for translators to be **elective bilinguals**, i.e., they choose to learn a second language and are therefore formally educated in their languages. Today, however, in many communities throughout the world, translators are **circumstantial bilinguals**, who have learned another language in order to succeed in a new environment. A consequence of circumstantial bilingualism is that proficiency in one or more of the languages is register-restricted and thus often insufficient for many translation tasks. With the increase in globalization and immigration, translation by circumstantial bilinguals is becoming more common, as is finding instances of inappropriate register in translated texts.

An example of translators with limited-register competence is that of **heritage speakers**, who translate into their heritage language. Recall from Chapter 4 that heritage speakers are bilinguals who have acquired one of their languages in a naturalistic environment, in only one domain, usually the home. As a result, their linguistic competence is restricted in register, generally consisting of an informal, oral variety of the language. In addition, because they are generally not exposed to other varieties and registers, these speakers tend to have little register or dialectal awareness, meaning that they are not aware of the differences in register and variety required by contextual and situational factors. This situation can affect speakers of a minority, unofficial language which is not the language of the educational system, or it can affect an entire language, as happens with language suppression, where a language does not acquire a full range of registers (e.g., some languages spoken in the old Soviet Union under the hegemony of Russia during the Soviet period; Welsh in the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries; and Native American languages in North America, etc.).

**Register and dialectal awareness** are a crucial component of translation competence. While a translator may want to master as many registers and dialects as possible, it is not realistic to expect to be proficient in all possible varieties of his/her languages. Dialectal and register awareness, combined with research and editing skills, serves to compensate for this reality. These skills can assist translators with register-restricted competence to select translation tasks whose briefs match their register competence. Therefore, an understanding of sociolinguistics and language variation (even at a basic level) is essential for translators: (i) to assess their competence for a specific translation job; and (ii) to select the right register for the target text. It is also important for translation managers, who may be unable to fully evaluate language competence, especially if they manage register-restricted speakers who might appear to non-experts to be linguistically competent, and for teachers of translation, who can correctly identify gaps in competence for more targeted training.

## 6.6 Translation in multilingual societies

The previous section introduced the issue of translation and bilingualism in connection with the bilingual competence of the translator, as well as register variation. Here we review a few additional issues regarding individual bilingualism and introduce the topic of bi/multilingualism in society.

## Individual bilingualism

Individual bilingualism is important to translation practice and translation studies because of its relation to translator competence, and, more specifically, **linguistic competence**. In this regard, bilingual competence in a translator is of relevance to employers and evaluators of translators, teachers and translators themselves. Traditionally, the topic has not been the subject of much discussion in translations studies because the dominant concept of bilingualism in this field has been oversimplified. While in multilingualism research and in applied linguistics, bilinguals are people who can speak two languages with varying degrees of proficiency and varying competences, in translation only fully proficient speakers (namely, educated native speakers) were considered bilinguals; consequently, not much was said other than that translators should be bilinguals.

Notwithstanding this idea, bilingualism research shows that the nature of bilingualism is highly complex, and that individuals with equal proficiency levels in all their languages are rare. In addition, **bilingual proficiency** is not static through an individual's life, as proficiency can increase through learning/acquisition or decrease through attrition. The literature on this topic refers to various types of **bilingual**. In addition to elective and circumstantial bilinguals (see above), individual bilinguals are classified with regard to age of acquisition, ability, balance of use between the languages and domain of use of the two languages. As regards age of acquisition, bilinguals can be simultaneous, when both languages are learned in parallel; sequential, when one language is acquired before the other; and late, when one is learned later in life. As for ability, in broad categories bilinguals can be incipient (early stages of language learning), receptive (reading and listening competence) or productive (can produce language). Furthermore, coordinate bilinguals acquire their two languages in different contexts, whereas compound bilinguals learn their languages in the same context concurrently.

In view of the realities of bilingual competence and of the types of bilingual, as well as market and educational forces, it is crucial for those involved in translation, in its various facets, to develop an awareness of the complexity of bilingualism, of the various levels of proficiency and of the different competences involved (registers, textual proficiency, oral proficiency, domain-restricted bilingualism). Different translation requirements imposed by the translation brief

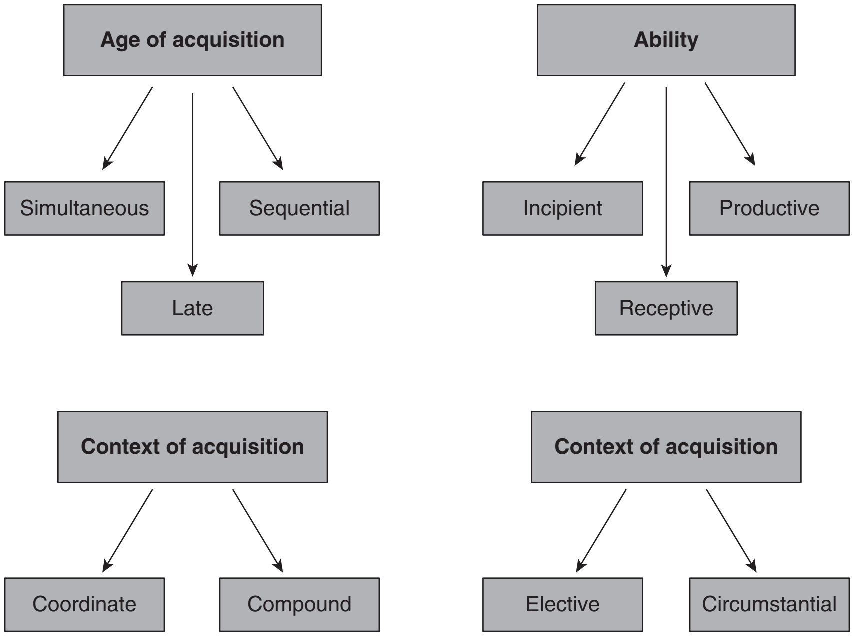



**Figure 6.6** Types of bilinguals.

demand a range of bilingual competences; for instance, whereas a domain-restricted competence in a field of expertise may be sufficient for an engineer to translate engineering materials into the second language, this second-language competence will not suffice for advertising the same engineering products to the general public. Awareness of the complexity of bilingual competence and a range of proficiencies are essential for the translator to assess his/her ability to perform specific assignments, as well as for employers, managers and evaluators of translators who try to find the best translator for a job. Similarly, teachers need to be cognizant of the competence level of their students in order to plan assignments accordingly and to help students advance to the next level. Figure 6.6 visually summarizes the types of bilingualism covered in this section.

## Societal bilingualism

Societal bilingualism refers to the languages used in a specific society. While a society may be monolingual or multilingual, individual members of that community can be bilingual, multilingual or monolingual. The languages spoken in the community may play various roles, as official languages, minority languages,

languages of restricted domain, etc., depending on a variety of political, social and economic reasons. Some can have consequences for an individual's linguistic competence, such as diglossic situations. **Diglossia** is the linguistic relation between two languages or language varieties in which one of them is restricted in use to some contexts, such as the home (e.g., heritage languages). This is a frequent situation for minority languages, whose speakers tend to be proficient only in informal registers, in particular when the minority language is not taught in school and is relegated to the home environment. As mentioned above, this type of diglossic situation affects translation in the realm of individual bilingualism and translation competence, as native speakers whose register and textual competence may be insufficient could (and often do) end up working as translators, for a variety of reasons. Other types of diglossic situation are those that affect a standard dialect vs. the colloquial spoken variety (e.g., German, Arabic).

In addition, at a societal level, the social, economic and power relations among language communities and the attitudes toward them are a core determinant of language policy and language planning. **Language policy** and **language planning**, or the systematic attempt to influence how language is used or how it functions in society, inevitably have consequences for translational activity in society.

The status and role played by specific languages in multilingual societies is of special significance to translation and to understanding the role of translation from a societal perspective. Depending on the status of the languages in use in a particular society, translation may be a more or less common activity. When the languages in a community hold official status, government and official materials are often translated into those languages as a matter of law or policy; consequently, translation is a prestigious and appreciated activity. A clear example of this is the European Union. At the other end of the continuum are societies where minority languages are suppressed and are limited in their range of use. Translation therefore not only lacks support, but is in fact discouraged (and is sometimes banned) by a government and society that expect all of its citizens to speak the majority language. In between the two extremes are societies that, while not supportive of translation, do not ban it either: Sometimes translation is required by law; sometimes it takes place in connection with equal rights legislation that forbids discrimination on the basis of national origin; and sometimes, for pragmatic and economic reasons, e.g., market forces, translation is minimally promoted.

Understanding the specifics of societal bilingualism/multilingualism is of importance to politicians, policy makers, teachers and others in order to plan for the needs of a specific society or student population, to design policies and to participate more fully in the political process. For translators, awareness of the type of societal multilingualism that affects their work helps develop a comprehension of the role played by translation and translators in their specific community, and the translators' larger role in it.

In sum, consideration of multilingual societies and the social role played by various languages in a specific society is useful in highlighting the social purpose(s) of translation, alongside the more basic communicative goals referred to throughout a significant portion of this book. All these factors need to be considered when deciding how the translation instructions or the translation brief should shape the target text.

## Summary

Language and language use, like any other human activity, are influenced by social factors, such as geographical and socioeconomic factors, gender and age (user-related), and topic, medium and level of formality (use-related). One effect of these features is language variation and the resulting language varieties (i.e., dialects). Language varieties are often assigned specific social meanings by members of societies that are, in turn, transferred to the speaker or writer. Translators, as language professionals, need to understand how language variation and change operate and affect language, so that their translation practices and decisions are not based on personal biases and lay views about language but, rather, on a principled understanding of how language interacts with society. An awareness of the impact of social and use-related (contextual) factors affecting language is also necessary for creating a target text that is appropriate to the requirements of the translation instructions.

Variation is a normal element of language, and a well-known source of change. Social attitudes toward change are sometimes negative, as change tends to be associated with the corruption of a "purer," more "pristine" form of the language. However, change is a normal part of language and a consequence of variation.

Again, attitudes about language change are often rooted in social views associated with speakers and language varieties. Change itself is neither good nor bad; it is an unavoidable aspect of language in use.

Varieties that reflect features of use and context (topic, medium, formality) are referred to as registers. Competence in various registers and register awareness are essential aspects of translator competence. Teacher awareness of language varieties and related competence issues is also an essential element in the facilitation of translator competence in the classroom.

Multilingual societies encompass both individual and societal bilingualism. Individual bilingualism (and the complexity and range of bilingual competences it comprises) is directly related to the linguistic proficiency of the translator, a non-static construct. Societal bilingualism refers to the languages spoken in a society (the members of which are not always bilingual), as well as their social status and role. These often have consequences for the translator and for translational activity in that society.

## Key words

Sociolinguistics, dialect vs. language, dialectal variation, socioeconomic varieties, register, elective bilingual, circumstantial bilingual, heritage speaker, translation competence, linguistic competence, bilingual proficiency, bilingual, simultaneous bilingual, sequential bilingual, late bilingual, incipient bilingual, receptive bilingual, productive bilingual, coordinate bilingual, compound bilingual, diglossia, language planning, language policy.

## Exercises

### Exercise 1
What is the connection between language change and variation?

### Exercise 2
Why does language change?

**Exercise 3**
Why are there negative reactions to change?

**Exercise 4**
Provide examples of contact situations, and the languages involved.

**Exercise 5**
Identify the following terms as referring to a dialect (specific language variety) (D) or a language (abstract underlying notion) (L).
Example: English (L); Minnesotan (English) (D)

Arabic
Classical Arabic
Andalusian Spanish
Swiss German
Persian
Sicilian Italian
Tokyo Japanese
Japanese
Swahili

**Exercise 6**
Mention two areas in which dialectal awareness is important for translation and translators.

**Exercise 7**
A translator cannot possibly master various dialects in each language he/she knows. How would awareness help?

**Exercise 8**
Why is socioeconomic variation important for written texts and translation?

**Exercise 9**
What is a reader-oriented text?

**Exercise 10**
Cultural norms vary with respect to reader orientation of texts. How is this relevant to translation?

**Exercise 11**
Watch five or ten minutes of a close-captioned, monolingual film or TV production and observe how the difference in medium between the audio and the subtitles shapes the form of the language. Provide two examples.

**Exercise 12**
Watch five or ten minutes of a subtitled film or TV production and observe how the difference in medium between the audio and the subtitles shapes the form of the translation. Provide two examples.

**Exercise 13**
Why is register awareness important in translation?

**Exercise 14**
What is the connection between register and translation proficiency?

**Exercise 15**
What are heritage speakers, and why are they relevant to a book on the basics of translation?

**Exercise 16**
What is diglossia? How does it affect translation?

**Exercise 17**
In general, how do language planning and language attitudes affect translation?

**Exercise 18**
What types of legislation have consequences for translation? Think of examples in your country or others.

**Exercise 19**
"The issue of bilingualism in translation is much more complex than the requirement that a translator must be bilingual." Comment on this statement.

**Exercise 20**
Are you familiar with any situation that reflects sociolinguistic attitudes toward a language community? How do these attitudes affect that community's view and attitudes toward translators/interpreters?

Exercise 21

Do you know of any areas of translation or interpreting that have higher or lower social status/prestige than others? What social factors do you think are behind this prestige?

## Further reading

*Language Files* (2004) introduces concepts and areas of interest with regard to language variation and change from the point of view of an introductory course in linguistics. Of special interest to translators may be, for instance, the sections on language contact, borrowings, variation in speech style, language and ethnicity, language and gender, and language and socioeconomic status.

Within translation studies, chapter 3 of Hatim and Mason (1990) discusses variation within a systemic-functional approach. Although the terminology used in systemic-functional linguistics is somewhat different from that used in this book, interested readers will be able to deepen their knowledge of these topics.

# 7 Translation quality

## 7.0 INTRODUCTION

A chapter on quality is a crucial component of a book on fundamentals of translation like this one because anyone involved in translation will eventually have to broach the issue of quality. Translators and students alike are consciously or unconsciously involved in quality evaluation and self-assessment. Consequently, self-evaluation and monitoring need to be highlighted, as an additional educational and self-awareness tool that must be part of the translation process from the very beginning, rather than exclusively an after-the-fact activity.

Despite significant differences in the conceptualization of translation across countries, cultures and societies, quality is probably the one topic that always comes up in discussions of translation. How we view quality in translation is ultimately tied to how we understand translation. Thus, the view of evaluation we present in this book is intricately linked to the process and understanding of translation.

This chapter reviews some of the difficulties involved in evaluating translations. It introduces a flexible, customer-defined and easy-to-apply view of quality, and it explains the basic notions involved. The chapter also offers some suggestions for translators and teachers on how to address the issue of quality in a systematic way, crucially related to principles discussed in previous chapters: the translation brief, source text, target-text norms, functional adequacy, specialized content, etc. As in other chapters, the content presented attempts to dispel existing myths, in this case about the topic of quality as it relates to translation and language. It offers students and teachers some guidelines and suggestions for reviewing their translations and monitoring their work based on the translation brief and textual considerations, and teaches them how to use feedback to improve their performance in a systematic, principled way. The chapter also offers practicing translators opportunities for professional development, and methods of self-evaluation and monitoring. Customers and editors can use the rubrics to provide suggestions and feedback to translators. It is our hope that it will serve to educate them about the nature of translating.

The outline of the chapter is as follows: In section 7.1, we review the specific reasons that make quality evaluation essential to translation, in professional and educational contexts; section 7.2 includes basic concepts of evaluation that need to be considered before embarking on a specific evaluation task; and section 7.3 summarizes existing approaches to evaluation (experience- and research-based). After reviewing some of the difficulties involved in evaluating translation quality in section 7.4, section 7.5 describes an approach to evaluation that explicitly attempts to address these difficulties. In section 7.6, an example of a tool developed with the proposed approach is presented (TQA); while section 7.7 shows how it can be adapted to other contexts. The chapter concludes with a summary, and some group discussion and review exercises.

## 7.1 The importance of quality evaluation for translation

To say that quality evaluation is a central component of translation is to state the obvious. Yet, the specifics of how evaluation is relevant to various aspects of translation are not so straightforward. In this section, we briefly go over some of these areas and explain their connections with quality evaluation. It is also important to remember that, in dealing with evaluation, one needs to be clear about the object (what?) and the purpose (why and what for?) of evaluation (see section 7.2). Most readers will easily associate translation quality with the evaluation of target-language products; however, later in this chapter (section 7.2), we will see that the object of evaluation is not always a product – it can also be a process. Unlike the object, the purpose of evaluation can vary widely. Some uses of evaluation are much more common than others.

The two most frequent **objects of evaluation** are **student translations** and **professional translations**. We define student translations as those produced for educational and learning purposes, within an educational context; professional translations are defined as those produced outside the educational context for publication or for public consumption. Although some scholars and practitioners have used the terms “student” vs. “professional” translation to refer to quality, we stay away from these classifications, as they are based on a priori assumptions of quality.

The evaluation of student or professional translations can be driven by a wide range of **purposes**, which reflect the importance of translation quality evaluation in the field of translation. Student translation products are generally evaluated to assess translator competence within an educational context. In these contexts, evaluation can be formative or summative. Formative evaluation is meant to provide feedback during the learning process, so that students can use their mistakes and the teacher’s feedback to improve their learning process. Summative evaluation is not meant to include feedback and is therefore less commonly used in translator training programs. It does, however, occur in certain instances, such as final exams or proficiency exams, where the goal is to demonstrate whether the student has reached a certain level of proficiency (see section 7.2).

Quality evaluation, whether summative or formative, is a crucial element in an educational context because: (a) it guides the student along the process of learning/acquisition of translation skills and competence; and (b) it helps teachers determine whether educational goals have been achieved.

Evaluation methods, in particular componential and rubric-like methods (see section 7.6) that assess student competencies by examining a product, can serve as a learning tool, since the process of evaluation and the rubric itself reinforce those aspects of competence that the student needs to master, while teaching about translation itself. For instance, a rubric that evaluates how adequately a student applied elements of the brief in creating a translation teaches students about the need to refer to the translation brief in translation (see section 7.6). The same rubric-style approach can help students self-monitor their translation. In addition, teachers can use evaluation as a form of preliminary diagnosis of student problems. Evaluation can be combined with other diagnostic tools, such as keystroke logging and screen recording, to determine student awareness and problem-solving skills, besides the source of problems or errors. Keystroke logging and screen recording are often used in process-oriented translator education and allow teachers to examine student translation processes (e.g., time spent on tasks, translation units, revisions, etc.). They can be useful to diagnose the source of a translation behavior/problem identified through quality evaluation tools.

In addition to the very important goal of assessing whether a product meets a set of standards, the evaluation of the quality of professional translations serves to assess translator competence, and, therefore, it becomes essential for translators and language industry professionals, in order for them to make well-informed and objective employment decisions. Quality evaluation becomes crucial in this environment for self-monitoring (especially since it is highly unusual for clients to provide feedback to translators), for incorporating feedback from colleagues and as a common, objective framework for translation criticism and discussion among professionals. Rubric methods in particular can also be very powerful agents of education and professional development, as they serve to articulate aspects of the translation process and research findings that practitioners are often unaware of.

Now that we have established the importance of evaluation to translation practice (summarized in Figure 7.1), we move on to the topic of evaluation itself, starting with some basic notions, common to all frameworks and approaches.

## 7.2 Basic concepts of evaluation

Before considering any type of evaluation, we must define and understand some basic concepts involved in evaluation. Decisions that affect the subsequent

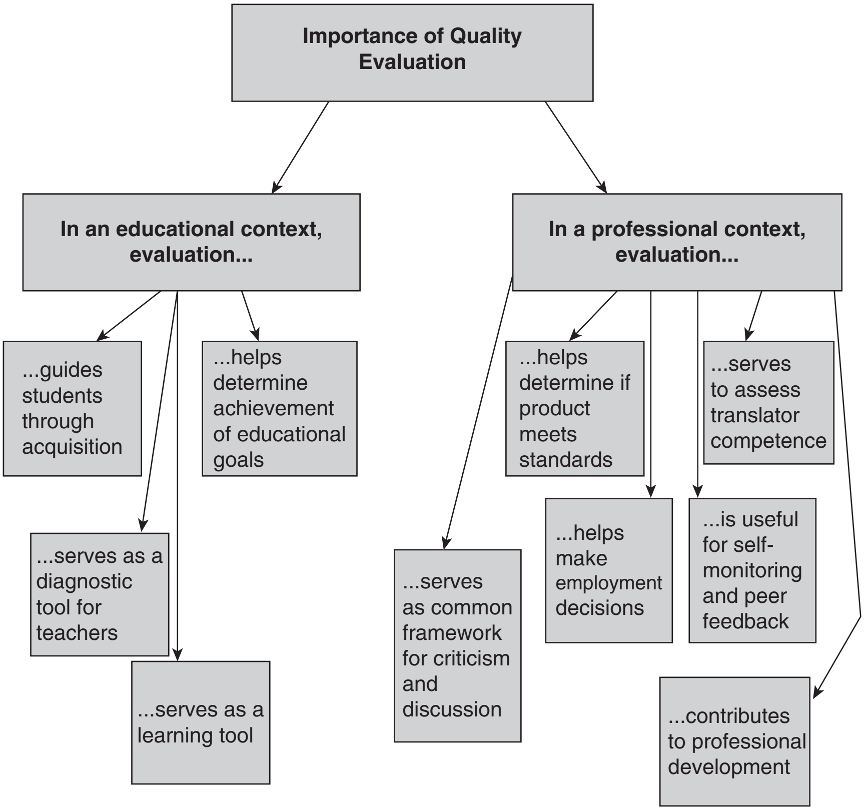



**Figure 7.1** Importance of quality evaluation.

evaluation process will have to be made early on regarding the basis of these concepts.

Earlier in this chapter, we mentioned the **object** and **purpose** of **evaluation**. The object of evaluation refers to what it is that is going to be evaluated, e.g., the translation product, the translation process, translation competence, etc. The purpose of evaluation refers to the reason for which the evaluation is being carried out, such as to assess the effectiveness of the translation product, or determine whether an applicant can produce the type of translations required for a certain position, etc., or to monitor and self-assess one's work, etc. The purpose of evaluation is crucial to a componential approach like the one described later in this chapter (section 7.5), because it often determines the relative importance of the evaluation components.

Closely related to the above concepts is the **summative** vs. **formative** distinction: Summative evaluation tends to produce an overall evaluation, while formative evaluation also offers feedback so that it can be incorporated and used in the future (for improving future translations, for learning and developing translator competence, etc.). Most professional competence exams (e.g., the ATA accreditation exam, UN translation exam, NAATI accreditation exam) involve a summative evaluation, as they simply make a judgment on whether the professional has the competence required by the organization issuing the exam.

Finally, we need to consider the notions of **criterion-referenced** and **norm-referenced evaluation**. Criterion-referenced evaluation examines translation quality with respect to a previously established criterion. Norm-referenced evaluation assesses quality by comparing with a norm, e.g., average (better than average, excellent), or as compared with the rest of the translations in a class, other applicants, other professional translations, etc. Although norm-referenced assessment can be useful in some contexts, the subjectivity involved in it can be an obstacle to the development of systematic criteria against which to evaluate translation products and skills.

In sum, how evaluation proceeds and what approach or method is to be used should be informed by such factors as the purpose and object of evaluation, and other contextual factors that serve to decide between formative or summative, on the one hand, and norm or criterion-referenced, on the other. In view of this, consider the situation described in Practice 7.1.

### **Practice 7.1:** Relevant factors in evaluation tool design

You are a language services manager at a major hospital. You recently commissioned a translation project to a new translation company you had never worked with before. You need to evaluate their work.

What would be the relevant factors to consider before designing an evaluation tool? Consider, at the least, object, purpose, summative or formative, and norm-referenced or criterion-based (see also Figure 7.1).

### Commentary

As you may have guessed, the object of evaluation is the translation produced by the translation company. Indirectly, you are, of course, evaluating the quality of their translators, but your evaluation tool would have to focus on the product, regardless of how it was produced, since you do not have the information to evaluate either the translators or the company processes that resulted in the translation product. The purpose of evaluation is to determine whether the company can produce the quality necessary to meet hospital standards with regard to language services. Since no feedback is necessary (unless the translation company asks for an explanation), the evaluation can be summative. Considering that the quality standards of the hospital are the benchmark for comparison, evaluation would be norm-referenced, rather than criterion-based. If you would like to do a similar exercise on evaluation factors and evaluation context, go to Exercise 1 in the exercise section at the end of this chapter.

After examining basic concepts of evaluation in this section, and before embarking on the specifics of how to approach the topic in a practical context, we need to review existing approaches to translation evaluation. Guided by the concepts just presented, we can thus obtain a better understanding of the issues at stake and of the background that gave rise to these methods.

## 7.3 Major approaches to evaluation

It is important to distinguish procedural systems of evaluation from the rest, because they have different objects of evaluation. Procedural approaches focus on the production process as a condition for quality: Thus, they do not necessarily examine the quality of the product, i.e., of the target text. They evaluate, for instance, any problems in obtaining production and delivery information, format specification, communication with the customers, translators, revisers and editors, etc. In this book, we do not cover procedural systems of evaluation. Procedural issues can have serious consequences for translation quality;

**Marking scale**
Errors are considered to fall into two main categories:
Translation (Comprehension – failure to render the meaning of the original text) and Language (Expression – violation of grammatical and other rules of usage in the target language).

Major and minor errors must be identified within each category.

***Translation (Comprehension)***
Major mistakes – shown in the margin as (T)-10,
e.g., serious misinterpretation denoting a definite lack of comprehension of the source language, nonsense, omission of a phrase or more

Minor mistakes – shown in the margin as (T)-5,
e.g., mistranslation of a single word, omission/addition affecting meaning, lack of precision, wrong shade of meaning

***Language (Expression)***
Major mistakes – shown in the margin as (L)-10,
e.g., gibberish, unacceptable structure

Minor mistakes – shown in the margin as (L)-5,
e.g., syntax, grammar, ambiguity, unnecessary repetition, convoluted structure, non-idiomatic structure, unacceptable loan translation

Minor mistakes – shown in the margin as (L)-3,
e.g., breach of spelling, punctuation,
typographical conventions

From Canadian Translators, Terminologists and Interpreters Council,
www.cttic.org/examDocs/guide.markersE.pdf

**Figure 7.2** Example of an error-marking scale.

however, the focus of this book is on translation per se, and therefore we study evaluation in connection with translation fundamentals, rather than the industry processes that lead up to it.

Most researchers and practitioners familiar with the literature and practice of translation evaluation would agree that there is little consistency regarding assessment and evaluation standards. Yet, despite this variety, a majority of assessment tools and methods fall into two major groups – experience- or research-based – according to whether their basis is experiential or research-based.

## Experience-based approaches

Numerous methods of translation quality assessment fall within this category. They often consist of point systems or marking scales (where points are deducted for major or minor errors) developed to measure quality for a specific professional organization or industry. Among these are many certification exams developed by professional organizations and translation service providers to assess translator competencies for work in the profession. Figure 7.2 contains an example of an error-marking scale, in which errors are identified in the target text as belonging to a translation or language category and points are deducted according to their seriousness.

While the scales and point-deduction systems are often adequate for the particular purposes of the organization that created them, they suffer from limited transferability, precisely because of the absence of theoretical or research foundations that would make them generalizable and thus transferrable to other environments. For the same reason, it is difficult to assess whether experience-based approaches could be valid for use in various contexts (replicability) and by multiple raters (inter-rater reliability).

## Theoretical and research-based approaches

Theoretical and research-based approaches arise out of theoretical or empirical frameworks and/or explicit models on the nature of translation. Recent ones tend to focus on the user of a translation or the text. Many aspire to an abstract equivalence ideal as the ultimate measure of quality. Each approach emphasizes an important aspect of quality, and all enjoy some degree of success and applicability. Theoretical and research-based approaches, however, also suffer from inadequacies that have limited their success and generalized application. In the next paragraphs we review these issues in connection with specific types, such as reader-response and textual systems.

Reader-response approaches to translation assess the quality of a translation by determining whether readers of the translation respond to it as readers of the source would respond to the original (Nida [1964], Carroll [1966], Nida and Taber [1969]). For instance, an evaluation of a French translation of a *New York Times* editorial would compare the response of French readers with that of readers of the English text.

This method of evaluating a translation can be problematic for various reasons. First, reader response is difficult to measure. How would we know in our example of the *New York Times* editorial whether the response of French readers is 100 percent, 90 percent or 80 percent similar to that of English readers of the original? Furthermore, it is not clear how to determine whether any two responses are equivalent, or whether that is even an attainable goal, considering that even the same monolingual text often elicits non-equivalent responses from different groups of readers. How could we compare subjective or emotional reactions to a text, aside from reading comprehension? Additionally, reader response is not a comprehensive form of evaluation because how a reader responds to a text is not equally important for all texts. Consider, for instance, the response expected from a legal notice, compared with that of an educational brochure written to raise awareness regarding car-seat use for babies. While it is crucial that the brochure generates a certain response from the readers (minimally, a good understanding of the content), the same does not apply to the legal notice, which tends to fulfill its purpose by its mere existence, regardless of how readers react to it. Finally, notice that reader response aims at equivalence of effect, but some aspects of the brief (e.g., purpose) may justify or require a slightly different response from the readers of the translation.

Textual approaches to evaluation assess the quality of the translation with respect to text type and function; these models rely on an analysis of the textual and situational features of the source and target texts, a comparison of the two and the resulting assessment of their match. The basic measure of quality is that the textual profile and function of the translation match those of the original, the goal being functional equivalence between the original and the translation. Textual approaches have made a significant contribution to the field of translation evaluation by shifting the focus from counting errors at the word or sentence level to evaluating entire texts and goals of translation, giving the reader and communication a much more prominent role. Yet, despite these advances, and not unlike reader-response approaches, textual proposals for evaluation have not been widely adopted by either professionals or scholars.

In our opinion, one common hurdle to the generalized adoption of research-based methods of evaluation is that they focus on partial aspects of quality, whereas assessment needs to include a wide range of issues, balancing different interests and tensions. Another shortcoming is that they are often difficult to apply in professional or teaching situations.

## 7.4 Difficulties involved in evaluating translation quality

In section 7.3, in reviewing approaches to translation evaluation, we pointed out some shortcomings. These reflect some of the difficulties encountered by attempts to design a system of evaluation. In this section, we expand on them and try to understand the broader reasons for which the attempts have been thwarted.

Translation quality evaluation is probably one of the most controversial, intensely debated topics in translation scholarship and practice. Yet, progress in this area does not seem to correlate with the intensity of the debate. Despite an urgent need, intense interest and countless publications on the topic, no common standard exists in the industry or academia for the evaluation of translation quality.

We can point out various reasons for the lack of standardized methods of evaluation. Some are related to multiple perspectives on translation or evaluation purposes. As we saw in Chapter 2, the notion of translation is complex, and definitions are numerous. Translation is filled with unstated, and often culturally dependent, assumptions about the role of translation and translators, equivalence and literalness, and translation norms and translation standards. Therefore, it is not surprising that quality and evaluation remain elusive to definition or standards. It is, of course, difficult to have standardized methods of evaluation, when there is no agreement or explicit description of what it is that we are evaluating.

Along similar lines, the current disparity in evaluation methods also stems, as we saw in section 7.2, from the existence of multiple, unstated purposes of evaluation, and to multiple purposes of the target text itself. These require different priorities. For instance, for some websites, the goal of providing the reader with the gist of a text in a timely manner maybe a priority, and an online machine-translation system may produce acceptable quality. The same will not apply to the translation of, say, a country's constitution into various national languages.

A multiplicity of approaches additionally arises from models that focus on partial aspects of translation (e.g., reader response, textual aspects, pragmatic aspects, relationship to the source, etc.), perhaps due to practical limitations and the sheer complexity of the task. A comprehensive approach to evaluation would address multiple components of quality simultaneously and would allow for prioritizing the components according to user-defined views of quality, user needs and the purpose of the translation.

Finally, there exist also practical concerns about implementation. Many approaches are difficult to apply for those who did not create them. As a result, individuals or groups in need of evaluation tools end up developing their own systems.

In the next section, we offer some suggestions and guidelines on how to develop some evaluation tools that address the issues mentioned in this section and that present a user-friendly way to assess translation products. One important objective in introducing this example is to review fundamental aspects of evaluation and translation, and to show one way to design a systematic approach to evaluation that is consonant with the fundamental notions of translation we have presented so far.

## 7.5 A user-defined, comprehensive view of quality: Description

In this section, we present some suggestions for and guidelines on evaluation tool development. We describe some defining elements, show how they relate to the shortcomings identified in the previous section and explain how they can be integrated in a general, systematic approach to evaluation. Reference is made to the Translation Quality Assessment (TQA) tool, outlined in Colina (2008), (2009), as an illustration of this sort of approach and as a point of departure for the discussion.

The TQA tool is an evaluation rubric that was developed under *Hablamos Juntos*, a grant program funded by the Robert Wood Johnson Foundation in the United States. The goal of *Hablamos Juntos* was to improve communication between health-care providers and patients in the United States, in particular Latino patients. In addition to the provision of language services for these patients, the quality of existing translations emerged as an issue, along with the lack of guidance on and common standards for evaluating the quality of materials. This was crucial, as many health-care providers could not assess the quality of the products they were using in their facilities. As a result, an attempt was made to develop an approach that addressed the existing gaps. This approach was the framework used for the design of the evaluation tool referred to as the TQA.

A potential approach to evaluation that is to be widely used and is generalizable is defined by its **componential**, **descriptive** (and **user-defined**), **theoretically explicit** and **testable** nature. It is also easy to apply. We explain now what these features mean:

1. **Componential.** A componential approach to evaluation evaluates major aspects of translation quality in the form of separate components of evaluation; it offers a comprehensive view of evaluation that integrates different aspects of quality, allowing evaluators to define the areas, as well as to add and omit components that may be relevant to their purposes. The TQA tool (see section 7.6), for instance, uses four components of assessment, each emphasizing a different aspect of quality: Target Language; Functional and Textual Adequacy; Non-Specialized Content (Meaning); and Specialized Content and Terminology.

2. **Descriptive.** Rather than using a system where points are deducted for each error (see Figure 7.2), a descriptive approach to evaluation uses descriptive statements to classify texts into one of four assessment categories. Each descriptor defines the degree of compliance with specific criteria. Raters evaluate texts by matching their assessment to a descriptive statement for each evaluation category. The goal is to choose the statement that best describes the text in each of the areas of evaluation. The result is a rubric-style evaluation system. For example, in the TQA tool (section 7.6), descriptors reflect a four-point range, from unacceptable to ideal, for each component evaluated, such as (for the Target Language component): 1) extremely difficult to read (incomprehensible); 2) hard to comprehend (includes element/structure(s) from the source text); 3) generally readable but with awkward expressions; or 4) reads similar to texts originally written in the target language.

Descriptive statements allow for a **user-defined** notion of quality in which the user or requester decides which aspects of quality are more important for his/her purposes; they also allow for the customization of the system of evaluation to reflect additional components and priorities. This can be done either by adjusting customer-defined weights for each component or simply by assigning higher priorities to some components. For instance, a highly technical text, for experts, in which accuracy in specialized content and terminology is crucial, may assign a high percentage of the total score to the "Specialized Content" section, and a low one to "Target Language." For this type of brief, a highly elegant style may not be essential, allowing even for somewhat awkward collocations and syntax, as long as the content is accurate.

**3. Theoretically explicit foundations**. An explicit approach to evaluation must clearly state its theoretical assumptions. In accordance with the topics and views presented in Chapter 2, we propose a functionalist one. This translates into a model of evaluation in which the quality of the translation is not measured against some abstract notion of equivalence with the source text. Rather, the goal is to attend to all of the components of quality to the degree necessitated by the translation brief. For instance, the TQA tool has a cover sheet that gives the details of the brief (Figure 7.4); in addition, the descriptive statements use the brief as the reference point. To illustrate, descriptor (1d), in Figure 7.5, reads:

> Descriptor 1d:
> The translated text reads similarly to texts originally written in the target language that <u>respond to the same purpose, audience and text type as those specified for the translation in the brief</u>. Problems/awkward expressions are minimal, if they exist at all.

As we mentioned earlier, the function and extra-linguistic context of the translation are of paramount importance in translating, and therefore evaluation is done with regard to those elements. Although the evaluation criterion is the translation brief (vs. an abstract notion of equivalence), the **functionalist** approach also includes equivalence as an outcome of translation, as long as it results from the requirements of the brief.

Evaluation shows the importance of understanding basic concepts and theories of translation, because the adoption of a specific method of evaluation requires the specification of broader criteria.

**4. Testable**. This means that the instruments (tool, rubric, etc.) should lend themselves to various types of empirical testing, which in turn allow for the testing of the approach itself.

Several rounds of testing involving three languages – Spanish, Chinese and Russian – and fifty-two raters (translators, language professionals and bilinguals) were conducted using the TQA tool and publicly available health-care materials (e.g., CDC, Medline Plus En Español, etc.). Testing consisted of a pilot phase and a two-phase inter-rater reliability process. Language consultants, highly skilled translators in each of the three languages, participated in the pilot testing session and helped identify texts for a two-phase inter-rater reliability phase. The inter-rater reliability testing process included thirty raters, three consultants and thirteen texts. Each round of testing was followed by a debriefing session that included a structured survey about the rating experience. Quantitative data obtained from tool ratings and post-rating surveys were subjected to statistical analysis to determine inter-rater reliability. Qualitative data collected in the post-rating surveys were also analyzed.

Benchmark testing included twelve raters: three Russian, three Chinese and six Spanish. In the reliability testing session, twenty-one raters were included: six Russian, seven Chinese and eight Spanish. The results of reliability testing for the Chinese and Spanish raters achieved acceptable inter-rater reliability coefficients, although the Chinese raters' reliability-testing coefficient was somewhat lower than in the Benchmark testing. The table also demonstrates the inconsistency of ratings among the Russian raters.

Inter-rater reliability: Benchmark and reliability testing results

| | Reliability coefficient | |
|---|---|---|
| | Benchmark testing (12 raters) | Reliability testing (21 raters) |
| Spanish | .953 | .934 |
| Chinese | .973 | .780 |
| Russian | .128 | .118 |

**Figure 7.3** *Hablamos Juntos*, Training Manual for Raters, Tool Kit 6 (www.hablamosjuntos.org/mtw/default.toolkit.asp).

For instance, the componential approach is a testable system of evaluation, as demonstrated by the fact that it was tested for inter-rater reliability, as described in Figure 7.3. Figure 7.3 summarizes the testing design and the results. The rating results were submitted to statistical analysis to determine the degree of inter-rater reliability, namely, to find out whether there was consistency in the ratings of the same text. A good degree of inter-rater reliability was found for the Spanish and Chinese raters, meaning that the raters who used the tool to evaluate Spanish and Chinese were generally in agreement with regard to the evaluation of the translations. For reasons unknown, the same cannot be said of the Russian raters.

**5. Easy to apply**. As we mentioned above, many approaches and methods of evaluation enjoy limited success and applicability because the potential users (who are not their original creators) find them difficult to apply. Our recommendation is that designers have the user in mind when creating evaluation tools. The TQA tool is an example of one that is easy to apply. In order to make sure that the rubric was in fact easy to use, testing required that raters from different backgrounds (teachers, professional translators, bilinguals) apply the rating tool to various texts, which demonstrated that they could learn to use an example of this approach in a short period of time. Raters were provided an instruction manual and a short online presentation, accompanied by PowerPoint™ slides, on the use of the rubric. In addition to the demonstrated ability to use the tool, a follow-up survey was administered in which raters were asked about ease of use. All raters stated that they had had no problems using the tool.

Now that we have defined the main characteristics of a possible translation tool, we move on to exemplification in the next section.

## 7.6 A user-defined, comprehensive view of quality: Exemplification

In this section we introduce a quality evaluation tool for translations (see Colina [2008], [2009] as an example of a functional-componential tool that illustrates the features described in section 7.5). We provide specific details so that you can achieve a better understanding of evaluation systems (in relation to the elements of translation in previous chapters) and to offer guidelines for the design of tools/rubrics that will work for your specific purposes.

### The functional-componential approach and the Translation Quality Assessment (TQA) tool (Colina [2008], [2009])

As we mentioned earlier, evaluation tools/approaches need to make explicit their purpose, object and theoretical assumptions. The purpose of the TQA tool is to provide a general overview of the quality of a translation product (i.e., the assessment purpose is summative). Requesters receive from TQA raters a summary evaluation of the translation's overall quality, as well as a recommendation about the adequacy of the translation. The goal is not to determine why the translator made a certain mistake, but rather its effects on the text and its intended meaning. The object of assessment is the product, namely, the translated text.

The TQA tool is "functional" because it draws on functionalist theory and on textual and theoretical models. It recognizes the role of extra-linguistic features and relies on the idea that the function or purpose and use of a target-language text are of paramount importance in determining translation quality. Quality is not determined on the basis of an a priori abstract notion of "goodness," but is assessed with regard to the translation brief. Consequently, the translation brief needs to be made explicit by the requester and included in the evaluation request. In the TQA tool, the brief is included on the cover page, Part I, of the tool (Figure 7.4) and serves as a reminder to the evaluator that evaluation is done with regard to the translation brief. The brief orients the rater to the text to be rated, and includes basic information about the source and target texts, their respective purposes, uses, intended audiences and communicative contexts.

The TQA tool evaluates quality by examining components separately, each one representing an important aspect of quality. The Quality Criteria section of Part I enables the requester to decide whether one focus area should be of greater priority than the others. Raters can review Part I with the requesters prior to beginning a rating. In the example in Figure 7.4, the priority ranking is for health-care education materials, because that was the context that the TQA tool was originally developed for.

## Components of the TQA tool

The tool is componential, in that it assesses the overall quality of a translation by evaluating various components of a translated text separately. Raters have to choose the statement that best describes the text under evaluation in these areas. Here we describe the tool components (Target Language; Functional and Textual Adequacy; Non-Specialized Content (Meaning); and Specialized Content and Terminology) and the descriptive statements in each component.

# Translation Quality Assessment Tool
## For Health Education Materials

**PART I: To be completed by *Requester***

The health care decision maker requesting a quality assessment of an existing translated text.

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| **Requester (Name)** | | **Phone** | |
| **Title/Department** | | **Delivery Date** | |

**TRANSLATION BRIEF**

| | Source Language | Target Language |
|---|---|---|
| | English | |
| **Text Type** | Health Education Material | Health Education Material |
| **Text Title** | | |
| **Target Audience** | | |
| **Purpose of Document** | | |

**QUALITY CRITERIA**

| | |
|---|---|
| **Priority Focus Area** | 2 Target Language |
| | 1 Functional and Textual Adequacy |
| Rank EACH from 1 to 4 (1 being top priority) | 3 Non-Specialized Content (Meaning) |
| | 4 Specialized Content and Terminology |

**PART II: To be completed by TQA *Rater***

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| **Rater (Name)** | | **Date Completed** | |
| **Phone** | | **Date Received** | |
| **Total Score** | | **Total Rating Time** | |

**ASSESSMENT SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATION**

| | |
|---|---|
| | ❑ Publish and/or use as is |
| | ❑ Minor edits needed before publishing |
| To be completed after evaluating translated text | ❑ Major revision needed before publishing |
| | ❑ Redo translation |
| | ❑ Translation will not be an effective communication strategy for this text. Explore other options (e.g. create new target language materials) |
| **Notes/Recommended Edits** | |

Hablamos Juntos
We speak together.

Robert Wood Johnson Foundation

**Figure 7.4** TQA tool cover page – Part I.

For illustrative purposes, we provide examples of texts demonstrating various levels of quality that can be classified under the descriptors for that component. Undoubtedly, not everyone will agree with the classifications; yet, the main goal is for these to serve as illustrations of the components and descriptors, so you can learn how they function within the evaluation system. These examples were used in the training manual produced for raters in the testing experiments described in Colina (2008), (2009) and the *Hablamos Juntos*, Training Manual for Raters, Tool Kit 6 (www.hablamosjuntos.org/mtw/default.toolkit.asp). You will also be familiar with some examples because we discussed them in previous chapters. They have been selected for pedagogical reasons and to show how they instantiate – in the context of evaluation – the notions covered in this book.

## 1. Target Language

This component refers to the degree of adequacy of the language in the target text as an example of target language in use. Independently of the fact that it is a translation, we would want to ask: Is this text full of grammatical errors, obviously written by someone who doesn't have a good command of the language? Is this text full of spelling errors, as if it had been written by someone who does not know how to spell? Is the text written in something that looks like the target language, but makes no sense and is almost incomprehensible? Is the text generally comprehensible but not without a certain degree of effort from the reader to get past some strange constructions? Is the text generally acceptable, but with some structures that do not sound right? All of these issues fall under the Target Language component of the translation. This component can be evaluated without reference to the source text.

Note that the adequacy of the target language must be considered within the context of the function and audience of a particular translation. Think, for instance, of a translation of academic transcripts from Spanish into English. It may sound odd to the average English reader who may expect grades and course titles similar to those he/she is familiar with from American universities. However, that will not be the case for the transfer specialist, who will be using this translation in conjunction with the Spanish original to determine transfer equivalences. Despite sounding strange and awkward, this type of translation is justified by the brief, and therefore it should not receive a low rating in the

**1. Target Language**

| Category number | Description | Check one box |
|---|---|---|
| 1.a | The text is extremely difficult to read, bordering on being incomprehensible. The translation reveals serious language proficiency issues. Ungrammatical use of the target language, spelling mistakes. The translation is written in some sort of "mixed language" (neither the source nor the target). The structure of the source language dominates to the extent that it cannot be considered a sample of target language text. The amount of transfer from the source cannot be justified by the purpose of the translation. | |
| 1.b | The text is hard to comprehend. The text contains some unnecessary transfer of elements/structure from the source text. The structure of the source language shows up in the translation and affects its readability. | |
| 1.c | Although the target text is generally readable, there are problems and awkward expressions resulting, in most cases, from unnecessary transfer from the source text. | |
| 1.d | The translated text reads similarly to texts originally written in the target language that respond to the same purpose, audience and text type as those specified for the translation in the brief. Problems/awkward expressions are minimal, if they exist at all. | |
| Examples/comments | | |

**Figure 7.5** Target Language component.

Target Language component. Figure 7.5 contains the descriptors for the Target Language component. Figures 7.6–7.9 contain examples of each descriptor.

Consider the text in Figure 7.6, an example of descriptor (1.a).

The text in Figure 7.6 goes beyond ungrammaticality. Readers will have difficulty determining what the text is trying to say. Take, for instance, "The simple and high item of a quality which is not done too much is produced." Would you be able to paraphrase this sentence? The answer is, of course, no.

The text in Figure 7.7 is better than the one in Figure 7.6, earning the (1.b) descriptor, because we can make more sense of it, although it still contains sections difficult to understand and many grammatical mistakes. For instance, in "Cannot display the image from a camera because another application that displays the image," the subject of the verb "cannot" is missing. In the second half of the sentence, the preposition "of" is needed after "because" – alternatively, we could omit "that"; also, the verb "displays" would probably make more sense as "is

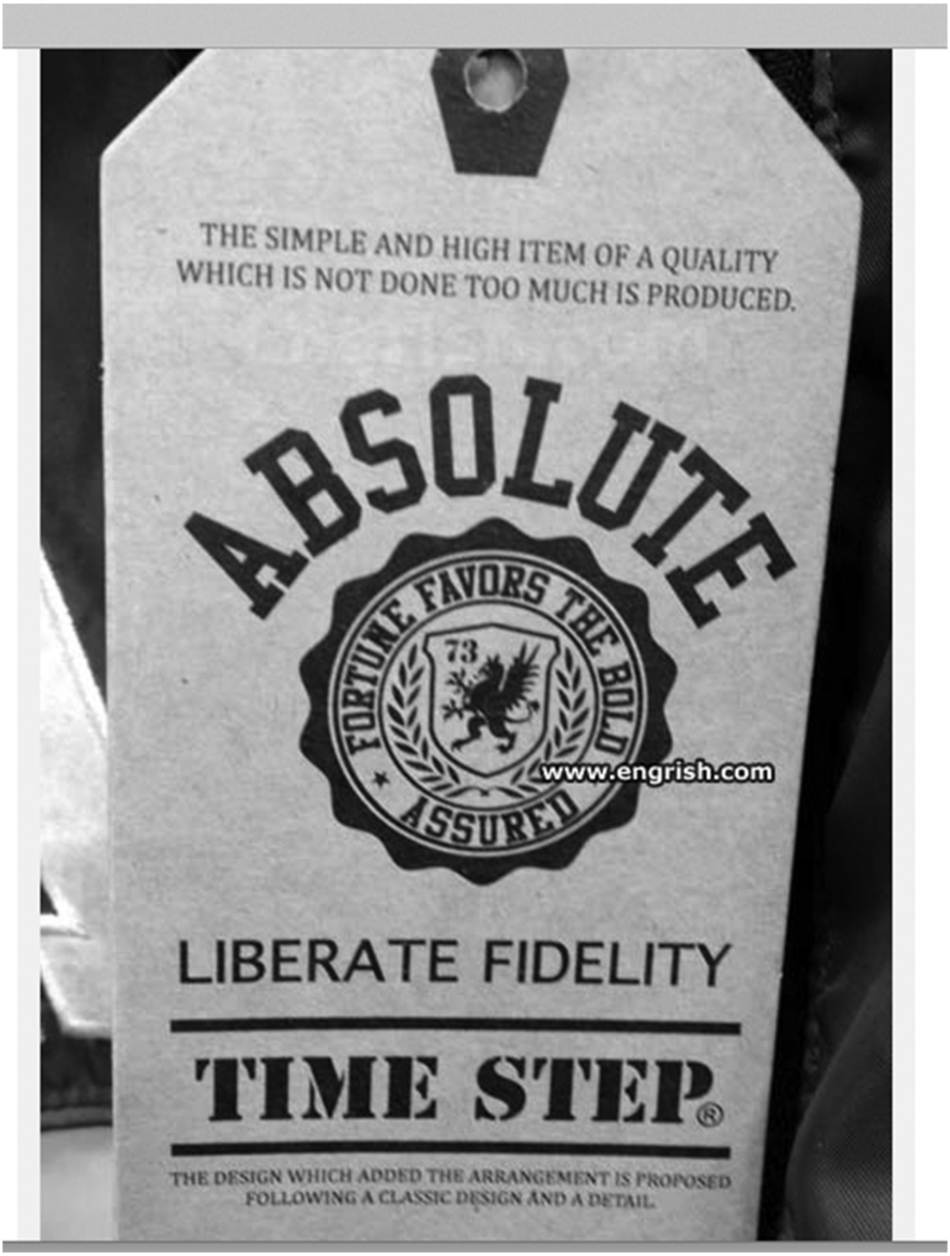



**Figure 7.6** Example of descriptor (1.a).

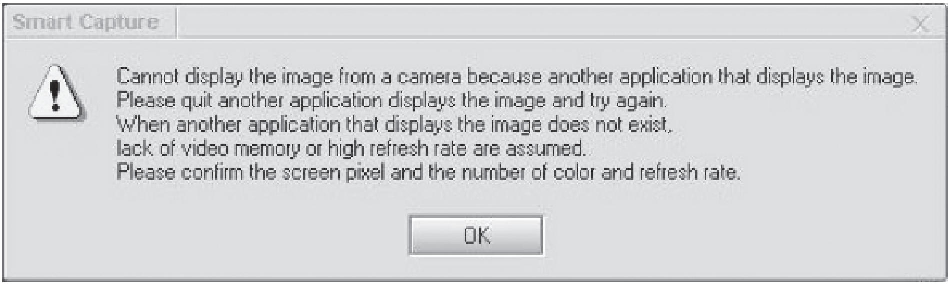



**Figure 7.7** Example of descriptor (1.b).

displaying." While we can paraphrase the text as saying something along the lines of "an image for a digital camera is not working properly because another application is also active and is interfering with its ability to display the image," we also would feel somewhat insecure as to whether this, in fact, is what was meant by the author of the text.

An example of descriptor (1.c) is shown in Figure 7.8.

Figure 7.8 contains one ungrammatical construction that the native reader will not miss: "We must trust to divine providence" (i.e., "We must trust in divine providence"). However, it is the only one, and it does not impede comprehension. Notice, however, that it is difficult to understand the connection between trusting in "divine providence" and the statement "Man can't exist without air and water and this bag." This, however, has to do with textual coherence and cohesive devices, as we saw in Chapter 5, and should be evaluated under the Functional and Textual Adequacy component of the tool. The example in Figure 7.9 illustrates descriptor (1.d). As the reader will note, it contains no ungrammatical structures and reads well.

## 2. Functional and Textual Adequacy

In this section, before providing textual examples for the ratings in the Functional and Textual Adequacy component, we will offer a somewhat more extensive explanation of the concept behind "Functional and Textual Adequacy" than we will do for other components. One reason is that this is probably the least intuitive of all categories presented and probably the most technical: Most readers understand grammatical correctness, meaning and specialized terminology without much difficulty; however, they face a greater challenge with regard to texts and textual features. An additional reason for this


**Figure 7.8** Example of descriptor (1.c).

> First, choose different foods from each of the food groups. Different types of food give our bodies the various vitamins and minerals we need. Next, eat balanced meals and snacks. What is a balanced meal? A balanced meal has protein, starch and non-starchy vegetables. If you need to lose weight, choose the lower number of servings from the Food Pyramid.

**Figure 7.9** Example of descriptor (1.d).

more extensive explanation is that it will help you review and apply concepts we presented earlier in this book – in Chapters 3 and 4 – to the context of evaluation.

The Functional and Textual Adequacy component reflects aspects of a text that are not directly related to grammaticality or "correct" usage of the language. They refer to the conventions (graphic, organizational and linguistic) that readers use to identify text types and genres. As we know, these are the features that help readers of a target language know that a text is a letter, an advertisement, an instruction manual, etc., only by quickly skimming it (see section 4.3). As we saw in Chapter 4, properly identifying textual type and genre is crucial for the translation to accomplish its intended purpose.

To evaluate this category, we could ask such questions as: Does the text sound like a brochure in the target language? Is the language formal enough for the genre? Would it be a good representative of the brochure type in the target language? Maybe the text reminds the reader of a brochure, but it is somehow a strange one. The examples in Figures 7.10 and 7.11 will illustrate these concepts, while Practices 7.2 and 7.3 will provide you the opportunity of applying them to

| Recipe 1 | Recipe 2 |
|---|---|
| Ingredients: 100g of butter, 225g of crushed gingerbread cookies, 450g of cream cheese, 50g of powder sugar, 6 tablespoons of cream.<br>Lightly grease a 23cm cake pan with butter. Melt the remaining butter in a small saucepan; add the crushed gingerbread cookies, and mix well. Use this mixture to cover the bottom of the cake pan, and place it in the refrigerator until it hardens. In a bowl, mix the cream cheese with the sugar until it becomes smooth and creamy. Stir in the cream and 450g of blackcurrants. Dissolve the gelatin in two tablespoons of boiling water, and combine it with the currant mixture. Pour this onto the refrigerated cheesecake crust. Let chill in the refrigerator approximately one hour or until it hardens.<br>Meanwhile, whip the cream until it is very smooth, and add the egg white. Spoon this cream onto the chilled cheesecake. Decorate the cream topping and the edge of the cheesecake with the remaining blackcurrants. Refrigerate 15 minutes before serving. | Ingredients: 2 cups crushed graham crackers, ⅓ cup butter, melted, 5 cups cream cheese, 5 cups cottage cheese, drained, 1 cup granulated sugar, 2 teaspoons vanilla extract, 5 eggs, yolks separated from the whites.<br>Preheat oven to 450°. Grease sides and bottom of a 9in. spring-form cake pan. Combine crushed crackers with butter and press firmly into cake pan. Refrigerate 15–20 minutes or until set.<br>In large bowl, mix cream cheese, cottage cheese, sugar, vanilla, salt and yolks. Beat until uniform and creamy. Add milk, whipped cream and flour. Beat egg whites until hard peaks form and fold into cheese mixture. Add lemon rind. Pour over mixture into pan and bake at 360° for 45 minutes. Allow to cool in oven, with door open. Refrigerate before serving. |

**Figure 7.10** Functional and Textual Adequacy.

actual texts. After you understand the concept of Functional and Textual Adequacy, we will see examples of textual evaluation in regard to this component.

### Practice 7.2: Functional and Textual Adequacy

Consider the examples in Figure 7.10 (also in Examples 4.26 and 4.27, in Chapter 4). They are both translations of the same type of recipe into English. As we mentioned in Practice 4.2, Recipe 2 is a more typical recipe than Recipe 1. Why? Think about what makes the recipes different (see section 4.3 for review and a detailed analysis of these texts).

#### Commentary

Although Recipe 1 is not completely unacceptable as a recipe, Recipe 2 clearly sounds like one. It has the features we described in Chapter 4 as typical of the recipe genre (e.g., omission of prepositions with ingredients, imperatives, short sentences, omission of objects, etc.). Recipe 2 would obtain the highest grade in the Functional and Textual Adequacy component. It is a good example of the recipe genre and of a functionally and textually adequate text for a brief that asks for functional equivalence.

### Practice 7.3: Functional and Textual Adequacy

Consider the left column of the text in Figure 7.11. Now compare that with the text below:

> Wet with enough water before use. Wash any dirty sections with water. After cleaning stained surfaces, wipe with a dry cloth. Wash with running water and dry after use.

Which of the texts is a better representative of a set of instructions in English, the text in Figure 7.11 or the one here in Practice 7.3?

### Commentary

If you guessed Practice 7.3, you are correct. Practice 7.3 would obtain the highest grade in the Functional and Textual Adequacy component, whereas Figure 7.11 would be probably much lower.

By applying what you learned about textual features and genres (see section 4.3), you will have noticed that the text in Figure 7.11 does not have many of the representative textual features of an instructional set in English. The sentences are long and repetitive, and include explicit object pronouns ("it"), which English tends to omit in instructions. Take, for instance, the sentence, "If it becomes dirty, wash the dirty part lightly with water." It will sound more "instruction-like" if we make it a one-verb (non-subordinate) sentence, along the lines of: "Wash any dirty parts with water."

Consider now Example 7.1, which we referred to in Chapter 3 (see section 3.3). You will recall that it illustrates how a functional or pragmatic shift can take place in translation if translators focus on syntactic form, disregarding pragmatic force. A pragmatic shift would be evaluated under the Functional and Textual Adequacy component.

### **Example 7.1:** Functional and Textual Adequacy component

Why don't you eat more chicken? (at the dinner table, pointing at a big bowl with chicken)

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| a. ¿Por | qué | no comes | más | pollo? |
| Why | | not you –eat | more | chicken |

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| b. Come | más | pollo, | por favor. |
| eat | more | chicken, | please |

Notice that the Spanish translations (a) and (b) (with interlinear English glosses) of the source English text in Example 7.1 are both acceptable in terms of the Target Language component. However, for a brief that calls for functional equivalence, (a) does not have the same function as the English source, as the

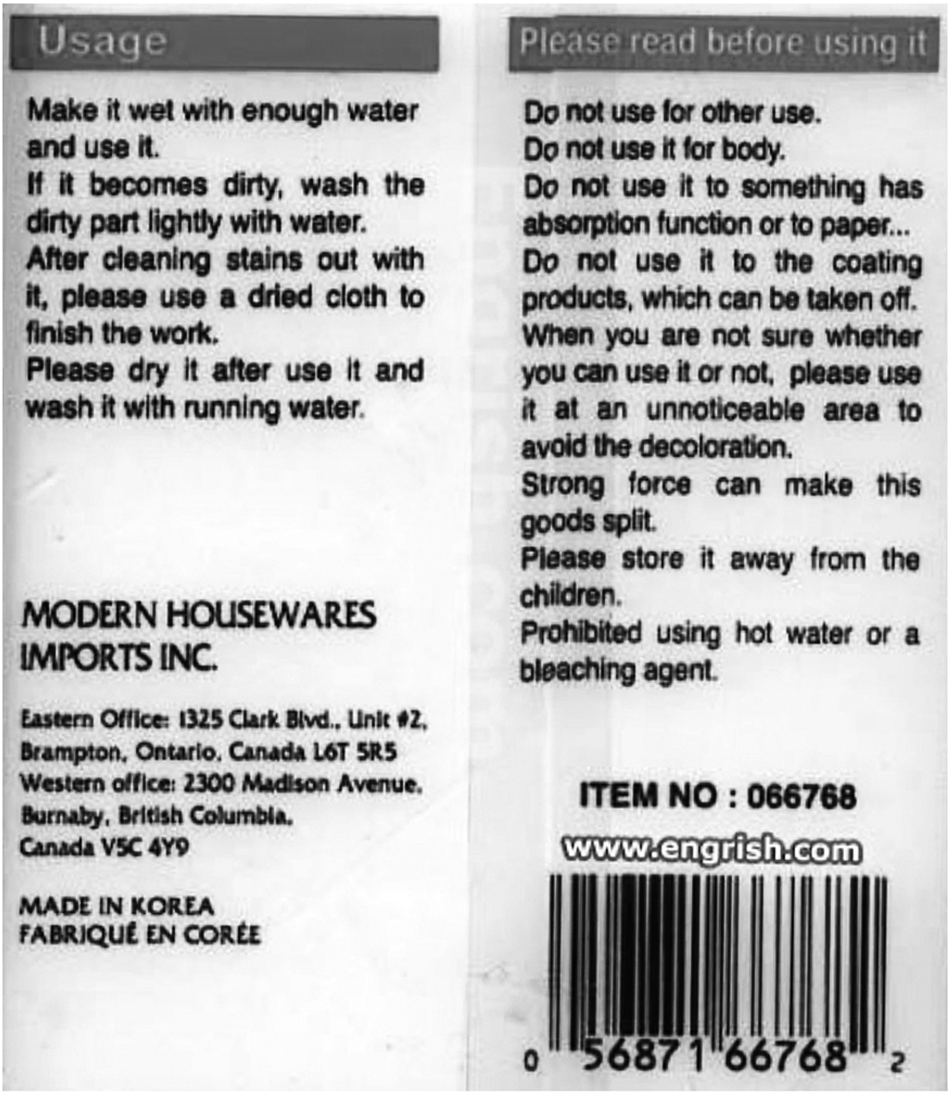



**Figure 7.11** Functional and Textual Adequacy.

person would be inclined to take it as a request for information in Spanish, whereas in English it is a suggestion or invitation. Consequently, (b) would earn a low score in the Functional and Textual Adequacy component.

Now that we have explained the concept of functional and textual adequacy, in the next few pages we will go over examples of the descriptors for this category. Figure 7.12 includes the descriptors used in the TQA tool; as we did

**2. Functional and Textual Adequacy**

| Category number | Description | Check one box |
|---|---|---|
| 2.a | Disregard for the goals, purpose, function and audience of the text. The text was translated without considering textual units, textual purpose, genre, or need of the audience (cultural, linguistic, etc.). Cannot be repaired with revisions. | |
| 2.b | The translated text gives some consideration to the intended purpose and audience for the translation, but misses some important aspect(s) of it (e.g., level of formality, some aspect of its function, needs of the audience, cultural considerations, etc.). Repair requires effort. | |
| 2.c | The translated text approximates to the goals, purpose (function) and needs of the intended audience, but it is not as efficient as it could be, given the restrictions and instructions for the translation. Can be repaired with suggested edits. | |
| 2.d | The translated text accurately accomplishes the goals, purpose (i.e., function type: informative, expressive, persuasive) set for the translation and intended audience (including level of formality). It also attends to cultural needs and characteristics of the audience. Minor or no edits needed. | |
| Examples/comments | | |

**Figure 7.12** Functional and Textual Adequacy component.

with previous categories, we present textual examples of the descriptors (Figures 7.13–16).

The camera text in Figure 7.13 (see also Figure 1.9) earns the worst descriptor above, (2.a), because it is hard to determine whether these are, in fact, instructions for the use of a camera. This document is written in the form of a letter, which is an acceptable organizational structure for instructions in some cultures; however, English readers do not normally encounter this genre associated with an instructional purpose, thus making it difficult for them to identify it as an informational sheet.

The letter discussed in Chapter 6 (Figure 6.4), repeated here for convenience as Figure 7.14, would also correspond to descriptor (2.a) because it ignores the fact that the level of formality likely to be used by a bishop is not the one encountered in the Spanish translation. Readers will probably be confused when reading this translation, as they probably will not picture a bishop writing to them in such informal language. In addition, the letter does not sound like an official

*** READ THIS BEFORE YOU USE YOUR 35MM CAMERA PLEASE!**

Dear Customer:

Thank you for buying our 35mm camera. Allow me to explain something to you: How the 35mm camera works well? When you pull out the rewinder knob, please don't pull it out too hard. May be you can find a experienced person to help you. When you loaded the film it should be loaded in proper position (right on the gears), then close the back tightly and advance the film until the film counter reads from "1". (please always use ASA 100 Negative)

When you can take a nice picture. this is good timing from 8:00 AM till 11:00 AM and from 2:30 PM till 4:30 PM. The subject should have to face the enough sunshing then you can take a good picture.

How to release the film? First of all, you have to PUSH IN the rewind button located at the base of the camera body then start to rewind the film, when it fully rewound then pull out the rewind knob slightly and sent the film to develop it.

Sincerely Yours **www.engrish.com**

**Figure 7.13** Example of descriptor (2.a).

letter and uses none of the common, formulaic language structures typical of this genre in the target language.

Finally, a Chinese example illustrates ratings in two categories: Functional and Textual Adequacy (see Figures 7.15 and 7.16) and Non-Specialized Content (Meaning) (we will refer to the latter in the next section).

The heading "Prevent Hepatitis . . ." was omitted in the Chinese translation. Because of this omission, the translator used the translation for the first part of the sentence at the bottom of the same column ("Hepatitis B is a serious disease") as the heading, making the small print ("caused by the hepatitis B virus (HBV) that attacks the liver and can be spread to others") an incomplete sentence. The omission of the headline and the subsequent restructuring of the remaining content affect the function of the translation negatively: Most likely, the reader will not be convinced to get vaccinated. Thus, the corresponding descriptor for this translation will probably be (2.b).

## 3. Non-Specialized Content (Meaning)

This component evaluates how well the translated text conveys the meaning of the source text with respect to the translation brief. It is important to clarify that what counts as an omission, addition or change in meaning is not

[Salutation]

On June 25, I announced that I was summoning the first Synod in the history of the Diocese.

I am frequently asked, “What is a Synod?” Put simply, from December 4 to December 9, 400 of the laity, priests, deacons and religious will meet together in prayer and study to chart the future direction of the Diocese.

You might also ask, “What will the Synod discuss?”....

[....]

This Synod is a great event in the history of the Diocese, and I ask for your support in this great endeavor.

Target text

No introductory paragraph. Straight to the point.

[Salutation]

El 25 de junio, yo anuncié que convocaría el primer sínodo en la historia de la diócesis.

Me preguntan con frecuencia, “¿Qué es un sínodo?”En pocas palabras, desde el 5 al 8 de diciembre, 400 laicos, sacerdotes, diáconos y religiosos se juntarán en oración y estudiarán para programar la dirección futura de la diócesis.

Very informal phrase, oral discourse

A la mejor también se preguntan, “¿Qué se discutirá en el sínodo?”

Abrupt ending

[....]

Este sínodo será un gran evento en la historia de la diócesis y les pido su apoyo en este esfuerzo.

[Closing salutation and Signature]

Excerpts adapted from original letter from a North American Catholic Diocese.

**Figure 7.14** Example of descriptor (2.a).

measured with respect to some abstract, idealized notion of equivalence. As mentioned before, we understand and measure equivalence as the necessary degree of equivalence required by the instructions, the purpose of the translation and the audience.

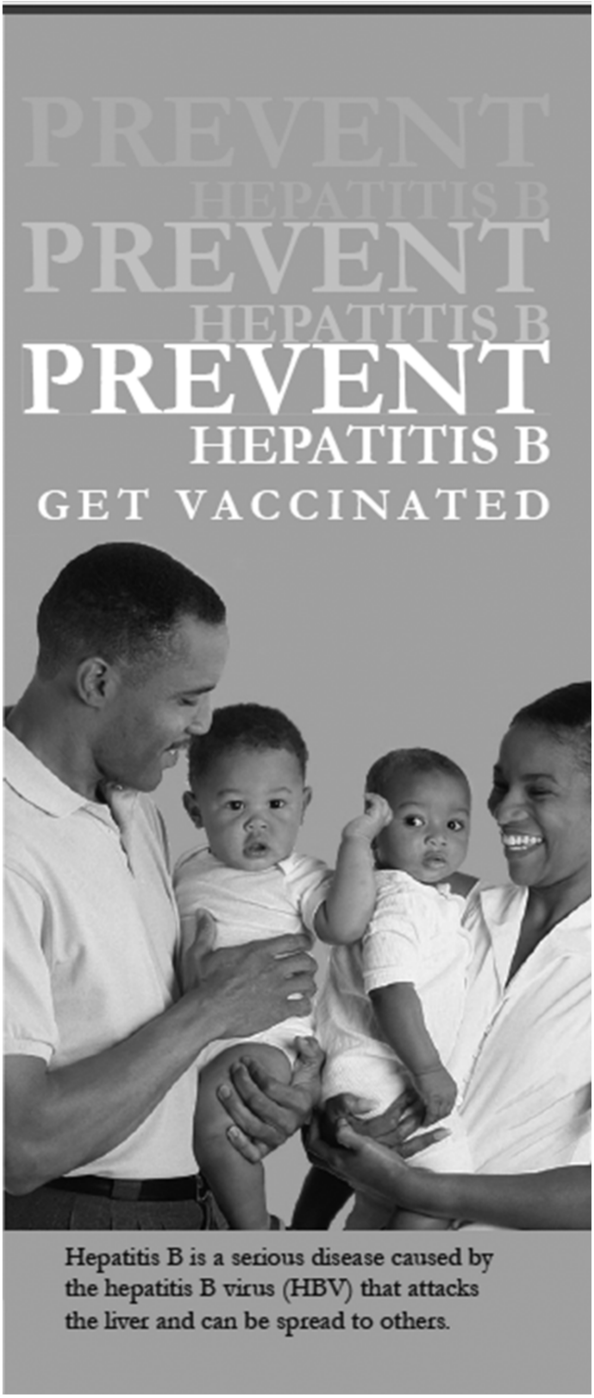



**Figure 7.15** Example of descriptor (2.b).


**Figure 7.16** Example of descriptor (2.b).

Imagine someone asks you to translate the sentence "He came late" in Example 7.2 into Spanish. While it is true that you have no context, and it is a very simple example, it works to illustrate the point we are trying to make. In any case, you could come up with at least two translations, (a) and (b), as in Example 7.2.

### **Example 7.2:** Non-Specialized Content (Meaning) component

He came late

a. Él llegó tarde
*he-subject arrived late*

b. Llegó tarde
*arrived late*

Consider now which of the translations in Example 7.2 is the closest equivalent to the English source. In other words, think about which one is the most appropriate translation as far as conveying the meaning of the source without additions, omissions or modifications. The answer is not a straightforward one. Whether (a) or (b) is more appropriate in terms of meaning depends, as usual, on the instructions. If the translation is for someone who wants to know the structure of a sentence in English (Subject + Verb + Adverb), then the best translation would be (a) "El llegó tarde." However, if the function of the translation is to let someone know that this person was late, then (b) "Llegó tarde" is a better equivalent. Technically, the subject has been omitted, but this cannot be considered an omission for this purpose, although it would be under the first brief. Of course, the second brief is much more common, and therefore translation (b) is more likely to be the better one, but this cannot be determined a priori without a translation brief or an experienced translator who may be able to fill in the details of the brief on the basis of experience.

Figure 7.17 shows the descriptors for Non-Specialized Content.

In Figure 7.15 and Figure 7.16 we briefly referred to an omission. This omission would earn the descriptor (3.a) in the Non-Specialized Content

**3. Non-Specialized Content (Meaning)**

| Category number | Description | Check one box |
|---|---|---|
| 3.a | The translation reflects or contains important unwarranted deviations from the original. It contains inaccurate renditions and/or important omissions and additions that cannot be justified by the instructions. Very defective comprehension of the original text. | |
| 3.b | There have been some changes in meaning, omissions and/or additions that cannot be justified by the translation instructions. Translation shows some misunderstanding of the original text and/or translation instructions. | |
| 3.c | Minor alterations in meaning, additions or omissions. | |
| 3.d | The translation accurately reflects the content contained in the original, insofar as it is required by the instructions without unwarranted alterations, omissions or additions. Slight nuances and shades of meaning have been rendered adequately. | |
| Examples/comments | | |

**Figure 7.17** Non-Specialized Content (Meaning) component.

(Meaning) component because it is important, and it is not justified by the brief.

## 4. Specialized Content and Terminology

This component applies to texts that contain specialized terminology and content. A text that is deficient in this area will not only exhibit inadequate terminology, but possibly also meaning and coherence issues due to the fact that specialized content in the source was either not understood or not expressed in a coherent way in the target text. For instance, imagine a physics text that refers to "heat" in the sense of "energy." If the translator reads "heat" as "temperature," the specialized content/meaning of the target text will be severely affected. The descriptors for this component appear in Figure 7.18.

The goal of the previous paragraphs was to assist you in attaining a conceptual grasp of the components and descriptors of the TQA tool. In what follows we review the procedural and mechanical steps involved in the evaluation of a translated text using the same rubric.

**4. Specialized Content and Terminology**

| Category Number | Description | Check one box |
|---|---|---|
| 4.a | Reveals unawareness/ignorance of special terminology and/or insufficient knowledge of specialized content. | |
| 4.b | Serious/frequent mistakes involving terminology and/or specialized content. | |
| 4.c | A few terminological errors, but the specialized content is not seriously affected. | |
| 4.d | Accurate and appropriate rendition of the terminology. It reflects a good command of terms and content specific to the subject. | |
| Examples/comments | | |

**Figure 7.18** Specialized Content and Terminology component.

### Step 1. Part I of the cover page (Figure 7.4)

The person requesting the translation or the evaluation completes Part I of the TQA tool cover page. This part of the cover page is used to formalize a request and orient raters to the text by making explicit the translation instructions that will serve as the guiding principle for the evaluation. If you are to use the tool for self-evaluation, this is the page where you would include the instructions from the translation brief. In consonance with its functionalist orientation, the translation brief for the evaluation includes basic information about the source and target text, their respective purpose and use, and the communicative context.

Each component of the tool represents an important aspect of quality. As we saw earlier, the Quality Criteria section of Part I is designed so that the user/requester can decide whether one focus area should be of greater priority than the others. The priority can be customized for various text types and genres, as well as for different briefs. For instance, if we were to evaluate an academic research paper that has been translated for a medical journal that publishes only in English, the Specialized Language and Terminology component would be given the highest priority.

### Step 2. Evaluation process

During the evaluation process, the translation is examined four times. Each time, the rater looks to match the text to the best description in each of the four components. It is good practice to assess the translation for Target Language and Functional and Textual Adequacy first without looking at the source text (Figures 7.5 and 7.12). This helps to avoid source-text form influence on rating decisions about the target language.

Raters can then read the source text, contrasting the translation with the source text and with their first impressions as a target reader. This step is vital as a measure of how adequately a translation relates to the source in the context of the translation instructions (this, of course, allows for varying degrees of resemblance) and honors the communicative context of the intended target audiences. The first rating may need to be adjusted now, before continuing the assessment for the final two categories – Non-Specialized Content and Specialized Content (Figures 7.17 and 7.18).

**Step 3. Assignment of numerical values/scores (optional)**

Each component can be assigned a custom numerical score decided upon by the requester and the evaluator on the basis of evaluation priorities. Figure 7.19 contains an example of those selected for the testing of the tool in Colina (2009), for health education materials.

**Step 4. Summary recommendation**

Now we turn to Part II of the TQA tool cover page to report results to requesters. As illustrated in Figure 7.20, this report provides a summary of the assessment with recommendations that can range from "publish the text as is" to "the translation needs to be redone." The raters can recommend edits and note whether, in their professional judgment, a translation is the best strategy to accomplish the purpose of the commissioner. This last option allows for the possibility, regardless of translator skill, that a particular text may require an approach that goes beyond translation, e.g., an adaptation, a new version, etc. (see Chapter 1).

## 7.7 A user-defined, comprehensive view of quality: Adaptation

Section 7.6 included a detailed explanation of an example of a tool, the TQA, to illustrate an evaluation system, based on a functionalist model of

**SCORING WORKSHEET**

| Component: Target Language | | |
|---|---|---|
| Category # | Value | Score |
| 1.a | 5 | |
| 1.b | 15 | |
| 1.c | 25 | |
| 1.d | 30 | |

| Component: Functional and Textual Adequacy | | |
|---|---|---|
| Category # | Value | Score |
| 2.a | 5 | |
| 2.b | 10 | |
| 2.c | 20 | |
| 2.d | 25 | |

| Component: Non-Specialized Content | | |
|---|---|---|
| Category # | Value | Score |
| 3.a | 5 | |
| 3.b | 10 | |
| 3.c | 20 | |
| 3.d | 25 | |

| Component: Specialized Content and Terminology | | |
|---|---|---|
| Category # | Value | Score |
| 4.a | 5 | |
| 4.b | 10 | |
| 4.c | 15 | |
| 4.d | 20 | |

| Tally Sheet | | |
|---|---|---|
| Component | Category Rating | Score Value |
| Target Language | | |
| Functional and Textual Adequacy | | |
| Non-Specialized Content | | |
| Specialized Content and Terminology | | |
| **Total Score** | | |

**Figure 7.19** Scoring worksheet.

translation, that can be tested and that is easy to put into practice. The TQA tool, as a concrete tool, also reflects particular contextual situations, specific objects and purposes. Nonetheless, the functional-componential model of evaluation that it instantiates can be used in a variety of contexts and purposes. In this section we show how the TQA tool can be adapted for use in various situations.

One way in which the TQA tool, or one like it, can be adapted to reflect a range of priorities is by modifying numerical scores for components and descriptors. For instance, the scoring worksheet for health education brochures gives more weight to the Target Language component than to other areas, with Specialized Content and Terminology being the lowest component. This is justified because, since health education materials target a lay audience, we would not expect them to contain much specialized terminology

| Rater(Name) | | Date Completed | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Information | | Date Received | |

| ASSESSMENT SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATION | |
|---|---|
| *(To be completed after evaluating translated text)* | ❑ Publish/Use as is<br>❑ Minor edits needed before publishing<br>❑ Major revision needed before publishing<br>❑ Redo translation<br>❑ Translation will not be an effective communication strategy for this text.<br>Explore other options (i.e., create new target language materials) |
| Notes/Recommended Edits | |

**Figure 7.20** TQA tool cover page – Part II.

or content. The Target Language component carries more weight than textual and general meaning, but it would also be possible to make it equal to the others. An example of how to do this is provided in Practice 7.4, where an assessment situation is presented (along with the customized scoring sheet [see Figure 7.21]).

### **Practice 7.4:** Customizing the scoring worksheet

Suppose that the same health education brochures are to be translated for a health promoter in a French-speaking country in Africa who is interested in studying approaches to health education in various countries, including, in this case, the United States. The ultimate goal is to determine whether it is possible to use some of the same techniques that are used in Africa.

Adjust the values on the scoring worksheet in Figure 7.19 for each of the components to reflect this new brief. What would be the priorities in this case? Would any of the previously heavily weighted components receive fewer points?

## Commentary

Under the instructions in Practice 7.4, it would be reasonable to assume that the text does not have to follow functional or textual conventions for the target-text type and genre; instead, a closer rendition to the source would work better. In other words, functional and textual adequacy and target-language adequacy may not be as crucial as they are for a text with an educational purpose. Similarly, specialized content does not have a high priority because of the general nature of the text. As a result, a more equally weighted distribution of points (with the exception of the Specialized Content and Terminology component) would be more appropriate for a target text produced under this new brief (see Figure 7.21).

In addition to the priorities and numerical scores, it is possible to modify the TQA descriptors and components. You can also use them as descriptors only (no numerical values), combined with edits and comments on the target text. This type of adaptation is often helpful when qualitative, formative feedback is

**SCORING WORKSHEET**

| **Component: Target Language** | | |
|---|---|---|
| Category # | Value | **Score** |
| 1.a | 5 | |
| 1.b | 10 | |
| 1.c | 20 | |
| 1.d | 30 | |

| **Component: Functional and Textual Adequacy** | | |
|---|---|---|
| Category # | Value | **Score** |
| 2.a | 5 | |
| 2.b | 10 | |
| 2.c | 20 | |
| 2.d | 30 | |

| **Component: Non-Specialized Content** | | |
|---|---|---|
| Category # | Value | **Score** |
| 3.a | 5 | |
| 3.b | 10 | |
| 3.c | 20 | |
| 3.d | 30 | |

| **Component: Specialized Content and Terminology** | | |
|---|---|---|
| Category # | Value | **Score** |
| 4.a | 0 | |
| 4.b | 5 | |
| 4.c | 8 | |
| 4.d | 10 | |

**Figure 7.21** Customizing the scoring worksheet.

Purpose: Evaluation of translator competence. Formative and summative
- Formative: Uses descriptors and evaluation as formative feedback. Because of the formative aspect of the educational context, it is highly recommended that comments are included in the comment boxes of the tool.
- Summative: By evaluating the quality of a textual, translated product, the tool assists in the evaluation of translation competence; it is one of various assessment measures used to determine whether the student has reached the level of proficiency required for the course/program.

Object:
- Translation product: A translated text.
- Student competence is evaluated only indirectly: A quality product implies a quality translator.
- More specific diagnosis of competence requires additional data, and other measures of competence.

**Figure 7.22** Purpose and object of evaluation in an educational context.

needed, as, for instance, in educational contexts or for self-evaluation. In the following paragraphs, we consider evaluation in an educational context, for student translations, and for independent learning.

## Using a functional-componential tool for the evaluation of student translation products

It is uncontroversial that the object of translation teaching is the acquisition of translation competence. While a separate rubric is needed to evaluate competence, translation products can serve as one of several measures of competence. A componential tool like the TQA tool can be used for educational purposes with a few additional considerations.

Let us imagine a professional translation class in which students submit translated texts for evaluation. In order to evaluate the quality of student translations, we first need to consider the evaluation context. In a translation class that aims to educate/train professional translators for the translation market, the evaluation of student translation products has both a formative and a summative purpose. The object of evaluation is a translated product. Figure 7.22 includes additional details about the purpose and object for the educational context.

As we explained above with regard to purpose, the translated product can sometimes provide evidence about the process used by the student and therefore about student competence; however, in most cases, this is indirect, speculative evidence that needs to be supported with additional information.

As an example, ungrammatical article usage (e.g., "<u>the</u> lions are strong animals") in a translation into English would be reflected in the Target Language component; however, additional evidence will be required in order to determine whether such behavior is a reflection of defective linguistic competence or of transfer (strategic competence). In other words, did the student include an article in English because he/she was not familiar with target-language norms on article usage or because he/she failed to make the necessary changes in translation (possibly influenced by the presence of an article in the source text or a defective understanding of translation) that made him/her believe that every word needed to be in the target text? While the answer is important in an educational context and in the assessment of competence, the translated product alone (and the evaluative results of this product produced by a functional, componential tool) cannot offer a definitive answer.

Unlike the evaluation of someone else's work, when a componential rubric is used for self-assessment (to monitor one's own work or as a self-evaluation to be turned in to a teacher to modify/check), the evaluator is in a better position to determine the source of the error. In fact, an evaluation rubric like the one presented in section 7.6 can be used to guide the translator's work, much in the same way students produce papers or work by considering the evaluation rubric handed to them ahead of time by the teacher.

The evaluative information obtained with a componential rubric like the one we have described here can also be used by teachers – despite its limitations – to aid in competence assessment and diagnosis. Teachers can relate tool components to competence aspects and thus have a more specific way to focus on separate, more manageable areas of ability and on a translator's/student's weaker areas.

Let us see now the translation quality components reviewed are related to competence.

Most models of translation competence (Kiraly [1990], Cao [1996], PACTE [2000], Colina [2003]) propose various subcomponents, generally grouped around:

- linguistic knowledge (e.g., semantic, syntactic, pragmatic, textual, sociolinguistic competence)
- strategic knowledge (e.g., transfer knowledge, interlingual and intercultural competence), which is the ability to use linguistic knowledge in the context of a translation task
- knowledge structures (e.g., encyclopedic, background, specialized and cultural knowledge about the world and about translation).

Each component of the tool can be linked to one or more of the above subcompetences (which can be indicated in the tool itself or on a separate document, as an aid to students). The reason that rubric components often correspond to more than one subcompetence is that the object of evaluation (according to which the tool was designed) is not competence per se but its manifestation in a translated text. For instance, in our previous example regarding article usage, the Target Language component in the TQA tool reflects the subcompetences of linguistic proficiency and strategic knowledge (e.g., transfer difficulties). Figure 7.23 lists competences that are relevant to each component of our TQA example.

Target Language
- Covers linguistic structure, both at the micro and macro levels, from spelling, to cohesive devices and structural markers.
- Areas of translation competence include linguistic proficiency (grammatical, textual) and strategic competence (transfer, interlingual competence).

Functional and Textual Adequacy
- Covers aspects of a text that are *not* directly related to grammaticality or "correct" structure.
- Evaluates the functional success of text, i.e., whether it accomplishes the function specified in the brief. It also includes matters of formality, register, sociolinguistics and cultural issues.
- Areas of translation competence include linguistic proficiency (sociolinguistic, pragmatic, communicative) and strategic competence (transfer, interlingual and intercultural competence).

Non-Specialized Content (Meaning)
- Areas of translation competence include linguistic proficiency (all levels), strategic competence (transfer, interlingual competence) and knowledge structures (knowledge of the world).

Specialized Content and Terminology
- Areas of translation competence include knowledge structures (specialized knowledge), linguistic proficiency (specialized register) and strategic competence (transfer).

**Figure 7.23** Competences and TQA components.

## Summary

Evaluation is an essential component of translation practice (in both professional and educational contexts), and it is crucially connected to theories and conceptualizations of translation. The difficulties and lack of overall success in existing attempts to produce a general framework of evaluation are related to the multiplicity of purposes and conceptualizations of translation involved in existing approaches that often remain unstated. Basic notions that need to be made explicit before embarking on evaluation are the purpose and object of evaluation. Translation evaluation approaches need to have explicit theoretical or empirical foundations, and must be testable, flexible, customer-defined and easy-to-apply. An example of a functional, componential tool that meets the above requirements is the Translation Quality Assessment (TQA) tool in Colina (2008), (2009). The sample tool is related to principles discussed in previous chapters: translation brief, source text, target-text norms, functional adequacy, specialized content, etc. It evaluates components of a translation product separately (i.e., target-text adequacy, functional and textual adequacy, and meaning and specialized meaning), using descriptors that are matched to the translation product. The components of the tool are related to translation competence subcomponents and can thus be useful in an educational context. A cover page indicating evaluation priorities and including the translation instructions serves to make sure that evaluation is always carried out with regard to the brief, in consonance with a functionalist approach. A componential rubric like the example presented can also be a powerful tool for self-assessment and independent learning, and it can be used to guide the translation process.

### Key words

Object of evaluation, purpose of evaluation, summative vs. formative evaluation, criterion-referenced and norm-referenced evaluation, reader-response approach to evaluation, textual approach to evaluation, componential approach to evaluation, descriptive approach to evaluation, component of evaluation, Target Language (component), Functional and Textual Adequacy (component), Non-Specialized Content (Meaning) (component), Specialized Content and Terminology (component).

## Exercises

Exercise 1

You are a professor of translation at a higher-education institution. You need to evaluate the translation proficiency of translation graduates to determine their readiness to take professional certification exams in your country. Determine the factors you would need to consider before proceeding with evaluation. Consider, at the least, object, purpose, summative or formative, norm-referenced or criterion-based (see also Figure 7.1).

Exercise 2

Discuss how translation evaluation is relevant to your translation activities and your personal involvement in translation. For instance, if you are a company manager, you may have to evaluate sample translations produced by applicants to determine whether they can perform adequately enough to be hired.

Exercise 3

Briefly describe one evaluation activity that may take place in your translation work (e.g., you are a student of translation and you have to do a peer evaluation of your classmate's assignment).

Exercise 4

For the activity in Exercise 2, indicate the object and purpose of evaluation. Also indicate whether evaluation would be summative or formative, and criterion- or norm-referenced.

Exercise 5

In section 7.3 we reviewed major approaches to the evaluation of translations. Have you encountered any of these approaches or rubrics in a practical situation (e.g., the one you use to mark student translations, the one your teacher uses/used to grade your work, a point system used to review professional translations in your daily work as a manager, etc.)? If so, try to classify it according to what we have discussed in this chapter. Share, discuss and compare with those of classmates or colleagues.

**Exercise 6**
How would you adapt numerical scores and priorities for the following text types and briefs?

1. Translation of non-English academic transcripts into English for admission to a British university.
2. Translation of advanced directives for use by Chinese-speaking immigrants in Australia.
3. Newspaper job ad placed by a US health corporation trying to recruit doctors for its newest facility in Germany.

**Exercise 7**
List three reasons why evaluation is important to the field of translation.

**Exercise 8**
What do we mean by "object of evaluation"?

**Exercise 9**
List and explain three major approaches to translation evaluation.

**Exercise 10**
Why is the componential-functionalist approach said to be "functionalist"? How is this reflected in the TQA tool?

**Exercise 11**
List three difficulties involved in the design of a generalized system of translation evaluation.

**Exercise 12**
Indicate whether the following evaluation situations are likely to be: (a) formative or summative (F/S); (b) criterion- or norm-referenced (CR/NR):

a. A translation sample requested by an agency for a translator searching for employment.
b. A translation mid-term exam for a translation course.
c. A professional translation exam for a government certification board.
d. A translation exam to determine placement in a series of translation courses.

## Further reading

Colina (2011), (2012) contains recent overviews of translation quality assessment from the point of view of translation studies. House (2001), also an overview of the topic within translation studies, offers a more equivalence-oriented perspective. Colina (2003) provides examples and guidance for quality assessment and evaluation for translation teachers.

# Answer key

## Chapter 1

**Exercise 1** Indicate whether the term “translation” is being used to refer to the process, product or field.

1. The company was offering free translation services to non-profit corporations. *Process.*
2. An English translation of the Koran is available for all those attending the class. *Product.*
3. The Open Translation Project offers subtitles, interactive transcripts and the ability for any talk to be translated by volunteers worldwide. *Process.*
4. The student decided to switch his major from literature to translation. *Field.*
5. I was not too happy with the first draft of the translation, so I decided to have someone else go over it. *Product.*
6. Translation is enjoying a come-back among language teachers. *Field.*

**Exercise 2** Find three sentences (books, the Internet, dictionaries, etc.) in which the term “translation” is used to mean a process, product or field.

Answers may vary.

1. She was too involved in the translation of the document to be a good critic of it. *Process.*
2. This publishing company is known for its translations of major works of literature. *Product.*
3. The researcher made the point that translation is more interdisciplinary than language acquisition. *Field.*

**Exercise 3** Using the table below, indicate the ST, TT, SL and TL for each of the texts listed in 1–4.

*Example*: Microsoft Word User manuals for Brazil

1. *Don Quixote*, Miguel de Cervantes
2. Brochure for the use of English-speaking tourists in Dubai
3. Advanced directives for Russian-speaking immigrants in Sydney, Australia
4. Medical history for Haitian refugees in a community clinic in Florida

| | ST | TT | SL | TL |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Example | User manuals in English | User manuals in Portuguese | English | Portuguese |
| 1. | *Don Quixote* | *Don Quixote* | Spanish | English |
| 2. | Brochure in Arabic | Brochure in English | Arabic | English |
| 3. | Advanced directives | Advanced directives in Russian | English | Russian |
| 4. | Medical history | Medical history in Haitian Creole | English | Haitian Creole |

**Exercise 4** 1. Find three definitions of translation (two of which must be from translation and/or translation studies publications) and write them down along with their sources. (If they are from non-English sources, please include an English translation, so that those who do not know the SL can understand the definition.) Indicate whether they refer to translation as a process or a product.

Answers may vary. Some samples:

> "all utterances which are presented or regarded as such on whatever grounds."
> Source: Toury (1995: 32).

Product or Process: Product.

> "the process of translation between two different written languages involves the translator changing an original written text in the original verbal language into a written text in a different verbal language." Source: Munday (2001: 5).

Product or Process: Process.

> "Translation may be defined as follows: the replacement of textual material in one language (SL) by equivalent textual material in another language (TL)."
> Source: Catford (1965: 20).

Product or Process: Process.

> "Translation is a craft consisting of the attempt to replace a written message and/or statement in one language by the same message and/or statement in another language." Source: Newmark (1981: 7).

Product or Process: Process.

2. Identify the sections of those definitions that refer to how translation is to be performed.

"...involves the translator changing an original written text in the original verbal language into a written text in a different verbal language"

"...the replacement of textual material in one language (SL) by equivalent textual material in another language (TL)"

"Translation is a craft consisting of the attempt to replace a written message and/or statement in one language by the same message and/or statement in another language"

Comments: Munday's definition is rather objective, along the lines of the one presented in this book; Catford's and Newmark's require equivalence and sameness.

**Exercise 5 (Group work – online or in class)** Working together with students or colleagues (online or in class), create a file with all the definitions (at least fifteen) found by all in Exercise 4. Compare them, and study their differences and similarities. See if they can all be combined into one, unified definition. Comment on the process you went through in trying to do this.

Answers may vary.

**Exercise 6** Examine the texts provided (Figures 1.11–13) and rank the degree of formal equivalence, resemblance or correspondence to the source text (1=lowest, 3=highest) needed for a translation into your target language and culture. Think in terms of the most common purpose and audience for this text type/genre in your target culture.

| **Text** | **Target language/culture** | **Correspondence** | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Fig.1.11 Dental survey | Western Europe | 1 | 2✓ | 3 |
| Fig.1.12 How to eat well | Western Europe | 1✓ | 2 | 3 |
| Fig.1.13 Academic transcript | Western Europe | 1 | 2 | 3✓ |

**Exercise 7** Compare and contrast the following pairs of activities/fields:

MT/CAT
Internationalization/software localization
Revising/reviewing
Terminology management/Language for Specific Purposes

MT: automatic translation without human intervention, e.g., Google Translate, Systran. CAT: tools to aid translators with their translation work, e.g., translation memories, databases, electronic corpora, etc., e.g., Trados.

Internationalization: Internationalization generally does not involve translation per se, only designing products so that they can be easily adapted to/translated into various languages and cultures later in the process. For instance, designing on–off buttons with symbols rather than the words "on/off" is an example of internationalizing design process.

Software localization involves adaptation and/or translation of language, symbols and other elements to the local culture and language. It may involve translation, among various other options.

Revising vs. reviewing: According to ISO usage, revising requires checking the translation against the source text, while reviewing only considers the target text and norms of target-language use (without reference to the source).

Language for Specific Purposes includes teaching, learning and researching terminology, but it is only one activity among others. It is a linguistic field of activity in general which also covers textual, discourse, pragmatics, etc. Terminology and terminology management focus exclusively on terms and their use (lexical level) and on the issues involved in creating, developing and researching terminology. In general, teaching and linguistic issues beyond the lexical level are not part of its purview. Both Language for Specific Purposes and terminological work focus on specialized language use particular to subject fields or domains of activity.

**Exercise 8** Are you aware of any additional terms (along the lines of dynamic/formal, communicative/semantic, etc.) that are commonly used (even among lay people) to refer to the degree of correspondence between the source text and target text? Define them. Give examples. How similar to or different from the above terms are they?

Literal/free translation. Literal translation is an almost word-for-word rendering of the source text; readability and communication are sacrificed for the sake of form preservation and respect for the original. Many legal translations are done this way. A free translation gives priority to the target text and communication purposes over the form. An example would be the translation of a business letter. Literal translation is similar to semantic and formal translation, and free translation approximates dynamic and communicative translation.

**Exercise 9** For each of the translations in Exercise 6 indicate whether, in your target language/culture, they would normally be overt or covert, communicative or semantic, dynamic or formal. Recall that these terms are not mutually exclusive; rather, they constitute two extremes on a continuum. Therefore, for the purposes of this exercise you are asked to determine which of the two would be the dominant strategy overall for the translation.

| ST | Target language/ culture | Overt/ covert | Communicative/ semantic | Dynamic/ formal |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Fig. 1.11 | Western Europe | covert | communicative | dynamic |
| Fig. 1.12 | Western Europe | covert | communicative | dynamic |
| Fig. 1.13 | Western Europe | overt | semantic | formal |

**Exercise 10** Use Google Translate to obtain the raw output for a language other than English from the source text in Figure 1.7a. Compare the result with the English source text. What are some of the difficulties faced by this MT system?

Difficulties generally have to do with encyclopedic knowledge, knowledge of the world and figurative language. For instance, compounds and N+N structures in English require world/cultural knowledge to disambiguate possible interpretations. For some languages that do not have this type of structure, explicitation may be necessary. In addition, phrases not entered into the database as a phrase or unit will often be given a literal, word-for-word translation.

Depending on the structure of the language, there may be others.

**Exercise 11** After examining the target text produced by Google Translate in Exercise 10, what would you say this MT (and others in general) are good at? What types of text can a MT system be useful for? For which would it be less adequate? Suggestion: Try using Google Translate to translate various text types such as a poem, a song, package instructions, etc., and compare the results.

MT is more adequate for technical and formulaic texts. It also works well with repetitive texts, as repetitive phrases can be coded as units in the system. Also the system tends to translate every word.

**Exercise 12** A French in-house translator has worked for a multinational company in the United States for many years translating from English into French. She is a native speaker of English who learned some French in college and has been to France only once, many years ago. Despite her limited French skills, she is able to do a very good job at what she does, much better than many native speakers the company has hired in the past. She translates technical and repetitive material.

Comment on why it is possible for this translator to be so competent at what she does, and what translation competences are crucial for her job (and which ones are not so crucial).

This translator is almost like a MT system. She is used to translating the same materials, which are very repetitive and context-independent. She does not have to depend on usage or context, but on memory and knowing how to locate materials previously translated. She has excellent specialized knowledge and strategic knowledge that compensate for a lower level of linguistic competence.

**Exercise 13** Consider the definitions of translation and interpretation/interpreting and the discussion on translator competence. What are some of the differences in the competence/subcompetence areas between an interpreter and a translator?

Translator: Linguistic: Writing competence. (Phonological and phonetic proficiency are not crucial. Oral communication skills are not crucial.)
Interpreter: Linguistic: Phonological and phonetic proficiency in TL. (Writing competence is not crucial.) Oral communication skills are necessary.

## Chapter 2

**Exercise 1** List the situational features for one of the following texts: the American Constitution, the constitution of your country, the United Nations Charter, the Treaty on European Union (Maastricht Treaty).

Sample answer for the United Nations Charter:

Function: to set the basic laws that will govern the United Nations for centuries to come
Audience: all
Motive: foundation of a new international organization
Medium: written
Time of reception: from 20th century on
Place of reception: anywhere in the world

Students can use this exercise even for documents they are not very familiar with. In that case, the situational features would have to be researched.

**Exercise 2** Find two texts written in English that have similar content but are written with different audiences or purposes in mind. Write a paragraph commenting on how these factors affect the form of the text and what the differences are.

Example: Some newspapers have a summary of the main headlines/news written for a more basic reader, usually one at an eighth-grade (elementary school) reading level. Some features of these stories, compared with the ones in the rest of the paper, are: more limited vocabulary, shorter sentences, less subordination, etc.

**Exercise 3**

(a) Write two short emails in which you inform (1) a coworker and (2) a friend who does not work with you that you have resigned from your job.

(b) Compare both emails, and comment on how the audience affects the way you have written the emails.

**Sample answer (a)**

**(1) email to a coworker**

*Dear Peter:*

*I wanted to let you know that I have resigned from my job and will be moving on to another company. I hope we can have lunch or coffee together before I leave. I will miss working with you.*

*Best wishes,*
*Lisa*

**(2) email to a friend**

*Hey John:*

*I just resigned my job. I got a great offer to go somewhere else. I will tell you more when I see you.*

*Lisa*

(b) It affects the level of formality: although (1) is not very formal, it is more formal than (2). The content is also affected, since there is a reference to having lunch one more time and working together. This is also a part of the formality aspect and what is expected of professionalism in many working environments. The salutation and the ending are also different (more formal *Dear* vs. *Hey*, and *Best wishes* vs. no ending).

**Exercise 4** The following are English subtitles for a scene in a foreign language movie. Match the subtitles with the elements of the brief (function [F] and audience [A]) that you find the most appropriate for the form of the translations. Do this by writing the correct numbers in the blank spaces after the subtitles (the same F or A option could correspond to more than one translation).

Scene: A person sitting in a doctor's waiting-room gets up to go to the bathroom. When she comes back, someone else occupies the same shared-seating area where she was before. There is still room, but it requires her to sit closer than normal to the other person, and therefore the other person would have to move slightly and make some room for both to be comfortable.

| Subtitles | Function | Audience |
|---|---|---|
| Would you mind if I sit here?<br>F3<br>A3 | F1. to get someone to do something (i.e., make room for someone to sit down) | A1. a young child, known to the speaker (e.g., son/daughter), who was sitting somewhere else before |
| Move, please.<br>F2<br>F1<br>A1 | F2. to inform someone of the need to make room | A2. an adult, known to the speaker (e.g., husband/friend), who was sitting somewhere else before |
| May I sit here?<br>F1<br>A2 | F3. to be polite before taking a seat, to find out whether someone is bothered by having to move | A3. an unknown adult |

**Exercise 5** Write a set of likely instructions for a possible translation into your language of the text provided in Figure 2.13:

- Function: to teach at-home care for a child that has had a medical procedure
- Addressees: the parent(s) or caretaker(s) who are speakers of a language other than English (target language)
- Time of reception: immediately after the procedure and over the next few days
- Place of reception: medical facility where the procedure took place
- Medium of transmission: written medium, as this is provided to the audience as a small handout/pamphlet. One can also imagine a bilingual assistant/interpreter/nurse providing additional oral help with the content of the brochure
- Motive for production: the child has had a procedure that requires monitoring at home

Discuss these instructions with translators who work with languages and cultures other than your own.
Answers may vary.

**Exercise 6** Complete the following brief on the basis of what has been said about the use of foreign transcripts in the United States.

Brief (incomplete): These foreign transcripts need to be translated in order to apply to a US university.

Brief: The admissions officer who is going to read the translation needs to have course names as close as possible to the source to determine equivalencies. Time is of the essence, as admission deadlines are firm.

Situational features:

1. Audience: admissions officer in a US university
2. Function: to determine course equivalencies and whether a student qualifies for admission
3. Place of reception: any US university
4. Time of reception: shortly after application
5. Motive: a student with an educational record in a language other than English has applied for admission to a US university

**Discussion.** Is this the same in your country or in other translation traditions you are familiar with?

Answers may vary.

**Exercise 7** **Discussion.** What would be the most likely brief for the translation of a health education brochure on diabetes into your first language or another language/culture you are familiar with? How does this compare with what was said here about the United States?

Answers may vary.

**Exercise 8** How can translational norms assist a translator with an incomplete brief?

Translational norms are implicitly agreed upon rules as to how a certain type of text is to be translated in a particular culture (for whom, what function it normally has, etc.). Therefore, familiarity with these norms will make up for the absence of explicit translation instructions for a specific text.

**Exercise 9** Explain at least one way in which norms guide translation practice.

Translational norms help determine extra-linguistic factors for a target text when these are not available from the commissioner.

**Exercise 10** What is one way to decide the degree of equivalence needed for a particular translation?

One can resort to translational norms.

**Exercise 11** What is the factor that decides whether a particular text is a translation or an adaptation?

Cultural norms about what constitutes a translation.

**Exercise 12** Linguists often use word-by-word interlinear translation along with glosses when they provide examples in languages other than English. The following is an example of an interlinear translation:

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| ni- | c- chihui -lia in | no- piltzin ce calli | | |
| I | it make for to-the | my son | a house[1] | |

This is not the type of translation that professional translators usually come across; however, functionalism can explain this word-by-word approach on the basis of the translation brief. Taking this into consideration, answer the following questions:

i. What is normally the function of these types of translation? Provide a complete brief for an interlinear translation.

Brief:

> Please translate this sentence into English for a linguist. She is researching this language and has found this sentence, which is crucial to test one of her hypotheses on how the morphemes and syntax work. She wants to know what each word means, and what each part of the word means. She would like to have it as soon as possible so that she can continue her study.

Situational features:

Audience: English-speaking linguist
Function: to understand the structure of the sentence
Place of reception: soon after submission
Time of reception: twenty-first century
Medium: written
Motive: the linguist is doing research on this language

ii. In our example, why is a word-by-word translation better than one that simply communicates the idea behind the words?

Because it allows the linguist to see the structure and form of the language.

iii. Provide a brief that would justify a translation such as: "I make a house for my son."

A character in a book used this non-English sentence: "ni-c-chihui-lia in no-piltzin ce calli." Could you provide a translation for a footnote so that the reader knows what he said?

[1] Lehmann (2004).

## Chapter 3

**Exercise 1** Imagine you are talking to someone who is bilingual, but naive about how language works.

(a) How would you explain to this person what pragmatics is about?
(b) How would you explain that translation is about more than just words?

Answers may vary.

**Exercise 2** List the reasons why pragmatics is of vital importance to translation practice. Can you think of any others? Use examples from your own language/experience.

- It spells out the importance of non-linguistic elements for translation, including the function of the translation.
- It explains how non-linguistic elements affect the interpretation and meaning of the source text.
- It explains how differences across languages/cultures can affect a target text that simply imitates the form of the source.
- It helps articulate why and how culture is crucial to the translation process.
- It contributes to a better understanding of the role of equivalence in translation.
- It helps translators understand the importance of the brief.

Examples may vary.

**Exercise 3** One could say that pragmatics validates the use of the translation brief as the criterion for making decisions about the target text. Why?

If non-linguistic factors ultimately determine the form of texts, it makes sense that these same factors should be considered in creating the form of the target text. These situational, extra-linguistic factors surrounding the translation are precisely what is known in translation studies as the translation brief.

**Exercise 4** In pragmatics, the nature of the illocutionary act is not affected by the perlocutionary act. In other words, a request continues to be a request whether the receiver interprets it as such or not. In translation, however, the perloctionary act is important. Explain why.

Achieving the function of the translation refers to the success of illocutionary act(s), to whether the desired illocutionary act was correctly interpreted and carried out. Furthermore, one can assume that source texts that have failed to accomplish their purpose in the source culture would not be prime candidates for translation (not all texts get translated).

**Exercise 5** Find a text (between 200 and 500 words) and identify three presuppositions.

Texts may vary.

**Exercise 6** Explain one example of a mismatch between syntactic and pragmatic functions in a language you know. Discuss potential implications for translation.

Answers may vary.

Mismatch: Use of the passive in English to place the patient in subject-initial position (old information). Languages with freer word order do not need a passive to do this. They can simply move the object (or object pronoun) to a preverbal position.

a. John$_1$ was walking mindlessly by the bushes when he$_1$ was attacked by dogs.
b. John$_1$ caminaba descuidadamente junto a los arbustos cuando le$_1$ atacaron unos perros.

Potential implications for translation are the risk of transfer of syntactic structure as is, without realizing that it may have a different pragmatic function in the target language and/or that it may be a more marked construction. For instance, re-translation into English of the Spanish text in (b), such as (c), changes the information structure and topic development of the English source in (a). Instead of “he” in the old-information position, as a reference to John$_1$ introduced earlier, a new topic, the dogs$_2$, is introduced.

b. John$_1$ caminaba descuidadamente junto a los arbustos cuando le$_1$ atacaron unos perros.
c. John$_1$ was walking mindlessly by the bushes when dogs$_2$ attacked him.

**Exercise 7** The question asked by (A) below could be answered in various ways. Each of the answers provided (i–iii) corresponds to a different illocutionary force for the speech act performed by (A). Indicate what the illocutionary act is for each answer (i–iii) and how the receiver could come to that interpretation.

A: Do you know what time it is?
B: (i) Yes, I know.
(ii) Five thirty.
(iii) I am sorry: I was so busy that I forgot to check my watch

(i) Illocutionary force: question
explanation for interpretation: locutionary force

(ii) Illocutionary force: request
explanation for interpretation: conventional form of an indirect request for the time

(iii) illocutionary force: recrimination
explanation for interpretation: situational context: a teenager gets home later then he promised and a parent in waiting up for him.

**Exercise 8** Identify the presuppositions in the following statements:

a. Survey your child's allergy risk

Your child is at risk of allergies.

b. Sleep better on a bed that adjusts to both of you

Your quality of sleep needs improvement. You share your bed with someone else.

c. You can't protect your kids from an unsupervised pool.

You have kids. They swim in a pool.

d. Can your life insurance help pay for his dream of college?

Your child dreams of going to college. You have life insurance.

**Exercise 9** For each presupposition in Exercise 8, discuss whether that could in some situations or cultures, create difficulties for translation, and to what extent. Would it be better to accomplish the purpose behind these ads through some other form of cross-cultural communication?

Answers may vary.

a. It will probably be somewhat relevant in most cultures, although in many it may not be a priority, or it may be left up to doctors. In that case, this ad/product may not be of much interest to parents.
b. In some cultures, the reference to sleeping together may not be acceptable in print. The source may need to be changed to reflect other selling points/advantages of an adjustable bed.
c. In some places, this ad may be irrelevant and unnecessary, especially in poor countries where pools may not be available. A better option may be to simply not publish/translate.
d. The presupposition that going to college is a dream is not shared by all cultures. In some, going to college may just be one option in life (not usually presented as "a dream"); in others, it may be simply unattainable. In those cases, another benefit of life insurance would have to be highlighted in the target language ad. Note that the presupposition "you have life insurance" does not have to be true for the ad to be effective, as not having life insurance would be even worse, and therefore the need to buy life insurance is reinforced.

## Chapter 4

**Exercise 1** What makes a text something other than a sequence of sentences on a page? In other words, does any sequence of sentences and/or paragraphs on a printed page qualify as a text? Why, or why not?

For a sequence of sentences to qualify as a textual unit, the unit must cohere. Coherence consists of the semantic and pragmatic relations that underlie a text and that give it unity, meaning and purpose. Linguistic markers, known as cohesive markers, are used to help the reader establish the coherence necessary to make sense of the text. In addition, for a text to cohere the reader must be able to trace referents and topics throughout the text (topic maintenance and continuity), and to follow the flow of information, from old information to new information, relating the new contributions of the text to what is already known (information structure).

**Exercise 2** Comment on the situations that could give rise to a non-text or flawed text.

- Second/foreign language learning, a consequence of incomplete acquisition/learning.
- Translation, a consequence of inadequate linguistic competence or translational (transfer) competence on the part of the translator.

**Exercise 3**

(a) Identify all of the references to the participants in the text below. Mark all references to Jane with a subscript 1, those to Sharon with a subscript 2, those to Jane's mother with a subscript 3 and those to Sharon's with a subscript 4. For each reference indicate the part of speech used to trace topic continuity (e.g., verb agreement, overt subject pronoun, noun phrase, etc.) and comment on the reasons for more or less explicit markers (e.g., distance from previous mention, interference).

(b) Translate the text into your target language. Translation brief: You are doing this as part of the translation of Tannen's book into your target language. It is, as in English, for a general audience, educated, with an interest in learning about communication styles. Make sure that referents can be traced well in your target text, independently of the part of speech used in English to refer to them.

(c) Comment on how linguistic markers are used in your target language to express topic continuity. Compare them with their use in the source English text.

Jane and Sharon were talking about their mothers' holiday visits. Jane told Sharon that hers had been a bit trying because her mother complained a lot and made comments that were critical of Jane. Sharon told Jane that hers had been terrific; her mother was always optimistic, and even if she said things that could be seen as offensive, Sharon didn't take offense because she knew her mother meant well. Jane began to feel uncomfortable. She regretted talking against her mother and wanted to take it all back. Her mother also meant well, and furthermore she was warm and youthful and generous.

From Tannen (1986: 47).

(a) Four participants, Jane (1), Sharon (2), Jane's mother (3) and Sharon's mother (4). Parts of speech:

N=proper noun
NP=noun phrase
subject pronoun=overt subject pronoun

Jane$_1$(N) and Sharon$_2$(N) were talking about their mothers'$_{3,4}$ holiday visits (NP). Jane$_1$(N) told Sharon$_2$(N) that hers$_3$ (subject pronoun) had been a bit trying because her mother$_3$(NP) complained a lot and made comments that were critical of Jane$_1$(N). Sharon$_2$(N) told Jane$_1$(N) that hers$_4$(subject pronoun) had been terrific; her mother$_4$(NP) was always optimistic, and even if she$_4$(subject pronoun) said things that could be seen as offensive, Sharon$_2$(N) didn't take offense because she$_2$ (subject pronoun) knew her mother$_4$(NP) meant well. Jane$_1$(N) began to feel uncomfortable. She$_1$(subject pronoun) regretted talking against her mother$_3$(NP) and wanted to take it all back. Her mother$_3$(NP) also meant well, and furthermore she$_3$(subject pronoun) was warm and youthful and generous.

From Tannen (1986: 47).

The subject pronoun *she* is used to point to a participant previously referred to by means of a noun phrase or proper noun (e.g., Sharon, her mother) in the same clause or in very close proximity when no other referents intervene. Examples:

. . . her mother$_4$ was always optimistic, and even if she$_4$ said things that could be seen as offensive
Sharon$_2$ didn't take offense because she$_2$ knew her mother$_4$ meant well.
Jane$_1$ began to feel uncomfortable. She$_1$ regretted talking against . . .
Her mother$_3$ also meant well, and furthermore she$_3$ was warm and youthful and generous.

Note also that only one other pronoun is used – *hers* – and that all participants being female requires more frequent use of full noun phrases or proper names (as additional pronoun use could create conflicting referents).

(b) Translations will vary.

(c) Commentary on the translation will vary according to language.

**Exercise 4** A promotion on a cereal box allows the consumer to order an action figure for the cost of shipping only. In order to do this an order form needs to be filled out. The form is in English, but a couple of lines on the side of the package refer consumers to the inside of the box for the Spanish form. These lines read:

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| TT: | Adentro | hay | un formulario | en español para hacer su pedido |
| *Interlinear T:* | *Inside* | *there-is* | *a form* | *in Spanish to make your order* |
| Literal Eng T: | ‘Inside is the Spanish order form’ | | | |

Making use of the interlinear translation in italics and the literal translation in quotes under it, comment on the informational structure. Hint: Why does the literal English translation sound odd, despite the fact that it is perfectly grammatical? What would be a more commonly used translation in English (vs. “Inside is the order form”)?

A more natural way of saying this in English would be any of the following (possibly others):

Spanish order form inside
See inside the box for Spanish order form
Look for the Spanish order form inside the box

The reason these sound better than the literal translation has to do with information structure. ‘Inside the box’ is new information; therefore, placing it at the beginning of the sentence, in the most common location/order reserved for old information, is pragmatically odd.

The same applies to the Spanish example. *Adentro* is placed in the old-information position, but it is new information. Also, bearing in mind the textual features for information on product boxes, it would be more likely for the sentence to be abbreviated to read:

Formulario de pedido en español en el interior
*Form of order in Spanish in the interior*

Note: *en el interior* is used instead of *adentro* because of the slightly more formal register required for this text.

Although the examples used here involve English and Spanish (mostly because this was an authentic text in those languages), similar examples can be found in other languages.

**Exercise 5** Go back to Examples 4.26 and 4.27 in this chapter. What is a possible brief under which the text in Example 4.27 would be more adequate than Example 4.26?

A linguist who does not know Spanish wants to know what features are used in Spanish-language recipes, so that he/she can compare the same features in English.

**Exercise 6** What are parallel texts? How are they related to text types and genres? What is their role in translation?

Parallel texts are target texts, independently produced (not translated), and of the same type and genre as the one assigned to the target text. In translation, they are used to isolate common features of organization and textual markers. They are also useful for investigating terminology and frequency of issue.

**Exercise 7** How are parallel texts different from dictionaries?

Dictionaries provide information on lexical items and some phrase-level collocations. Parallel texts contain information about texts, textual features, use and frequency.

**Exercise 8** Find a health education brochure on a topic of your choice (e.g., diabetes, dental hygiene, high blood pressure, etc.). Select a target language and find at least three parallel texts in that language.

(a) Explain why they are parallel texts.
(b) Find two specific aspects of the parallel texts that would be helpful to you with a translation of the source brochure.

Answers may vary.

## Chapter 5

**Exercise 1** Indicate whether the following statements are illustrations of bottom-up (BU) or top-down (TD) processing.

(a) Individual handwritten letters are easier to decipher in a language we know than in one we do not know because we can use ____ TD __processing.

(Explanation: We use our knowledge of the language, accumulated through experience, to decipher letters on the page.)

(b) When we type we sometimes miss some commonly used, short words, such as "a," "the." If the writer reviews the writing, he/she is likely to continue to miss the word. This is due to excessive reliance on _____ TD ___ processing.

(Explanation: The writer projects knowledge of sentence structure in English to the detriment of what is actually on the page.)

(c) Computers have a hard time discriminating between meanings of the same word (e.g., polysemous words) because they have trouble accessing the information necessary for _____ TD __ processing.

(Explanation: Computers need knowledge of the world and the context to select the right meaning.)

(d) Looking up all unknown words in a text in a bilingual dictionary, writing down their dictionary equivalents and proceeding with the text is an example of__ BU _____ processing.

(Explanation: This implies using low-level information and literal correspondences as found in the dictionary to decode words in a text; dictionary equivalents are then strung together in the hope that adding their individual meanings will produce a meaningful text.)

(e) A proofreader checking for typos is relying heavily on _____ BU __ processing.

(Explanation: The proofreader is looking at graphic information on the page.)

**Exercise 2** How are background knowledge, schemata, world knowledge, prior knowledge and expert knowledge similar *or* different?

They are all types of knowledge stored in the reader's mind and which he/she contributes to reading. Background knowledge, world knowledge and prior knowledge are general terms to refer to knowledge possessed by the reader on approaching the text. Expert knowledge is background knowledge specific to a certain field of expertise, and schemata refers to knowledge that is organized in an established, well-known fashion, often in connection with an order of events or a particular situation with various players and roles.

**Exercise 3** Include an example from your field of expertise along the lines of the one in Example 5.2. Explain the role played by expert knowledge in the comprehension of your segment.

Answers may vary.

**Exercise 4** Find an example of machine-translated output (e.g., Google Translate, etc.). Examine the translation and find one mistranslation due to misuse of world knowledge (i.e., defective top-down processing).

Answers may vary.

**Exercise 5** Which of the following attributes do you associate with reading as an interactive process and/or with a translation process that sees reading as interactive? Underline your selections.

Static meaning
Decoding
Variation in textual comprehension
Interaction between reader and text
Objective meaning
Equivalence
Meaning construction
Equivalence dependent on context
Meaning hidden in the text
Fluid mental image of the text

**Exercise 6** Explain what is meant by "a word in isolation does not have meaning, only potential meanings."

A word, per se, does not mean much unless it is part of a linguistic and extra-linguistic context. The opposite is not true either: words, even separate from context, cannot simply mean anything. Therefore, without context, a word has the potential to express a variety of meanings, e.g., meaning potential; one of those potential meanings becomes instantiated and realized in a particular context, while the others move to the background (i.e., they are deactivated).

**Exercise 7** The term *interpretation* can be associated with various properties that activate related scenes: e.g., a. detailed, analytical, explanatory; b. artistic and personal, work of art, dramatic part, music, etc.; c. bilingual and professional. Indicate which scene is activated in each of the sentences below:

1. The actor's *interpretation* of the role of Hamlet did not appeal to the public
b. artistic and personal, work of art, dramatic part, music, etc.
2. Constitutional *interpretation*, even with seemingly clear passages with straightforward language, is far more complicated than many seem to think.
a. detailed, analytical, explanatory

3. The contestant was eliminated from competition because his *interpretation* of the play was found to be too radical for the judges.
b. artistic and personal, work of art, dramatic part, music, etc.
4. The exam on analysis and *interpretation* of literature includes questions on passages taken from American and British literature.
a. detailed, analytical, explanatory
5. The judge questioned the reliability of the *interpretation* on the basis of a series of mistakes made by the interpreter working with the witnesses.
c. bilingual and professional

## Chapter 6

**Exercise 1** What is the connection between language change and variation?

Language change is often rooted in variation. A new variant coexists with the old one(s); if the new form eventually replaces the old one, change can be said to have taken place.

**Exercise 2** Why does language change?

Everything in life changes. Language is subject to use by humans, as well as to social factors, which produces variation. For various reasons, including social prestige, one of the variants may replace the others. Variation can also originate in ease of articulation and language contact.

**Exercise 3** Why are there negative reactions to change?

Because innovations and changes usually deviate from the standard (more conservative) written forms and are therefore seen as corrupt versions of the standard. Lay people are also unaware of the inevitability of change and its social roots.

**Exercise 4** Provide examples of contact situations, and the languages involved.

English and Spanish in the southwest of the United States; French and German in Switzerland; Spanish and Quechua in Peru and Bolivia; Salish and English in Montana; French and English in Canada. (Answers may vary.)

**Exercise 5** Identify the following terms as referring to a dialect (specific language variety) (D) or a language (abstract underlying notion) (L).

Example: English (L); Minnesotan (English) (D)

| | |
|---|---|
| Arabic | L |
| Classical Arabic | D |
| Andalusian Spanish | D |
| Swiss German | D |
| Persian | L |
| Sicilian Italian | D |
| Tokyo Japanese | D |
| Japanese | L |
| Swahili | L |

**Exercise 6** Mention two areas in which dialectal awareness is important for translation and translators.

(i) Dialectal awareness helps the translator move from linguistic intuitions as the only criterion of quality to a more principled understanding that considers multiple linguistic, social and functional factors. While it is not realistic to expect that one individual will master numerous dialects of the same language, an awareness of linguistic varieties, and their types and function(s) with regard to context and the translation brief is essential.

(ii) Dialectal awareness is key in regard to the ability to formulate principled arguments in order to support translation decisions that involve dialectal selection and variation.

**Exercise 7** A translator cannot possibly master various dialects in each language he/she knows. How would awareness help?

Being aware of this situation would help her/him know when and how to find adequate resources to compensate for deficiencies.

**Exercise 8** Why is socioeconomic variation important for written texts and translation?

Because dialectal features that can be traced back to a socioeconomic background are reflected in a language. The socioeconomic dialect of the target audience may need to be considered when writing the target text (consider the brief). Most written texts reflect an educated, middle-class dialect. Direct transfer from the source text may not produce a target text indicative of an educated, middle-class dialect.

**Exercise 9** What is a reader-oriented text?

A text that reaches out to readers, explicitly considering their needs. These texts often address the readers; they walk them through the information. Sometimes they are educational. This book and many other textbooks are reader-oriented texts. They can involve some degree of adaptation of the literacy level of the reader.

**Exercise 10** Cultural norms vary with respect to reader orientation of texts. How is this relevant to translation?

The degree of orientation to the reader, and how this is done formally and organizationally, varies across languages and cultures. Changes may have to be made to the form and organization of the source text to capture the norms for reader orientation in the target language.

**Exercise 11** Watch five or ten minutes of a close-captioned, monolingual film or TV production and observe how the difference in medium between the audio and the subtitles shapes the form of the language. Provide two examples.

Answers may vary.

**Exercise 12** Watch five or ten minutes of a subtitled film or TV production and observe how the difference in medium between the audio and the subtitles shapes the form of the translation. Provide two examples.

Answers may vary.

**Exercise 13** Why is register awareness important in translation?

It helps the translator assess the register needs of a text, assess his competence against these and compensate for deficiencies when necessary.

**Exercise 14** What is the connection between register and translation proficiency?

The linguistic proficiency of the translator is complex, involving several subcompetences, which may be present or absent in different translators. A case in point is that of heritage speakers or others who have acquired a language in limited contexts; while their phonology and fluency may identify them as native speakers, their competence is register-restricted (when compared with the competence of other speakers of the same language).

**Exercise 15** What are heritage speakers, and why are they relevant to a book on the basics of translation?

Heritage speakers are individuals who learned one of their languages at home, and thus their proficiency tends to be limited to the informal register. Awareness and acquisition of additional registers is important for these translators, who often join the profession in societies unaware of the complexities of bilingualism and of the requirements of translation tasks.

**Exercise 16** What is diglossia? How does it affect translation?

Diglossia is the linguistic relation between two languages in which one of them is restricted in use to specific contexts, such as the home (e.g., heritage languages). Diglossic situations affect translation in the realm of individual bilingualism and translation competence, since native speakers, whose register and textual competence may be lacking, could (and often do) end up working as translators, for a variety of reasons.

**Exercise 17** In general, how do language planning and language attitudes affect translation?

The status and role played by specific languages in multilingual societies is of special significance to translation and to understanding the role of translation from a societal perspective. Depending on the status of the languages in use in a particular society, translation may be a more or less common activity. When the languages in a community hold official status, government and official materials are often translated into the various languages as a matter of law or policy; consequently, translation is a prestigious and appreciated activity. A clear example of this is the European Union. When minority languages are involved, especially if spoken by immigrant or underrepresented groups, translation into those languages will not be required, and it may not be well remunerated. Therefore, it will often be a less prestigious activity.

**Exercise 18** What types of legislation have consequences for translation? Think of examples in your country or others.

Legislation affecting language rights and thus requiring translation and/or interpretation. Examples may vary.

**Exercise 19** "The issue of bilingualism in translation is much more complex than the requirement that a translator must be bilingual." Comment on this statement.

Bilingual competence is a complex, non-static competence. It changes across time, and it consists of various subcompetences. Different translation requirements imposed by the translation brief demand a range of bilingual competences; for instance, whereas a domain-restricted competence in a field of expertise may be sufficient for an engineer to translate engineering materials into the second language, this second-language competence will not suffice for advertising the same engineering products to a general public. Awareness of the complexity of bilingual competence and a range of proficiencies is essential for the translator to assess his/her ability to perform specific assignments, as well as for employers, managers and evaluators of translators who try to find the best translator for a job.

**Exercise 20** Are you familiar with any situation that reflects sociolinguistic attitudes toward a language community? How do these attitudes affect that community's view and attitudes toward translators/interpreters?

Answers may vary. See answer to Exercise 21 for an example in connection with immigrants.

**Exercise 21** Do you know of any areas of translation or interpreting that have higher or lower social status/prestige than others? What social factors do you think are behind this prestige?

An example of higher prestige is that enjoyed by conference interpreting. It is a reflection of the prestige of the community in need of interpreting and of the educational level of the interpreters providing the service. An example of lower prestige would be community interpreting or translating. It reflects the low socioeconomic status of the persons in need of service (immigrants and refugees, with low educational levels, etc.) and the low pay or volunteer status of the interpreter or translator providing the service.

## Chapter 7

**Exercise 1** You are a professor of translation at a higher-education institution. You need to evaluate the translation proficiency of translation graduates to determine their readiness to take professional certification exams in your country. Determine the factors you would need to consider before proceeding with evaluation. Consider, at the least, object, purpose, summative or formative, norm-referenced or criterion-based (see also Figure 7.1).

Object of evaluation: Translation proficiency.

Purpose of evaluation: To determine whether the student's level of proficiency falls within the range necessary to pass professional-level examinations.

Summative or formative: Summative. The purpose is to decide whether the student is ready to take an exam or not, and make a decision accordingly with respect to taking this exam. The goal is not to provide any feedback to the student to help him/her improve proficiency.

Norm-referenced or criterion-based: Norm-referenced. The norm to which the student's proficiency is evaluated is the professional proficiency as established by professional exams.

On the basis of the above factors, now the professor can make decisions as to what evaluation instruments he/she can use to evaluate translation proficiency. One of many options is to use an exam format (or a battery of tests) in combination with longitudinal data obtained by teachers throughout the course of study in the translation program.

**Exercise 2** Discuss how translation evaluation is relevant to your translation activities and your personal involvement in translation. For instance, if you are a company manager, you may have to evaluate sample translations produced by applicants to determine whether they can perform adequately enough to be hired.

Answers will vary.

**Exercise 3** Briefly describe one evaluation activity that may take place in your translation work (e.g., you are a student of translation and you have to do a peer evaluation of your classmate's assignment).

Answers will vary.

**Exercise 4** For the activity in Exercise 2, indicate the object and purpose of evaluation. Also indicate whether evaluation would be summative or formative, and criterion- or norm-referenced.

Answers will vary, depending upon the answers given in Exercise 2.

**Exercise 5** In section 7.3 we reviewed major approaches to the evaluation of translations. Have you encountered any of these approaches or rubrics in a practical situation (e.g., the one you use to mark student translations, the one your teacher uses/used to grade your work, a point system used to review professional translations in your daily work as a manager, etc.)? If so, try to classify it according to what we have discussed in this chapter. Share, discuss and compare with those of classmates or colleagues.

Answers will vary.

**Exercise 6** How would you adapt numerical scores and priorities for the following text types and briefs?

1. Translation of non-English academic transcripts into English for admission to a British University.
2. Translation of advanced directives for use by Chinese-speaking immigrants in Australia.
3. Newspaper job ad placed by a US health corporation trying to recruit doctors for its newest facility in Germany.

Both 1 and 2 require a more literal approach, and thus a target structure more similar to that of the source (less natural in the target language) should not be graded negatively either in the Target Language or Functional and Textual Adequacy components. Target Language, Functional and Textual Adequacy, and Specialized Content and Terminology are more important for 1 and 2 than Non-Specialized Content (Meaning). Meanwhile, 3 is a reader-oriented text that aims to get the right candidates to apply for the job. Therefore, it requires a target-oriented approach. Target Language, Functional and Textual Adequacy, and Non-Specialized Content (Meaning) should be weighted more heavily than Specialized Content and Terminology.

**Exercise 7** List three reasons why evaluation is important to the field of translation.

Any three of the items listed below:

Importance of quality evaluation in an educational context . . .
guides students through the acquisition/learning process
helps determine whether educational goals have been achieved
serves as learning tool
serves as a diagnostic tool for teachers.

Importance of quality evaluation in a professional context . . .
helps to determine whether a product meets standards
serves to assess translator competence
helps to make well-informed and objective employment decisions
is useful for self-monitoring and for incorporating feedback from colleagues
serves as a common, objective framework for translation criticism and discussion
can contribute to education and professional development (rubric methods).

**Exercise 8** What do we mean by “object of evaluation”?

The “what” of the evaluation, e.g., in a translation exam in which examinees have to produce a target text, the object of evaluation is the target text.

**Exercise 9** List and explain three major approaches to translation evaluation.

(See section 7.3.)

Experience-based approaches:

They often consist of point systems or marking and ad hoc scales (where points are deducted for major or minor errors) developed to measure quality for a specific professional organization or industry.

Theoretical and research-based approaches:

These approaches arise out of theoretical or empirical frameworks and/or stated assumptions about the nature of translation.

Reader-response approaches:

These assess the quality of a translation by determining whether readers of the translation respond to it as readers of the source would respond to the original.

Textual approaches:

These models assess the quality of the translation with respect to text type and function; they rely on an analysis of the textual and situational features of the source and target texts, a comparison of the two, and the resulting assessment of their match.

**Exercise 10** Why is the componential-functionalist approach said to be "functionalist"? How is this reflected in the TQA tool?

Evaluation decisions are made with reference to the translation brief and the function of the target text. The TQA tool has a cover page that states all of the details of the brief. In addition, the descriptors in the tool remind the rater that decisions are made with reference to the brief.

**Exercise 11** List three difficulties involved in the design of a generalized system of translation evaluation.

Any three of the following:

- Multiple views of translation.
- Multiple purposes of evaluation.
- The criteria used for evaluation are unclear or unstated.
- Many approaches are difficult to apply.
- Not comprehensive enough; focus on partial aspects of translation.

**Exercise 12** Indicate whether the following evaluation situations are likely to be: (a) formative or summative (F/S); (b) criterion- or norm-referenced (CR/NR):

a. A translation sample requested by an agency for a translator searching for employment. F/NR
b. A translation mid-term exam for a translation course. F/CR
c. A professional translation exam for a government certification board. S/CR
d. A translation exam to determine placement in a series of translation courses. F/NR

# Glossary

**Adaptation** Activity that differs from a translation in that it may require significant omissions or additions of content.

**Audience** The readers to whom the text is addressed (including characteristics of those readers: age, educational background, socioeconomic background, religion, sex, their anticipated sociocultural knowledge, etc.).

**Background knowledge** What a reader knows about a specific culture, language or situation. It can also comprise specialized, expert knowledge.

**Background texts** Texts that cover content similar to the one to be translated and that are written in the target language. They do not have the same purpose or audience as the intended target text (parallel text).

**Bilingual dictionaries** Dictionaries that contain foreign-language equivalents. In translation, novice translators sometimes use these equivalents as replacements for words in the source language.

**Bilingual proficiency** Linguistic proficiency in more than one language.

**Bottom-up model** Model of reading according to which reading proceeds from smaller units to larger ones: from letters, to words, to sentences, to paragraphs and texts.

**Circumstantial bilingual** Person who knows more than one language due to life's circumstances, such as immigration, relocation, etc.

**Coherence** Semantic and pragmatic relations that underlie a text and that give it unity, meaning and purpose.

**Cohesion** Explicit marking, through linguistic means, of the links between a sequence of distinct sentences that make these sentences hang together.

**Cohesive devices** Overt textual signs that help the reader establish textual coherence. Conjunctions, pronouns, lexical repetition or synonyms, and parallel structures are common cohesive markers in English.

**Commissioner** Person who has requested a translation.

**Communicative translation** Type of translation that focuses on the function of the target text.

**Component(s) of evaluation** Aspect(s) of a translation evaluated separately by a componential approach to evaluation.

**Componential approach to evaluation** Method of evaluation that examines major aspects of translation quality in the form of separate components; it offers a comprehensive view of evaluation that integrates different aspects of quality.

**Compound bilingual** Person who has acquired his/her languages in the same context where they are used concurrently.

**Computer-aided/assisted translation (CAT tools)** Translation carried out by a human translator (not automatic) with the help of computer software.

**Conversational maxims** Specific principles included in the Cooperative Principle. They are the maxims of quantity, quality, relevance and manner.

**Cooperative Principle** Implicit agreement between listeners and speakers to agree to speak cooperatively so that the conversation can be carried forward.

**Coordinate bilingual** Person who has acquired his/her languages in different contexts.

**Covert translation** Type of translation that is expected to function in the target culture without any reference to its being a translation. Readers are not expected to know they are reading a translation.

**Criterion-referenced evaluation** Type of evaluation that examines translation quality with respect to a previously established criterion.

**Descriptive approach to evaluation** Method of evaluation that proceeds by matching the object under evaluation with descriptive statements. Each descriptor defines the degree of compliance with specific criteria.

**Dialect** Language variety with features shared by its users.

**Dialectal variation** Variation observed in language that has to do with geographical (and sometimes political) reasons.

**Diglossia** Linguistic relation between two languages in which one of them is restricted in use to certain contexts, such as the home (e.g., heritage languages). This is a frequent situation for minority languages, whose speakers tend to be proficient only in informal registers, in particular when the minority language is not taught in school and is relegated to the home environment.

**Dynamic translation** Type of translation that gives preference over form to the communicative purposes of the text.

**Elective bilingual** Person who knows more than one language because of a desire to learn these languages.

**Equivalence** Under some approaches to translation, the requirement that the target text be as equal to the source as possible.

**Explicitation** Translation strategy that consists of making explicit in the target text information that is implicit in the source text.

**Extra-linguistic features** Same as features of situation and situational features/factors. Elements that belong to the non-linguistic context or situation in which a text is embedded and that shape the form of the text. Examples of extra-linguistic features are the audience, function, motive for production of the text, etc.

**Formal translation** Type of translation that tries to preserve the form of the source text.

**Formative evaluation** Type of evaluation meant to assist in the educational process by providing feedback, so that students can use their mistakes and the teacher's feedback to improve their learning process.

**Frames** Words that serve as mental images.

**Frames-and-scenes semantics** Theory of word meaning according to which meaning happens when frames (words) activate scenes related to past experiences and world knowledge.

**Function** Purpose that the text is trying to achieve.

**Functional and textual adequacy** Component of evaluation that examines how well the translation achieves the goals, purpose and function of the text for its target audience and purpose.

**Genre** Textual classification according to the contexts. Conventionalized forms of texts that reflect features of a social occasion (audience, time, place, medium), such as: a poem, book review, novel, abstract, editorial, office memo or report.

**Gist translation** Activity whose goal is to convey the main idea of the source text in the target language without concern for preserving form.

**Globalization** Process by which distant localities are linked, spatially and linguistically; a consequence of the global economy.

**Grammar translation** Structural translation that renders the structure of the source into the target; used in foreign language teaching, especially of the Classics.

**Grammatical function** Function of a word or group of words within the structure of the sentence; for instance, subject, object, complement, etc.

**Heritage speaker** Person who has learned or acquired a language in a natural environment without formal instruction.

**Illocutionary act** The function intended by a speech act.

**Implicature** What is suggested or implied in an utterance or speech act.

**Incipient bilingual** Person who is in the initial stages of learning or acquiring more than one language.

**Indirect speech act** A speech act that does not say explicitly what the speaker or writer is trying to achieve.

**Information structure** Arrangement of a text with regard to old and new information.

**Interactive models of comprehension** Models that view reading as a process by which the reader attempts to construct a coherent mental representation of a text through interaction with the text. The reader brings in his/her background knowledge to discover and build logical connections marked in the text through cohesive devices.

**Interlinear translation** Word-for-word, and at times morpheme-by-morpheme, translation, sometimes used in linguistics to facilitate the understanding of the structure of the source language.

**Internationalization** Process of designing software applications (or other products) so that they are language- and culture-independent, and can be easily adapted to various languages and cultures.

**Interpreter** Person who performs interpreting tasks.

**Interpreting** Process or product of transforming oral text(s) from one human language to another.

**Language** Abstract system underlying the linguistic behavior of a community, or the knowledge of this system by an individual.

**Language for specific purposes** Study of the specialized usage of language.

**Language planning** Systematic approach to solving communication problems in a community by studying its languages and dialects and developing a policy.

**Language policy** Body of regulations established with the purpose of solving communication problems in a community.

**Late bilingual** Person who has learned or acquired more than one language after childhood.

**Linguistic competence** Knowledge of the abstract system that allows a person to use that language.

**Locutionary act** The linguistic form of a speech act.

**Loyalty** Recognition of the commissioner's views of translation and of his/her expectations with regard to the task. Commitment on the part of the translator not to disregard these expectations, no matter how misguided, without discussing them with the commissioner.

**Machine translation (MT)** Translation produced by a software program without the intervention of a human translator.

**Manner maxim** Conversational maxim that requires that the presentation be clear and organized.

**Medium** Physical shape of the text, whether it is oral, written or mixed-media text (written, oral, visual, etc.), or whether it has medium-related restrictions (size of pages, computer screens, character limit, etc.).

**Motive** Reason for the production of a text.

**New information** Information presented by the author as unknown to the reader.

**Non-specialized content** Component of evaluation that assesses how well the content of the target text reflects that of the original text.

**Non-text** Unit that physically resembles a text but lacks texture.

**Norm-referenced evaluation** Type of evaluation that assesses quality by comparing to a norm (e.g., average, better than average, excellent, etc.), the rest of the translations in a class, other applicants, other professional translations, etc.

**Object of evaluation** Product or process that is being evaluated; what is being evaluated.

**Old information** Information presented by the author as known by the reader.

**Overt translation** Type of translation that functions as such in the target culture. Readers are expected to know that the text is a translation of a source text.

**Parallel texts** In translation, texts independently produced (not translated), and of the same type and genre as the one assigned to the target text.

**Paraphrase** Activity that attempts to preserve content as much as possible, but with different form; an alternative way of expressing the content of the source.

**Perlocutionary act** The result obtained by a speech act.

**Place of reception** Where the text is intended to be read.

**Post-editing** Process of editing and preparing machine-translated output for use by humans.

**Pragmatic function** Function of a word or group of words within the extra-linguistic context, for instance, to mark new information, emphasis, etc.

**Pragmatics** Discipline that investigates how language is interpreted by users beyond the literal meaning of the actual words used. It considers the effects of linguistic and non-linguistic context on said interpretation.

**Presupposition** Implicit assumption about the world or background knowledge shared between the writer and the reader.

**Productive bilingual** Person who has acquired the ability to understand and produce more than one language.

**Pseudotranslation** Text that is mistakenly believed to be a translation (by the readers or because the author intended it that way).

**Purpose of evaluation** Reason for which evaluation is undertaken; the objective of evaluation.

**Quality maxim** Conversational maxim that requires that the information contributed be true.

**Quantity maxim** Conversational maxim that requires that sufficient (and not excessive) information is provided for communication.

**Reader-response approach to evaluation** Method of evaluation that assesses quality by determining whether readers of the translation respond to it as readers of the source would respond to the original. For instance, an evaluation of a French translation of a *New York Times* editorial would compare the response of French readers with that of readers of the English text.

**Receptive bilingual** Person who has acquired the ability to understand, but not produce, more than one language.

**Register** Variety of language according to its use in social situations.

**Relevance maxim** Conversational maxim that requires that the participants' contributions to communication will be relevant and related to the previous turns.

**Reviewing** In ISO terms, activity in which the target text only is checked, trying to spot typos, errors in style, format, grammar and spelling, and any other target-language issues.

**Revising** In ISO terms, activity in which the translation is checked for adequacy with regard to the source text.

**Scenes** In frames-and-scenes semantics, mental pictures related to past experiences and activated by words in comprehension.

**Schemata** Mental structures or frameworks used to organize information.

**Semantic translation** Type of translation that focuses on the form of the source text.

**Sequential bilingual** Person who has learned or acquired more than one language at different periods in time.

**Sight translation** Activity that consists of translating a written text out loud. Interpreters are often given written documents that they have to translate orally into the target language.

**Simultaneous bilingual** Person who has learned or acquired more than one language in parallel.

**Skopos theory** Same as functionalism. Theory of translation that argues that the translation process is guided by extra-linguistic factors, more specifically by the function of the translation.

**Socioeconomic varieties** Dialects distinguished by socioeconomic features.

**Sociolinguistics** Area of linguistics that studies how social factors are reflected in language.

**Software localization** Preparation of a text to be used in various languages and markets, requiring translation, as well linguistic and cultural adaption, of digital content (software, applications, databases, online materials) to the requirements of the locale of a foreign market.

**Source language (SL)** Language from which the translator works.

**Source text (ST)** Text to be translated.

**Specialized content** Component of evaluation that assesses how well the specialized content and terminology of the target text reflects that of the original text.

**Speech acts** Actions we perform with words; for instance, promising, requesting, ordering, advising, declaring, etc.

**Summative evaluation** Type of evaluation that includes only results of the evaluative process.

**Target language (TL)** Language into which the translator translates.

**Target-language component** Component of evaluation that examines the quality of the translation's linguistic form, both at the sentential (e.g., spelling, grammar, lexicon, collocation, sentence transitions) and textual levels (e.g., sentence transitions, cohesive markers, etc.).

**Target text (TT)** Translated text, the result of translation.

**Terminology** Specialized lexical items or short phrases used in writing, and hence in translating, specialized texts.

**Text type** Texts associated with a particular function.

**Textual approach to evaluation** Method of evaluation that assesses the quality of a translation with respect to text type and function; textual methods rely on an analysis of the textual and situational features of the source and target texts, a comparison of the two and the resulting assessment of their match.

**Textual features** Characteristics that give texture to a text.

**Texture** Quality that defines a text.

**Thematic progression** How themes are developed and maintained throughout a text.

**Theme** What a sentence is about, its point of departure.

**Time of reception** When (date, time, time period) the text is intended to be read.

**Top-down model** Model of reading according to which readers rely on world knowledge (i.e., background knowledge), contextual information and other higher-order processing strategies to understand a text.

**Topic** Same as theme.

**Topic maintenance** Same as thematic progression.

**Transfer competence** An individual's ability to understand and implement translation requirements and translation norms. When the other subcomponents of translation competence are present, transfer competence is instantiated in a target text that is adequate for the translation brief.

**Translating** Process of translation.

**Translation** Process or product of transforming written text(s) from one human language to another. It generally requires a (necessary) degree of resemblance to or correspondence with the source text.

**Translation as process** Activity that produces a translated text.

**Translation as product** Result of translation activity.

**Translation brief** Same as translation instructions. Specifications provided by the commissioner of the translation with regard to purpose and other aspects of the task. They usually contain the extra-linguistic factors for the target text.

**Translation competence** Ability to produce a target text for a source text that is adequate to the translation instructions and in conformance with translation norms.

**Translation studies** Scholarly field that studies translation and interpreting and related phenomena.

**Translation-oriented terminology work** Activity that involves extracting special language terms, defining them, determining target-language equivalents and documenting this information for retrieval during translation.

**Translational norms** Implicitly agreed-upon rules that regulate behavior in translation practice with regard to the text and the process of translation, and to the translation community.

**Translator and interpreter training or education (T&I)** Training or education that prepares students to work as professional translators and/or interpreters.

**Translator competence** An individual's ability and capacity to translate. It is broader than transfer competence in that it includes: (i) linguistic competence (bilingual or multilingual); (ii) knowledge competence (including both specialized and general/cultural knowledge); and (iii) transfer or strategic competence. Of these, transfer competence is unique to translation.

**Version** Inter- or intra-lingual variety of a text inspired by a source text but significantly different from it; resemblance to the original is less than that in an adaptation.

**World knowledge** Same as background knowledge.

**Zero anaphora** Reference to a recently introduced topic by means of ellipsis.

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