

**BAHAN AJAR**

**INTRODUCTION TO TRANSLATION**



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## KATA PENGANTAR

Puji Syukur penulis panjatkan kepada Tuhan YME atas karuniaNya sehingga penulis dapat menyelesaikan penyusunan bahan ajar ini yang berjudul “Introduction to Translation” dengan baik.

Bahan ajar ini dirancang dan disusun untuk membekali mahasiswa Program Sarjana Pendidikan Bahasa Inggris tentang dasar-dasar teori penerjemahan yang disertai dengan latihan-latihan soal yang memudahkan para mahasiswa untuk mempelajari penerjemahan tulis. Dalam bahan ajar ini juga disertakan daftar istilah-istilah umum dalam penerjemahan yang memudahkan mahasiswa untuk memahami penerjemahan.

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## **TINJAUAN MATA KULIAH**

Mata kuliah Introduction to translation merupakan salah satu mata kuliah yang ada di struktur kurikulum Program Sarjana Pendidikan Bahasa Inggris dengan bobot 2 SKS. Mata kuliah ini menekankan kepada dasar dasar teori penerjemahan yang disertai dengan soal soal latihan yang dapat memberikan bekal pengetahuan kepada mahasiswa tentang penerjemahan. Dalam proses penerjemahan melibatkan 2 bahasa yaitu bahasa sumber dan bahasa sasaran baik Bahasa Indonesia ke Bahasa Inggris atau sebaliknya. Penilaian didasarkan pada tingkat kehadiran dan keaktifan mahasiswa dalam perkuliahan, UTS, UAS dan tugas tugas menerjemahkan.

# CHAPTER 1

## TRANSLATING, TRANSLATION, AND TRANSLATOR

### A. Introduction

Talking about translation study can't be separated with the basic theory of translation itself. In this chapter, the writer want to give clear description about the basic theory of translation such as the definitions of translating, translation and translator, translation process, word and translation, and the difference between translator and interpreter.

### B. Definitions of Translating, Translation, and Translator

There are some definitions of translation delivered by some experts. The definition such as followings ; translating means to translate, translation means the result of translating, and translator means a person who translate a text from source language (SL) to target language (TL) (Hoed, 2006:23).

Other expert is Catford in Suryawinata and Hariyanto, 2003:11. He says that translation is the replacement of textual material in one language by equivalent textual material in another language. He adds the explanation that textual material is not always in written but also in oral form.

Another opinion is from Savory (*ibid*: 12), translation is made possible by an equivalent of thought that lies behind its different verbal expression. From his statement, it is stated that the equivalent is an idea. He does not explain about the process. Further, Pinhuck (*ibid*: 13) also has opinion about translation. According to him, translation is a process of finding a TL equivalent for an SL utterance.

In the definition, Nida and Taber (1982:12) state clearly about the process. Their statement is translating consists of reproducing in the receptor language the closest natural equivalent of the source language message, first in terms of meaning and secondly in terms of style. From this statement, they state that translating is not only replace source language into target language, but also concern in meaning and language style.

Translation is a complicated process. In this case, a translator has a big responsibility for transferring message from source language to target language. The form of target language may be different from the form of source language. However, target language has a way and style to express the same message as in source language.

Meanwhile, Larson (1984:22) states clearly that translation is a complicated process. However, a translator who is concerned with transferring the meaning will find that the receptor language has a way into which the desired meaning can be expressed, even though it may be very different from the source language form.

Back to Nida and Taber (1982:12) also has opinion that translating consists of reproducing in the receptor language the closest natural equivalent of the source language message, first in terms of meaning and secondly in terms of style. From this statement, it is known that a translator as a message receptor in the source language and when in the process of translation, he/she is a message sender in the target language.

These Bible translators also say that the best translation does not like a translation, because translating must aim primarily at reproducing the message. But

to reproduce the message, one must make a good grammatical and lexical adjustment. For example, the phrase 'Good Friday' in Christian term cannot be translated into 'Hari Jumat yang baik' in Indonesia. Translator has to catch the real message of this phrase. A meaningful equivalent is 'Jumat Agung', a day of Christ's crucifixion.

Newmark (in Suryawinata & Haryanto, 2003:15) also has an opinion about translation. It is a craft consisting in the attempt to replace a written message and/or statement in one language by the same message and/or statement in another language. He gives a limitation that translation involves written message and/or statement. It is to differentiate between translation and interpretation.

Other one is Bell (1991:5) states that translation is the expression in another language (or target language) of what has been expressed in another, source language, preserving semantic and stylistic equivalences.

The next expert is Bassnett (1991:13) ".....that the translation involves the transfer of meaning contained in one set of language signs into another set of dictionary and grammar, the process involves a whole set of extra linguistic criteria also".

Back to Catford in Rachmadie (1988:12) states that "Translation is the replacement of textual material in one language (SL) by equivalent textual material in another language (TL)".

The last expert is Brislin (1976:1) states "Translation is the general term referring to the transfer of thought and ideas from one language to another whether the languages are written form or oral form".

Definition of translation are come from journal or website such as ; "Translation is the process to transfer written or spoken source language (SL) texts to equivalent written or spoken target language (TL) texts" ([Http://www.thelanguagetranslation.com/translation process, strategy, and methods/html](http://www.thelanguagetranslation.com/translation_process_strategy_and_methods/html)).

Foster (1958:1) in Mahmoud Ordudari [http://translationjournal.net/journal/43 theory.html](http://translationjournal.net/journal/43_theory.html)/volume 12 No 1 Januari 2008 state that "translation as the act of transferring through which the content of a text is transferred from the source language into the target language".

"Translation is to be understood as the process whereby a message expressed in a specific source language is linguistically transformed in order to be understood by readers of the target language"(Frederic Houbert in [http://accurapid.com//translationjournal/5 theory.html](http://accurapid.com//translationjournal/5_theory.html)/volume 2 nomor 3 Juli 1995).

Salawu, Ph.D dalam [http://www accurapid.com//translationjournal//36 yoruba.html](http://www accurapid.com//translationjournal//36_yoruba.html)/volume 10 nomor 2 April 2006/6 February, 2014 states "translation should be seen as an attempt to guess the mind of an author correctly".

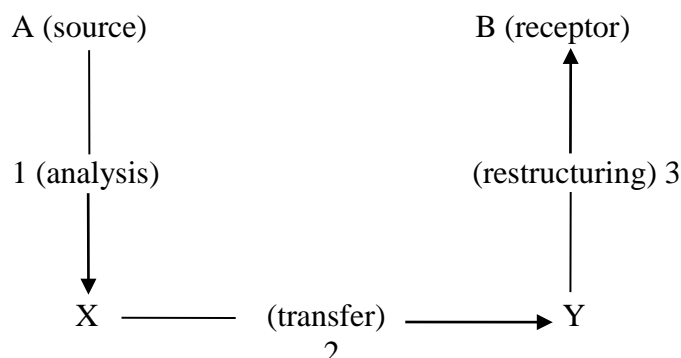
"A good translation should play the same role in the target language as the original did in the source language" (Mahmoud Ordudari in [http://translationjournal.net/journal/43 theory.html](http://translationjournal.net/journal/43_theory.html)/volume 12 nomor 1 Januari 2008).

Salawu Adewuni, Ph.D in [http://www accurapid.com//translationjournal//36 yoruba.html](http://www accurapid.com//translationjournal//36_yoruba.html)/volume 10 nomor 2 April 2006 states that "a perfect translation whereby the translated version may be equivalent to the original text".

### C. Translation Process

According to *The Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English*, process is a “series of operations deliberately undertaken”. It means that series of actions is conducted deliberately. Including translations, it also formed by a process. Accordingly, process of translation is a series of actions in transferring the message from source language into target language.

Translation as a process involves three stages: (1) analysis, (2) transfer, (3) restructuring (Nida and Taber 1982:33). The process is diagrammed as follow:



From that chart above, it can be explained as follows :

1. Analysis, in which the surface structure is analyzed in terms of the grammatical relationships and the meaning of the words and combinations of words.
2. Transfer, in which the analyzed material is transferred in the mind of the translator from language A to language B.
3. Restructuring, in which the transferred material is restructured in order to make the final message fully acceptable in the receptor language.

### D. Word and Translation

According to Larson (in Suryawinata & Hariyanto, 2003:91), vocabularies have special characteristic that can influence translation. First, the component of meaning is always in the form of lexical (word). Second, the same component of meaning can appear in different word. For example the word ‘rice’ in English has some equivalent word in Indonesia. It can be translated into *padi*, *gabah*, *beras*, *nasi*. Third, a form of word can be used to represent some meaning. The meaning of ‘run’ is *berlari* in Indonesia. But, the form of this word can be used to represent other meaning. The examples are:

1. The river **runs** slowly. (*Sungai itu mengalir perlahan.*)
2. His nose **runs** badly. (*Hidungnya pilek.*)
3. He **runs** his business very well. (*Ia menjalankan bisnisnya dengan sangat baik.*)

The last characteristic is opposite from the third. A meaning can be delivered in some words. For example, the meaning of *tidak jelek* can be delivered into the word *bagus*, *baik*, *tampan*, *rapi*, *cantik*, etc.

### E. Translator and Interpreter

Many people sometime said that they need a translator when in fact they were looking for an interpreter. Probably most people know the difference between these two jobs, but there are some who use them interchangeably, although they should not. Below we will try to have a look at what these two jobs have in common and



how they are different. In a nutshell, the **translator** deals with the written word, while the **interpreter** with the spoken message.

What are actually the similarities and differences between translator and interpreter? In this below, the writer quoted from <http://inboxtranslation.com/blog/interpreter-vs-translator//> :

### **1. Interpreter vs translator: *Similarities***

- a. They both work with a source language (from which they work) and a target language
- b. They both take the message from the source language and convey it in the target language
- c. Both the translator and interpreter work solely into their mother tongue (with the exception of liaison interpreters – see differences below)
- d. They are both linguists
- e. They both need professional qualifications

### **2. Interpreter vs translator: *Differences***

- a. A translator works with the written word, whereas an interpreter with the spoken word
- b. Translators charge on a word or page basis, while an interpreter is paid by the hour or by the day
- c. All translators work into their mother tongue, but interpreters might have to work both into and from their mother tongue (those doing liaison interpreting – for courts, police, hospitals etc.)
- d. While translators have time on their side (they are not required to translate on the spot and they can use dictionaries), interpreters need to deliver the message either at the same time as the original speech (**simultaneous interpreting**) or shortly after (**consecutive interpreting**)
- e. Their tools are different: translators use **CAT** (Computer Aided/Assisted Translation) tools, computers and dictionaries, and interpreters may use a notepad and pen to take notes, or headphones and microphone in a **booth**, and the most important thing – their memory together with their knowledge

## **F. Summary**

In conclusion, translation is the effort to delivered message from source language to target language. The effort involves consideration of grammatical, meaning, and language style. There are three important stages of translation process such a analysis, transfer and restructurization. The challenging of translation process in the transfer stages. Meaning also important point in translating process. Translator is a person who translate written text and interpeter is person who translate oral text. They both have similarities and differences.

## **G. Exercise**

1. What is the difference between translating, translation, and translator?
2. Why a translator can be called as a decision maker?
3. Can you explain what is translation process and the stages?
4. Why an interpreter has more complicated task than a translator?
5. Mention some similarities between a translator and interpreter

## **CHAPTER 2**

### **MEANING AND TRANSLATION**

#### **A. Introduction**

Translation is an effort of finding equivalent meaning of a text into the second language. We emphasize meaning equivalence since in translation meaning is the object to be rendered from the source language text into the target language text. In this case, translator is faced with a text as units of meaning in the form of sets of words or sentences.

The main question in translation is of meaning which always appears in the process of translation, not translation as a product of the process. Translating a text from the source text (ST) must consider the closest natural equivalent meaning. It implies that the meaning of the target text must be equivalent with that of the source. Meaning is classified into two kinds, referential meaning and connotative meaning. A translator must be aware of which meaning is possibly intended by the author. Besides, it should also be paid attention on the components embedded in a certain unit of meaning. By understanding the components of meaning of the source language expressions a translator can make the best decision related to the components.

#### **B. Meaning and translation**

Generally, translation is a process of rendering meaning, ideas, or messages of a text from one language to other language. There are some considerations which follow this process, which mainly related to the accuracy, clarity and naturalness of the meaning, ideas, or messages of the translation. It means that it is an important thing to consider whether the readers of the target text accept equivalent information as the readers of the source text do. These considerations are clarified in some definition of translation stated by some experts.

One of the most prominent definitions of translation is stated by Newmark (1988: 5) who defines translation as “rendering the meaning of a text into another language in the way that the author intended the text”. This definition stresses on rendering meaning of the source language text into the target language text as what is intended by the author.

Hatim and Munday (2004: 6) define translation as “the process of transferring a written text from source language (SL) to target language (TL)”. In this definition they do not explicitly express that the object being transferred is meaning or message. They emphasize on translation as a process. Nida and Taber (1982: 12), on the other hand, state that “translating consists in reproducing in the receptor language the closest natural equivalent of the source language message”. This definition is more comprehensive than the previous ones.

Nida and Taber explicitly state that translation is closely related to the problems of languages, meaning, and equivalence. From the definitions mentioned above, it is found that translation is a process which is intended to find meaning equivalence in the target text. Rochayah Machali (2001) and Mona Baker (1992)

underline the term meaning equivalence because it is the meaning which is transferred in the target language. In this case, translators are faced with text as unit of meaning in the form of sets of words or sentences. This means that language which is used is unit of meaning in discourse which can be understood by the participants of the communication (Machali, 2007).

So, the main problem in the process of translation is about meaning which will occur when the process is in progress, not translation as a product. Hatim and Munday (2004: 34) also suggest that “one of the key problems for the analyst was in actually determining whether the source text meaning had been transferred into the target text”. It is clear here that meaning is the key problem: whether meaning of the source language text is accurately transferred into the target language text.

Translation is not merely concerning on meaning as a unit of lexical meaning. The process of rendering meaning involves some aspects as diction, grammatical structure, communication setting, and cultural context of the source text. Meaning of the source and target texts must be equivalent.

The meaning equivalence is involved by, at least, language. The system of rules in one language, which is different from other language, will have role for the translator in his or her decision making in the process of translation. For example, in this case, is the process of translation which involves Indonesian and English language. Both languages have different system on the structure of noun phrase.

Noun phrases of English language usually follow the structure of modifier + noun head. While that of Indonesian language usually follow the rule of D-M (Diterangkan – Menerangkan) where modifier comes after the noun head. To clarify this fact, this comparison can be the example. The English phrase ‘a beautiful girl’ is translated into ‘seorang gadis cantik’ in Indonesian language.

Meaning of a phrase in one language cannot always be translated in the way as the example above. The Indonesian phrase ‘kambing hitam’ is not always translated as ‘black goat’ in English language. If it means ‘a goat which is black’, the phrase can be translated as ‘a black goat’. However, if it has a specific meaning ‘a person who is blamed for something that someone else has done’, it will be equivalent with the English phrase ‘scapegoat’.

### **1. Kinds of Meaning**

Nida and Taber (1982: 56) classifies meaning into two classes, referential meaning and connotative meaning. Magdy M. Zaky in ‘Translation and Meaning’ also differentiates meaning into two categories, referential meaning and associated meaning (which includes connotative meaning) (<http://accurapid.com/journal/14theory.htm>, updated at 02/26/2005). Zaky states, “there is a distinction between conceptual meaning, on the hand, and connotative, stylistic, affective, reflected, and collocative types of meaning on the other hand. Thus, we classify the last five types of meaning under one general category of associated meaning”. We will concern with referential meaning and connotative meaning such as followings :

## 1.1 Referential Meaning

Referential meaning is word as symbol which refers to an object, process, abstract thing, and relation. Zaky (2005) mentions that referential meaning is also known as 'the meaning of reference, is often referred to as the "referential" meaning, the "lexical" meaning, the "conceptual" meaning, or the "denotative" meaning'. Giving the meaning of a word referentially, a translator must be aware of any markers appear in the text. There are two markers that can be used to give meaning of words, syntactic marking and semotac marking.

### a. Syntactic marking

In some cases, the meaning of a word is governed by their grammatical structure. Here are the examples :

1. He picked up a *stone*.
1. They will *stone* him.
2. He saw a *cloud*.
2. The quarrel will *cloud* the issue.
3. She has a beautiful *face*.
3. He will *face* the audience.
4. He fell in the *water*.
4. Please, *water* the garden.

From the examples above, it can be seen that in column I the words 'stone', 'cloud', 'face', and 'water' are nouns which are usually translated into 'batu', 'awan', 'wajah', dan 'air'. While in column II, the underlined words are not nouns, but verbs which in Indonesian language mean 'melempar (dengan batu)', 'memperkeruh', 'menghadapi', and 'menyiram'. In this case, grammatical structure of each word refers to the intended meaning explicitly.

### b. Semotac marking

Meaning of a word is also determined by its relationship with other words in a certain context. In other words, semotac environment differentiates meaning. Here are the examples :

1. The horse *runs* fast.
1. The water *runs* through the path.
2. Your *hand* is dirty.
2. All *hands* up!

The words 'runs' in sentence 1 in column I and II have different meaning because they have different subjects. In column I, the word 'runs' means 'berlari' while in column II, it means 'mengalir'. The words 'hand' in example 2 are also different in meaning.

## 1.2 Connotative Meaning

Understanding meaning of a word is not merely based on the referred object of the word. Sometimes, a translator also needs to give emotional reaction to the word. The reaction might be strong, weak, positive or negative. this kind of meaning is closely related to individual emotional reaction which, then, is named as connotative meaning. In other words, giving the meaning of a word is not merely from its concrete or abstract dimension, but it also involves the sender's emotional condition. There are three main principles to understand connotative meaning. They are:

### a. The relationship between the word and the speaker

When certain words become very closely related with certain types of speakers, this will be well accepted by the member of the group. For examples are words which are used and understood by members of certain social class, level of education, and religion.

### b. Condition of the speaker

The same word expressed by the same speaker but in different condition or setting may rise different connotative meaning. Some expressions are related to certain environments as in court, police station, market, tourism objects, etc. for illustration, there is a woman who met her friend while she is shopping in a market. She told a story to her friend that last night there were a robbery at her neighbor's house. Her friend may respond it as new information that warns her to be more careful at home. Different respond will appear when the woman told the story to a police officer. This will become a report to be seriously handled.

### c. Linguistic factor

Parallel words which are always in pairs with other words give different various connotations. The word 'green', for example, when it is in pair with the following words have different meaning.

*green* with envy : cemburu

*green* at the gills : pucat

a *green* worker : pekerja baru

a *green* fruit : buah yang masih muda

The word 'green' in some examples above are in fact a kind of colour. The word has different meaning when it occurs before certain words that the receivers might react differently.

## 1.3 Elements of Meaning

Larson (1984: 6) states that there are some characteristics of language which involve the process of translation. By knowing the elements of meaning of the source language, translators can make the right decision related to these elements. The elements are described below :

### 1. Plural system

English and Indonesian language are different in marking plural nouns. In written communication, English uses inflectional morpheme -s or -es, or adds phoneme /-s/, /-z/, or /-is/ in spoken. Some irregular forms are also exist. While in Indonesia, markers of plural nouns are shown by using repetition. For example:

English	Indonesian
Fruit	buah
Fruits	buah-buahan
Book	buku
Books	buku-buku
Candy	permen
candies	beberapa permen

### 2. One form with many alternative meaning

A word has a primary meaning, that is the meaning which at the first time is got by the receiver or reader. The second or alternative or connotative meaning is one which is affected by the context. The examples below may clarify this.

The boy *runs* fast : Anak itu berlari dengan cepat.

He *runs* his eyes over the crowd : Ia melayangkan pandangannya pada kerumunan itu

Life must *run* its course : Hidup harus menempuh jalannya sendiri.

### 3. Grammatical marker

In this case, grammatical marker has two functions, primary and secondary functions. The word 'on', to give an example, in English indicates some meanings. This fact is described below.

Sita found a book on the table.

Sita found a book on Biology.

Sita found a book on Wednesday.

The word 'on' in the examples above indicates 'position' or 'location', 'about' and relation of time which in Indonesian are translated as 'diatas', 'tentang', or 'pada'.

## C. Problem of non equivalence

Some problems of non-equivalence at word level, according to Baker (1992: 17), is related to cultural differences, where there is no equivalent words in both source and target language. Source and target language make differences in meaning, or where there is no specific term in the target language. This is what so called culture specific.

### 1. Cultural difference

Newmark (1988: 94) defines culture as "the way of life and its manifestations that are peculiar to a community that uses a particular language

as its means of expression". Some words in the source language may express concepts which absolutely cannot be understood by the native of other language.

The concept can be concrete or even abstract thing related to religion, social tradition, or meals. Alejandra Patricia Karamanian in 'Translation and Culture' (<http://accurapid.com/journal/19culture2.htm>, updated on: 02/26/2005) states:

We are not just dealing with words written in a certain time, space and sociopolitical situation; most importantly it is the "cultural" aspect of the text that we should take into account. The process of transfer, i.e., re-coding across cultures, should consequently allocate corresponding attributes vis-à-vis the target culture to ensure credibility in the eyes of the target reader. The following example is taken from Opera Kecoak which is used by Machali (2007).

SL: Panggil saya 'Mas'.

TL: Call me 'honey'.

The word 'Mas' in the dialog above is translated into 'honey' in English. However, in different context, of course, the word 'Mas' cannot be translated as 'honey', for example when it is used to address one's older brother.

## **2. No equivalent word in the target language**

Sometimes a word expresses a concept which can be understood in the target language but there is no exactly equivalent expression. The word 'standard' in Indonesian is represented by some meaning as 'ukuran' and 'patokan', but they are not fully equivalent with the meaning of the word in the source language. Other example is given by Machali (2007):

*SL : (Kepada wartawan)*

*Saudara-saudara, acara ini sudah selesai. Bapak yang mulia dan tamunya hendak menikmati acara yang sifatnya lebih pribadi. Mohon maaf. Press-release akan dibagikan nanti sore secara tertulis. Juga amplopnya sekalian.*

*TL (for the underlined expressions)*

*You will get a written press release by this evening and, of course, a little something extra as a sign of our appreciation for your hard work.*

In the translation version, the connotative meaning in the word 'amplop' is translated into a more neutral expression in English (see the bold expression), even the phrase 'your hard work' seems to be like an irony. It seems that the translator considers that the target readers will understand the phrase 'hard work' as the realization of the connotative meaning of 'amplop'. This technique is more relevant to the target readers than using the word 'envelope' literally.

## **3. Source and Target Language Make Differences in Meaning**

A translator sometimes makes different meaning of the source and target text. One expression in the source text might be differently expressed in the target text. As an example, in the sentence 'She was going out in the rain', it can be understood differently in Indonesian: 'Dia pergi keluar tanpa tahu kalau hujan sedang turun' or 'Dia sengaja pergi keluar meskipun hujan sedang turun'. In this case, the translator must be quite aware of the context in the source text.



#### 4. There is No Specific Expression in the Target Language

English has some specific term for 'house' as 'bungalow', 'cottage', 'villa', 'hall', 'lodge', and 'mansion'. Javanese, on the other hand, also has some specific terms related to plants as 'manggar', 'bluluk', 'cengkir', 'degan', 'klopo', and 'cumplung' which is not found in Indonesian and English.

#### D. Summary

Finally, it can be concluded that translation is basically a process of conveying meaning or meaning of a given-linguistic discourse of a language into other language, more than just transferring words or grammatical structure of the SL. The meaning of a word or set of words can be well understood because of its role in the whole linguistic expression in where they occur.

For this reason, the meaning of a word is not only determined by the referred object or idea, but it is also governed by the use of the words or phrases in a certain way, context, and effects. When we try to find the equivalence, we are faced with text as unit of meaning, even in the form of sets of words or sentences. It is important to note that language is used as a communication means, so in translating a text we should remember the principle of "A text is a whole entity, to be translated as a whole".

#### E. Exercise

1. Do you have any idea, why meaning is very crucial thing in a translation?
2. What is connotative and denotative meaning?
3. Translate these sentences below and decide the category of the meaning!
  - a. Polisi telah berhasil *menciduk* tersangka perampokan di bank kemaren
  - b. Polisi juga telah *mengantongi* identitas para pelaku perampokan tersebut
  - c. Anak saya masih *hijau*...jangan di ajak yang macem macem
  - d. Jangan asal *mengkambinghitamkan* seseorang
4. What should a translator do when he/she find any problem of non equivalence?

## CHAPTER 3

### TRANSLATION TECHNIQUES

#### A. Introduction

The categories used to analyze translations allow us to study the way translation works. These categories are related to text, context and process. Textual categories describe mechanisms of coherence, cohesion and thematic progression. Contextual categories introduce all the extra-textual elements related to the context of source text and translation production. Process categories are designed to answer two basic questions. Which option has the translator chosen to carry out the translation project, i.e., which *method* has been chosen? How has the translator solved the problems that have emerged during the translation process, i.e., which *strategies* have been chosen? However, research (or teaching) requirements may make it important to consider textual micro-units as well, that is to say, how the result of the translation functions in relation to the corresponding unit in the source text. To do this we need *translation techniques*.

Textual and contextual categories were not sufficient to identify, classify and name the options chosen by the translators for each unit studied. We needed the category of *translation techniques* that allowed us to describe the actual steps taken by the translators in each textual micro-unit and obtain clear data about the general methodological option chosen. However, there is some disagreement amongst translation scholars about translation techniques. This disagreement is not only terminological but also conceptual. There is even a lack of consensus as to what name to give to call the categories, different labels are used (procedures, techniques, strategies) and sometimes they are confused with other concepts. Furthermore, different classifications have been proposed and the terms often overlap.

The term of translation technique may have various names. It means that many translation experts have their own different name to call a same concept about translation technique. For example, Newmark (1988) mentions translation technique as translation procedure and Baker (1992) mentions translation technique as translation strategy. The difference of giving those terms may be logical because between procedure, technique, and strategy there is a tight correlation.

Whatever the names, translation technique and translation strategy are two different concepts, although they have correlation. Translation strategy is done by a translator as a way to solve a problem which may appear in the translating process. While translation technique is a realization from translation strategy which is known from the translating product. This argument is supported by Molina and Albir (2002) opinion that :

*“Strategies open the way to finding a suitable solution for a translation unit. The solution will be materialized by using a particular technique. Therefore, strategies and techniques occupy different places in problem solving: strategies are part of the process, techniques affect the result”.*

According to Machali (2000:77), there are two main elements of technique. 1) technique is a practical thing, 2) technique is used toward specific task (in this case translating task). Based on the practical character of technique, technique related to

translating practice and translating problem solving than with a certain translating procedure.

Molina dan Albir (2002) states that “*Translation techniques ... to describe the actual steps taken by the translators in each textual micro-unit and obtain clear data about the general methodological option chosen*”. Newmark (1988) has an opinion that “*...translation procedures are used for sentences and the smaller units of language*”. From both opinion, there is a similarity between ‘*translation techniques*’ which is mentioned by Molina dan Albir with ‘*translation procedures*’ by Newmark that both are in micro unit of a text. The term ‘*procedures*’ is also used by Pozo Y Postigo in Molina dan Albir (2002). He states that “*Procedures include the use of simple technique and skills, as well as expert use of strategies.*”.

The writer use “technique” to refer a step is done by a translator to solve the translating problem in term of micro unit text. Molina dan Albir (2002) also formulated a technique as a procedure to analyze and classify translation equivalence. They also mentioned five basic characters of translation technique. They are :

- a. *They affect the result of the translation*
- b. *They are classified by comparison with the original*
- c. *They affect micro units of text*
- d. *They are by nature discursive and contextual*
- e. *They are functional*

## **B. Translation techniques**

Some of experts who explain about translation technique are :

### **B.1 Benny Hoed (2006) offers 9 translation techniques. They are :**

#### **1. Transposition**

Translator change the structure of sentence to get an exact translation.

Bsu : *He was unconscious when he arrived at the hospital*

Bsa : Setibanya di rumah sakit, ia sudah dalam keadaan tidak sadar.

#### **2. Modulation**

Translator gave an equivalence which semantically point of view's meaning differ, but in the real context give the sam message.

Bsu : *The laws of Germany govern this Agreement.*

Bsa : Perjanjian ini diatur oleh hukum Jerman

#### **3. Descriptive Translation**

It is done if a source language has no equivalence in the target language. A concept will be translated with an essay form which contain of meaning.

Bsu : *licensed software*

Bsa : perangkat lunak yang dilisensikan

#### **4. Addition**

In order a concept is easier to understand (example a strange name of a food or drink in target language), usually a translator add a special word as an explanation.

Bsu : *He bought a brandy yesterday*

Bsa : Dia membeli sebotol minuman brandy kemarin

## 5. Note

In translating a text, a translator make a note to make clearer the meaning. If there is no note. It may predictable that the reader don't understand the meaning.

Bsu : *All the software in your phone.*

Bsa : Semua perangkat lunak dalam telepon seluler\* Anda.

\*This is a licency text means the software inside the celular, not in a usual celular.

## 6. Fonology Translation

When a translator can't find the exact equivalence of target language, he/she decide to make a new word which is taken by the word sound of the source language to be match with the sound system and spelling of target language.

Bsu : *cryptographic software*

Bsa : perangkat lunak kriptografis

## 7. Legal Translation

There are legal technical terms, names, etc in target language, so the translator may use them as equivalence.

Bsu : *New Zealand*

Bsa : Selandia Baru

## 8. No Equivalence Translation

If a translator can't find the translation concept of target language, he/she may copy from the source language. This technique is usually followed by note.

Bsu : *He celebrated Halloween Day*

Bsa : Dia merayakan Hari Halloween

## 9. Cultural Equivalence

In this technique, a translator give proper cultural equivalence in the target language.

Bsu : *'A' level exam*

Bsa : Ujian SPMB

## B.2 Molina and Albir (2002) has 18 translation techniques. They are :

### 1. Adaptation

To replace a source language cultural element with one from the target culture

Bsu : *They search for bread*

Bsa : Mereka mencari makanan

The word *bread* is translated into *makanan* if in target language doesn't know *bread*.

### 2. Amplification

To introduce details that are not formulated in the source text: information, explicative paraphrasing, etc.

Bsu : *There were some Texan attending the conference.*

Bsa : Beberapa penduduk negara bagian Texas ikut menghadiri konferensi itu.

### 3. Borrowing

To take a word or expression straight from another language. It can be pure (without any change) or it can be naturalized.

- **Pure Borrowing**  
Bsu : *hydrangea*  
Bsa : hydrangea
- **Naturalized Borrowing**  
Bsu : *Polyjuice*  
Bsa : Polijus

#### 4. **Calque**

Literal translation of a foreign word or phrase; it can be lexical or structural.

Bsu : *Primary School*

Bsa : Sekolah Dasar

#### 5. **Compensation**

To introduce a source text element of information or stylistic effect in another place in the target language because it cannot be reflected in the same place as in the source text.

Bsu : *Enter, stranger, but take heed of what awaits the sin of greed*

Bsa : Masuklah, orang asing, tetapi berhati-hatilah terhadap dosa yang harus ditanggung orang serakah

#### 6. **Description**

To replace a term or expression with a description of its form or/and function

Bsu : *Sandra, mix me up the usual*

Bsa : Sandra, buatlah aku pewarna rambut yang biasa

#### 7. **Discursive Creation**

To establish a temporary equivalence that is totally unpredictable out of context.

Bsu : *And Then There Were None*

Bsa : Sepuluh Orang Negro

#### 8. **Established Equivalent**

To use a term or expression recognized (by dictionaries or language in use) as an equivalent in the target language.

Bsu : *Great Britain*

Bsa : Britania Raya

#### 9. **Generalization**

To use a more general or neutral term.

Bsu : *chalet (sejenis villa di Swedia)*

Bsa : pondok peristirahatan

#### 10. **Linguistic Amplification**

To add linguistic elements. This is often used in consecutive interpreting and dubbing.

Bsu : *'Shall we?'*

Bsa : 'Bisa kita berangkat sekarang?'

#### 11. **Linguistic Compression**

To synthesize linguistic elements in the TT. This is often used in simultaneous interpreting and in sub-titling.

Bsu : *I want you to understand*

Bsa : Pahamiilah

#### 12. **Literal Translation**

To translate a word or an expression word for word.

Bsu : *Ministry of Magic*

Bsa : Departemen Sihir

### 13. Modulation

To change the point of view, focus or cognitive category in relation to the source text; it can be lexical or structural.

Bsu : *Hagrid's record is againsts him*

Bsa : Catatan tentang Hagrid sama sekali tidak mendukungnya.

### 14. Particularization

To use a more precise or concrete term.

Bsu : *He calls the chief to check the engine.*

Bsa : Dia memanggil kepala montir untuk memeriksa mesin.

### 15. Reduction

To suppress a source text information item in the target text.

Bsu : *the month of fasting for Moslem*

Bsa : Ramadan

### 16. Substitution

To change linguistic elements for paralinguistic elements (intonation, gestures) or vice versa.

Bsu (paralinguistik) : *The both Japanese bows each other*

Bsa : Kedua orang Jepang itu saling memberikan salam

### 17. Transposition

To change a grammatical category.

Bsu : *Would you like to come in or are you just passing through?*

Bsa : Kau mau masuk sebentar?

### 18. Variation

To change linguistic or paralinguistic elements (intonation, gestures) that affect aspects of linguistic variation: changes of textual tone, style, social dialect, geographical dialect, etc.

Bsu : *Hi, Love*

Bsa : Halo, Say

## B.3 Nida and Taber

Nida dan Taber (in Molina dan Albir 2002: 501) offer other alternative technique when there is no exact equivalence in the target language. It namely **technique of adjustments** which consist of three techniques types : **additions**, **subtractions**, and **alterations**. Those techniques are used to ; 1) adjust the form of the message to the characteristics of the structure of the target language; 2) produce semantically equivalent structures; 3) to generate appropriate stylistic equivalences; and 4) produce an equivalent communicative effect.

**Additions** is used when a translator want to make an addition: to clarify an elliptic expression, to avoid ambiguity in the target language, to change a grammatical category, to amplify implicit elements, to add connectors, etc.

**Subtractions** is used when there are four situations where the translator should use this procedure, in addition to when it is required by the target text: unnecessary repetition, specified references, conjunctions and adverbs.

**Alterations** have to be made because of incompatibilities between the two languages. There are three main types : 1) Changes due to problems caused by

transliteration when a new word is introduced from the source language, 2) Changes due to structural differences between the two languages, e.g., changes in word order, grammatical categories, etc, 3) Changes due to semantic misfits, especially with idiomatic expressions. One of the suggestions to solve this kind of problem is the use of a *descriptive equivalent* i.e., a satisfactory equivalent for objects, events or attributes that do not have a standard term in the TL. It is used for objects that are unknown in the target culture.

Nida includes footnotes as another adjustment technique and points out that they have two main functions: 1) To correct linguistic and cultural differences, e.g., to explain contradictory customs, to identify unknown geographical or physical items, to give equivalents for weights and measures, to explain word play, to add information about proper names, etc.; 2) To add additional information about the historical and cultural context of the text in question.

#### B.4 Vazquez Ayora

Vázquez Ayora (1977) in Molina and Albir (2002) uses the term *operative technical procedures*, although he sometimes refers to them as the *translation method*. This technique consists of two techniques. They are :

- a. **Omission** is to omit redundancy and repetition that is characteristic of the source language.
- b. **Displacement and Inversion** are used where two elements change position,

#### B.5 Delisle

Delisle in Molina and Albir (2002) introduces translation technique. They are:

- a. **Addition vs. Omission** as unjustified periphrasis and concision and considers them to be translation errors. Addition is to introduce unjustified stylistic elements and information that are not in the source text, omission is the unjustifiable suppression of elements in the source text.
- b. **Paraphrase** is defined as excessive use of paraphrase that complicates the target text without stylistic or rhetorical justification. It is also classified as a translation error.
- c. **Discursive creation** is an operation in the cognitive process of translating by which a non-lexical equivalence is established that only works in context.

### C. Summary

Translation technique as an explanation of what are done by a translator in facing the translating problem in a translating process which the validity is depend on the whole text context are translated and the aim of its translating. There are some experts offer several translation technique which can be applied by students in translating the text.

The term of translation technique may has various names. It means that many translation experts has their own different name to call a same concept about translation technique. For example, Newmark (1988) mention translation technique as translation procedure and Baker (1992) mention translation technique as

translation strategy. The difference of giving those term may logical because between procedure, technique, and strategy are has tight corelation.

Whatever the names, translation technique and translation strategy are two different concepts, although they have corelation. Translation strategy is done by a translator as a way to solve problem which may appear in the translating process. While translation technique is a realization from translation strategy which is known from the translating product.

#### D. Exercise

1. Terjemahkan teks berikut ke bahasa Inggris. Gunakan teknik penerjemahan yang tepat, sebutkan teknik penerjemahannya apa dan ahlinya siapa.

Dewasa ini pemerintah berupaya serius dalam meningkatkan kualitas sumber daya manusia dengan memperbaiki sistem pendidikan yang lebih menekankan pada penggalian minat, bakat dan pengembangan kemampuan *skill* individu. Konsep yang dicanangkan adalah dengan mengembangkan kurikulum pendidikan yang sesuai dengan perkembangan jaman dalam rangka mempersiapkan sumber daya manusia berkualitas untuk menghadapi tantangan persaingan global dalam berbagai bidang.

KBK atau Kurikulum Berbasis Kompetensi adalah salah satu model kurikulum yang diterapkan dalam sistem pendidikan di Indonesia. Kurikulum ini masih cukup baru di kalangan pendidikan karena kurikulum ini baru dirintis pada tahun 2000 dan mulai diberlakukan secara resmi oleh pemerintah pada tahun 2004, sebagai pengganti kurikulum 1994. Kurikulum Berbasis Kompetensi berorientasikan pada perluasan wawasan ilmu pengetahuan, teknologi, dan budaya, sebagai salah satu usaha untuk mempertahankan integritas bangsa melalui pembentukan-pembentukan individu yang cerdas, religious, toleran, mandiri, dan berdisiplin serta menjunjung tinggi moral dalam pergaulan antar sesama. Sedangkan Kurikulum Berbasis Kompetensi Perguruan Tinggi mulai diberlakukan tahun 2010.

2. Terjemahkan teks berikut ke bahasa Indonesia. Gunakan teknik penerjemahan yang tepat, sebutkan teknik penerjemahannya apa dan ahlinya siapa.

State oil and gas company Pertamina said it was ready to implement government policies that intend to release premium prices based on a market mechanism. Pertamina president director Dwi Soetjipto said the company was waiting for the government's fuel pricing policies to take effect. "We are waiting for the government's measures. We are ready to go ahead with this because it is being done for the sake of the people," he said as quoted by Antara after attending a meeting with Energy and Mineral Resources Minister Sudirman Said in Jakarta on Tuesday.

On Wednesday, the government plans to announce new fuel prices that will take effect on Jan. 1, 2015. Currently, the price of premium (subsidized by the government) is Rp 8,500 (68 US cents) per liter while subsidized diesel is selling at Rp 7,500 per liter. Pertamina sales and marketing director Ahmad Bambang said the government's policy to set fuel prices based on a market mechanism would be conducted during a transitional period. "In the meeting, a solution was agreed upon: In Java, the premium price will be established in line with the market price while in



areas outside Java there will be distinct guidelines for Pertamina,” he said. The director further explained that Pertamina would be compensated for premium distribution costs in areas outside Java. “Therefore, premium selling prices outside Java will not be much higher than the prices within Java,” said Ahmad. By setting the premium prices in line with the market mechanism, Ahmad said the government was set to impose a fixed subsidy for diesel.

## CHAPTER 4

### TRANSLATION PROCEDURES, STRATEGIES AND METHODS

#### A. Introduction

Translation typically has been used to transfer written or spoken SL texts to equivalent written or spoken TL texts. In general, the purpose of translation is to reproduce various kinds of texts—including religious, literary, scientific, and philosophical texts—in another language and thus making them available to wider readers.

If language were just a classification for a set of general or universal concepts, it would be easy to translate from an SL to a TL; furthermore, under the circumstances the process of learning an L2 would be much easier than it actually is. In this regard, Culler (1976) believes that languages are not nomenclatures and the concepts of one language may differ radically from those of another, since each language articulates or organizes the world differently, and languages do not simply name categories; they articulate their own (p.21-2). The conclusion likely to be drawn from what Culler (1976) writes is that one of the troublesome problems of translation is the disparity among languages. The bigger the gap between the SL and the TL, the more difficult the transfer of message from the former to the latter will be.

The difference between a SL and a TL and the variation in their cultures make the process of translating a real challenge. Among the problematic factors involved in translation such as form, meaning, style, proverbs, idioms, etc., the present paper is going to concentrate mainly on the procedures of translating CSCs in general and on the strategies of rendering allusions in particular.

#### B. Translation Procedures, Strategies and Methods

The translating procedures, as depicted by Nida (1964) are as follow:

##### 1. Technical Procedures:

- Analysis of the source and target languages;
- A thorough study of the source language text before making attempts to translate it;
- Making judgments of the semantic and syntactic approximations. (pp. 241-45)

##### 2. Organizational Procedures :

Constant reevaluation of the attempt made; contrasting it with the existing available translations of the same text done by other translators, and checking the text's communicative effectiveness by asking the target language readers to evaluate its accuracy and effectiveness and studying their reactions (pp. 246-47).

Krings (1986:18) defines translation strategy as "translator's potentially conscious plans for solving concrete translation problems in the framework of a concrete translation task," and Seguinot (1989) believes that there are at least three global strategies employed by the translators: (i) translating without interruption for as long as possible; (ii) correcting surface errors immediately; (iii) leaving the monitoring for qualitative or stylistic errors in the text to the revision stage.

Moreover, Loesch (1991:8) defines translation strategy as "a potentially conscious procedure for solving a problem faced in translating a text, or any segment of it." As it is stated in this definition, the notion of consciousness is significant in distinguishing strategies which are used by the learners or translators. In this regard, Cohen (1998:4) asserts that "the element of consciousness is what distinguishes strategies from these processes that are not strategic."

Furthermore, Bell (1998:188) differentiates between global (those dealing with whole texts) and local (those dealing with text segments) strategies and confirms that this distinction results from various kinds of translation problems.

Venuti (1998:240) indicates that translation strategies "involve the basic tasks of choosing the foreign text to be translated and developing a method to translate it." He employs the concepts of domesticating and foreignizing to refer to translation strategies.

Jaaskelainen (1999:71) considers strategy as, "a series of competencies, a set of steps or processes that favor the acquisition, storage, and/or utilization of information." He maintains that strategies are "heuristic and flexible in nature, and their adoption implies a decision influenced by amendments in the translator's objectives."

Taking into account the process and product of translation, Jaaskelainen (2005) divides strategies into two major categories: some strategies relate to what happens to texts, while other strategies relate to what happens in the process.

Product-related strategies, as Jaaskelainen (2005:15) writes, involves the basic tasks of choosing the SL text and developing a method to translate it. However, she maintains that process-related strategies "are a set of (loosely formulated) rules or principles which a translator uses to reach the goals determined by the translating situation" (p.16).

Moreover, Jaaskelainen (2005:16) divides this into two types, namely global strategies and local strategies: "global strategies refer to general principles and modes of action and local strategies refer to specific activities in relation to the translator's problem-solving and decision-making."

Newmark (1988b) mentions the difference between translation methods and translation procedures. He writes that, "While translation methods relate to whole texts, translation procedures are used for sentences and the smaller units of language" (p.81). He goes on to refer to the following methods of translation:

- a. **Word-for-word translation:** in which the SL word order is preserved and the words translated singly by their most common meanings, out of context.
- b. **Literal translation:** in which the SL grammatical constructions are converted to their nearest TL equivalents, but the lexical words are again translated singly, out of context.
- c. **Faithful translation:** it attempts to produce the precise contextual meaning of the original within the constraints of the TL grammatical structures.
- d. **Semantic translation:** which differs from 'faithful translation' only in as far as it must take more account of the aesthetic value of the SL text.
- e. **Adaptation:** which is the freest form of translation, and is used mainly for plays (comedies) and poetry; the themes, characters, plots are usually preserved, the SL culture is converted to the TL culture and the text is rewritten.
- f. **Free translation:** it produces the TL text without the style, form, or content of the original.
- g. **Idiomatic translation:** it reproduces the 'message' of the original but tends to distort nuances of meaning by preferring colloquialisms and idioms where these do not exist in the original.

- h. *Communicative translation*:** it attempts to render the exact contextual meaning of the original in such a way that both content and language are readily acceptable and comprehensible to the readership (1988b: 45-47).

Newmark (1991:10-12) writes of a continuum existing between "semantic" and "communicative" translation. Any translation can be "more, or less semantic—more, or less, communicative—even a particular section or sentence can be treated more communicatively or less semantically." Both seek an "equivalent effect." Zhongying (1994: 97), who prefers literal translation to free translation, writes that, "[i]n China, it is agreed by many that one should translate literally, if possible, or appeal to free translation."

In order to clarify the distinction between procedure and strategy, the forthcoming section is allotted to discussing the procedures of translating culture-specific terms, and strategies for rendering allusions will be explained in detail.

### **C. Procedures of Translating Culture-Specific concepts (CSCs)**

Graedler (2000:3) puts forth some procedures of translating CSCs:

1. Making up a new word.
2. Explaining the meaning of the SL expression in lieu of translating it.
3. Preserving the SL term intact.
4. Opting for a word in the TL which seems similar to or has the same "relevance" as the SL term.

Defining culture-bound terms (CBTs) as the terms which "refer to concepts, institutions and personnel which are specific to the SL culture" (p.2), Harvey (2000:2-6) puts forward the following four major techniques for translating CBTs:

1. ***Functional Equivalence***: It means using a referent in the TL culture whose function is similar to that of the source language (SL) referent. As Harvey (2000:2) writes, authors are divided over the merits of this technique: Weston (1991:23) describes it as "the ideal method of translation," while Sarcevic (1985:131) asserts that it is "misleading and should be avoided."
2. ***Formal Equivalence or 'linguistic equivalence'***: It means a 'word-for-word' translation.
3. ***Transcription or 'borrowing'*** (i.e. reproducing or, where necessary, transliterating the original term): It stands at the far end of SL-oriented strategies. If the term is formally transparent or is explained in the context, it may be used alone. In other cases, particularly where no knowledge of the SL by the reader is presumed, transcription is accompanied by an explanation or a translator's note.
4. ***Descriptive or self-explanatory translation***: It uses generic terms (not CBTs) to convey the meaning. It is appropriate in a wide variety of contexts where formal equivalence is considered insufficiently clear. In a text aimed at a specialized reader, it can be helpful to add the original SL term to avoid ambiguity.

The following are the different translation procedures that Newmark (1988b) proposes:

- ***Transference***: it is the process of transferring an SL word to a TL text. It includes transliteration and is the same as what Harvey (2000:5) named "transcription."
- ***Naturalization***: it adapts the SL word first to the normal pronunciation, then to the normal morphology of the TL. (Newmark, 1988b:82)

- **Cultural equivalent:** it means replacing a cultural word in the SL with a TL one. however, "they are not accurate" (Newmark, 1988b:83)
- **Functional equivalent:** it requires the use of a culture-neutral word. (Newmark, 1988b:83)
- **Descriptive equivalent:** in this procedure the meaning of the CBT is explained in several words. (Newmark, 1988b:83)
- **Componential analysis:** it means "comparing an SL word with a TL word which has a similar meaning but is not an obvious one-to-one equivalent, by demonstrating first their common and then their differing sense components." (Newmark, 1988b:114)
- **Synonymy:** it is a "near TL equivalent." Here economy trumps accuracy. (Newmark, 1988b:84)
- **Through-translation:** it is the literal translation of common collocations, names of organizations and components of compounds. It can also be called: calque or loan translation. (Newmark, 1988b:84)
- **Shifts or transpositions:** it involves a change in the grammar from SL to TL, for instance, (i) change from singular to plural, (ii) the change required when a specific SL structure does not exist in the TL, (iii) change of an SL verb to a TL word, change of an SL noun group to a TL noun and so forth. (Newmark, 1988b:86)
- **Modulation:** it occurs when the translator reproduces the message of the original text in the TL text in conformity with the current norms of the TL, since the SL and the TL may appear dissimilar in terms of perspective. (Newmark, 1988b:88)
- **Recognized translation:** it occurs when the translator "normally uses the official or the generally accepted translation of any institutional term." (Newmark, 1988b:89)
- **Compensation:** it occurs when loss of meaning in one part of a sentence is compensated in another part. (Newmark, 1988b:90)
- **Paraphrase:** in this procedure the meaning of the CBT is explained. Here the explanation is much more detailed than that of *descriptive equivalent*. (Newmark, 1988b:91)
- **Couplets:** it occurs when the translator combines two different procedures. (Newmark, 1988b:91)
- **Notes:** notes are additional information in a translation. (Newmark, 1988b:91)  
Notes can appear in the form of 'footnotes.' Although some stylists consider a translation sprinkled with footnotes terrible with regard to appearance, nonetheless, their use can assist the TT readers to make better judgments of the ST contents. Nida (1964:237-39) advocates the use of footnotes to fulfill at least the two following functions: (i) to provide supplementary information, and (ii) to call attention to the original's discrepancies.

A really troublesome area in the field of translation appears to be the occurrence of allusions, which seem to be culture-specific portions of a SL. All kinds of allusions, especially cultural and historical allusions, bestow a specific density on the original language and need to be explicated in the translation to bring forth the richness of the SL text for the TL audience.

Appearing abundantly in literary translations, allusions, as Albakry (2004:3) points out, "are part of the prior cultural knowledge taken for granted by the author writing for a predominantly Moslem Arab [SL] audience. To give the closest approximation of the source language, therefore, it was necessary to opt for 'glossing' or using explanatory footnotes." However, somewhere else he claims that, "footnotes ... can be rather

intrusive, and therefore, their uses were minimized as much as possible" (Albakry, 2004:4).

#### **D. Strategies of Translating Allusions**

Proper names, which are defined by Richards (1985:68) as "names of a particular person, place or thing" and are spelled "with a capital letter," play an essential role in a literary work. For instance let us consider personal PNs. They may refer to the setting, social status and nationality of characters, and really demand attention when rendered into a foreign language.

There are some models for rendering PNs in translations. One of these models is presented by Hervey and Higgins (1986) who believe that there exist two strategies for translating PNs. They point out: "either the name can be taken over unchanged from the ST to the TT, or it can be adopted to conform to the phonic/graphic conventions of the TL" (p.29).

Hervey and Higgins (1986) refer to the former as *exotism* which "is tantamount to literal translation, and involves no cultural transposition" (p.29), and the latter *astransliteration*. However, they propose another procedure or alternative, as they put it, namely *cultural transplantation*. Being considered as "the extreme degree of cultural transposition," cultural transplantation is considered to be a procedure in which "SL names are replaced by indigenous TL names that are not their literal equivalents, but have similar cultural connotations" (Hervey & Higgins, 1986:29).

Regarding the translation of PNs, Newmark (1988a:214) asserts that, "normally, people's first and sure names are transferred, thus preserving nationality and assuming that their names have no connotations in the text."

The procedure of transference cannot be asserted to be effective where connotations and implied meanings are significant. Indeed, there are some names in the Persian poet Sa'di's work *Gulestan*, which bear connotations and require a specific strategy for being translated. Newmark's (1988a:215) solution of the mentioned problem is as follows: "first translate the word that underlies the SL proper name into the TL, and then naturalize the translated word back into a new SL proper name." However, there is a shortcoming in the strategy in question. As it seems it is only useful for personal PNs, since as Newmark (1988a:215), ignoring the right of not educated readers to enjoy a translated text, states, it can be utilized merely "when the character's name is not yet current amongst an educated TL readership."

Leppihalme (1997:79) proposes another set of strategies for translating the proper name allusions:

1. **Retention of the name:**
  - a. Using the name as such.
  - b. Using the name, adding some guidance.
  - c. Using the name, adding a detailed explanation, for instance, a footnote.
2. **Replacement of the name by another:**
  - a. Replacing the name by another SL name.
  - b. Replacing the name by a TL name
3. **Omission of the name :**
  - a. Omitting the name, but transferring the sense by other means, for instance by a common noun.
  - b. Omitting the name and the allusion together.

Moreover, nine strategies for the translation of key-phrase allusions are proposed by Leppihalme (1997: 82) as follows:

- a. Use of a standard translation,
- b. Minimum change, that is, a literal translation, without regard to connotative or contextual meaning,
- c. Extra allusive guidance added in the text,
- d. The use of footnotes, endnotes, translator's notes and other explicit explanations not supplied in the text but explicitly given as additional information,
- e. Stimulated familiarity or internal marking, that is, the addition of intra-allusive allusion ,
- f. Replacement by a TL item,
- g. Reduction of the allusion to sense by rephrasing,
- h. Re-creation, using a fusion of techniques: creative construction of a passage which hints at the connotations of the allusion or other special effects created by it,
- i. Omission of the allusion.

Although some stylists consider translation "sprinkled with footnotes" undesirable, their uses can assist the TT readers to make better judgment of the ST contents. In general, it seems that the procedures 'functional equivalent' and 'notes' would have a higher potential for conveying the concepts underlying the CSCs embedded in a text; moreover, it can be claimed that a combination of these strategies would result in a more accurate understanding of the CSCs than other procedures.

Various strategies opted for by translators in rendering allusions seem to play a crucial role in recognition and perception of connotations carried by them. If a novice translator renders a literary text without paying adequate attention to the allusions, the connotations are likely not to be transferred as a result of the translator's failure to acknowledge them. They will be entirely lost to the majority of the TL readers; consequently, the translation will be ineffective.

It seems necessary for an acceptable translation to produce the same (or at least similar) effects on the TT readers as those created by the original work on its readers. This paper may show that a translator does not appear to be successful in his challenging task of efficiently rendering the CSCs and PNs when he sacrifices, or at least minimizes, the effect of allusions in favor of preserving graphical or lexical forms of source language PNs. In other words, a competent translator is well-advised not to deprive the TL reader of enjoying, or even recognizing, the allusions either in the name of fidelity or brevity. It can be claimed that the best translation method seem to be the one which allows translator to utilize 'notes.' Furthermore, employing 'notes' in the translation, both as a translation strategy and a translation procedure, seems to be indispensable so that the foreign language readership could benefit from the text as much as the ST readers do.

## **E. Summary**

Translation typically has been used to transfer written or spoken SL texts to equivalent written or spoken TL texts. Some experts mention the notion of translation strategy as follows: Krings (1986:18) defines translation strategy as "translator's potentially conscious plans for solving concrete translation problems in the framework of a concrete translation task," and Seguinot (1989) believes that there are at least three global strategies employed by the translators: (i) translating without interruption for as long as possible; (ii) correcting surface errors immediately; (iii) leaving the monitoring for qualitative or stylistic errors in the text to the revision stage. Loescher (1991:8) defines translation strategy as "a potentially conscious procedure for solving a problem faced in translating a text, or any segment of it. Bell (1998:188) differentiates between global (those dealing with whole texts) and local (those dealing with text segments) strategies and confirms that this distinction results from various kinds of translation problems. Venuti (1998:240) indicates that translation strategies "involve the basic tasks of choosing the foreign text to be translated and developing a method to translate it." He employs the concepts of domesticating and foreignizing to refer to translation strategies. Jaaskelainen (1999:71) considers strategy as, "a series of competencies, a set of steps or processes that favor the acquisition, storage, and/or utilization of information."

Meanwhile, Newmark (1988b) mentions the difference between translation methods and translation procedures. He writes that, "While translation methods relate to whole texts, translation procedures are used for sentences and the smaller units of language" (p.81). He offers 8 translation methods such as word per word, literal, faithful, semantic, adaptation, free, idiomatic and communicative translation. Newmark also offers 15 translation procedures such as; transference, naturalization, cultural equivalent, functional equivalent, descriptive equivalent, componential analysis, synonymy, through translation, shift, modulation, recognized translation, compensation, paraphrase, couplets and notes.

Leppihalme (1997:79) proposes another set of strategies for translating the proper name allusions: retention of the name, replacement of the name by another, omission of the name.

## **F. Exercise**

1. What is the translation strategy?
2. What is the translation method?
3. What is the translation procedures?
4. What is the difference between translation method and procedure according to Newmark?
5. Mention some strategies to translate allusion!



## CHAPTER 5

### TRANSLATION COMPETENCE

Perhaps one of the most pertinent areas of research in translation studies nowadays concerns attempts to conceptualize and further develop theoretical and practical background for training of future translators. In this respect the notion of *translation competence* (TC) plays a prominent role. In general terms, TC is perceived as an underlying knowledge or ability needed to carry out a translation task.

#### A. Defining Translation Competence

“In any professional environment, performance is judged according to certain clearly defined objectives and needs, which demand a specific type of competence...” (Schäffner 2000: xiv).

Translation of written texts is a multidisciplinary activity that has been used for communication between members of different cultures since the beginning of writing. Despite its vital role in inter-language and inter-cultural communication, translation used to be perceived as a rather menial task, and products of this activity were often found lacking in comparison with the source texts from which they originated.

Even in present times “Translators are not yet sure whether translation is a trade, an art a profession or a business” (Baker 1992: 2). Translation (as an occupation or skill) started to gain recognition as late as in the 20<sup>th</sup> century with the emergence of translation studies. Initial attempts at defining translation and proposing a theoretical background for translation “...led to a study of the way in which it theory could best be taught, in order to enhance the different skills acquired in one or more foreign languages and cultures, in relation to and in conjunction with the mother tongue, for the purpose of more effective communication.”(Schäffner 2000: vii).

One of the interesting areas within the field of translation studies is devoted to conceptualization and further development of theoretical and practical background for translation training. In this context the notion of *translation competence* (TC) plays a prominent role. This term is relatively new and not unanimously recognized among translation scholars. Many definitions of translation competence emerged throughout the years, but in the most general terms translation competence represents “... the underlying system of knowledge, abilities and attitudes required to be able to translate” (PACTE 2002: 43).

However, this concept is not to be confused with competence in terms of Chomsky’s binary definition of linguistic competence and linguistic performance. In the scope of translation studies, translation competence has more to do with performance. Translation competence is mostly described as a complex concept that requires knowledge of two or more languages and usually consists of two or more sub-competencies.

Christine Schäffner presents the following metaphor while conceptualizing TC: “Optimal performance of any action, for example, driving a car, is based on a global competence which relies on the interaction of different subordinated competences, which are, of course, interrelated” (Schäffner 2000: viii).

Difficulties facing scholars in their attempts to define translation competence stem from the rather complicated nature of translation as such. Translation is in

theory an interdisciplinary field and in practice a multitasking activity that requires much more than “merely” a linguistic competence in two languages. One of the widespread misconceptions concerning translation of technical texts (and perhaps translation per se) is that any specialist with a decent knowledge of a foreign language can not only produce texts in his second language, but can translate as well.

Yet, although knowledge of a foreign language is the basic prerequisite for translation, it does not guarantee that the resulting product will be adequate for its readership. It was established in several studies that bilingualism does not make a translator, although it may present an advantage in translation training. The material

with which translators have to work (language/s) is constantly changing and evolving. The major problem that training has to face is that “any attempt at defining competence must take into account the sheer complexity of the demands that are made on the cognitive faculties and skills of the translator” (Neubert; Schäffner 2000: 1).

## B. TC Introduction

It is quite difficult to evaluate a concept that was yet neither agreed upon, nor properly defined. Different scholars perceive this construct differently. Even the term itself has several varieties, respective authors call it *translation competence* (Vienne: 2000) *translational competence* (Neubert: 2000), *translational knowledge* (Pym: 1992) or *translation skill* (Sim: 2000).

Although most of the authors dealing with translation competence agree that linguistic competence is essential for TC, some include it in their models and definitions and others put it aside as a necessary prerequisite, nevertheless not a part of TC per se.”Furthermore, competence in translation (like Chomsky’s linguistic competence) is an abstract concept that can only be measured in performance” (Beeby 2000: 185). And because this performance involves combination of quite a variable set of activities, it follows that to describe translation competence as a single entity is nearly impossible.

Amparo Hurtado Albir and Mariana Orozco report finding only four explicit definitions of TC, one of those proposed by Hurtado Albir himself. He perceives translation competence as “the ability of knowing how to translate”. The other three definitions are as follows:

- Bell defines TC as “the knowledge and skills the translator must possess in order to carry out a translation”
- Wills understands TC as “an interlingual supercompetence [...] based on a comprehensive knowledge of the respective SL and TL, including the text-pragmatic dimension, and consists of the ability to integrate the two monolingual competencies on a higher level”
- PACTE group perceives TC as “... the underlying system of knowledge needed to translate”(all definitions cited in Orozco, Hurtado Albir 2002: 376)

General definitions of translation competence constitute the basis for TC models. Even the most minimalistic of those TC models are binary (see Pym) and they boil down to decoding the source text (ST) and encoding/producing the target text (TT), perhaps with the addition of a *transfer* element, introduced by Toury. “Writers on translation theory and practice often tend to reduce the concept of translation competence to a simple three level skill (deverbalisation, transfer and reverbalisation)” (Vienne; Schäffner 2000: 91).

However, such simple definition strips reality of its context. This notion has been criticized by Christiane Nord, because it implies that “every ST is supposed to carry its own ‘translation instructions’ telling the translator how it should be transferred” (Nord as quoted by Vienne; Schäffner 2000: 91). According to this perspective translation (competence) does not simply boil down to “re-writing” the ST in the target language.

There is something like a core and peripheral translation competence. Translator has to understand not only the text itself, but the situation, that led to its production in one language and that now leads to its re-production in another. The importance of teamwork within translation in general and translation competence in particular needs to be stressed as well, because in professional reality, translation products are often results of inputs contributed by several people at once.

Defining and conceptualizing translation competence is not an easy endeavour, which will be further illustrated by the following examples. The concepts and models listed in the rest of this chapter are presented as instances chosen only to illustrate the variety of perspectives adopted by different authors when contemplating translation competence. No typology of TC models is proposed, although respective constructs and definitions are loosely strung together according to certain features they have in common.

### **C. TC defined (Albrecht Neubert)**

Some of the intricacies connected to conceptualizing TC are exemplified by the work of Albrecht Neubert, whose take at definition of translation competence (which he calls *translational competence*) emphasizes the notions of *complexity* and *heterogeneity*. According to Neubert, translation requires a complex set of knowledge and skill (hence the complexity). These skills are unique and often dramatically differ from each other (hence the heterogeneity). The sheer variety of topics a single translator has to process during his/her career means that “translators cannot be fully competent in all the fields they have to deal with” (Neubert; Schäffner 2000: 4).

It follows that the translator often approaches a source text from the position of mediation expert, rather than being an expert in the particular field. His/her knowledge of the subject is always lesser than the knowledge of the original author or sender of the source text. This consideration is further reflected in the definition of TC, because it implies that the nature of translation competence will always remain *approximate* and *open ended* (Neubert: 2000). Such considerations introduce an interesting aspect into the definition, namely that the translator needs to use a variety of external resources and s/he has to be able to internalize and contextualize new information rather quickly while working with a limited number of sources (compared to expert in the particular field) and often under time pressure.

If the translator does not possess sufficient internal resources to render a text, s/he has to be able to consult external resources, experts in the particular field or other translators, thus the complexity of translation tasks often requires teamwork in order to arrive at an acceptable product. Translation(al) competences have to provide translators with the ability to re-create the source text in a context of different language and culture. Neubert’s perspective implies that change is the only constant in translation; nevertheless, he proposes the following hierarchical definition of translation competence that consists of:

- 1) *Language competence* - this sub-competence includes the knowledge grammatical systems as well as repertoires, terminologies, syntactic and morphological conventions
- 2) *Textual competence* that emerges from and is intertwined with the linguistic competence, and represents an ability to define textual features of e.g. technical, legal or literary fields ,
- 3) *Subject competence* - stems from textual competence, it represents the familiarity with what the particular text is about, this concept covers both knowledge about the world (encyclopaedic knowledge) and specialist knowledge,
- 4) *Cultural competence* – or that translators need to be specialists on cultures, because they act as mediators between various cultural backgrounds and presuppositions “technical texts are often culture-bound too” (Neubert; Schäffner 2000: 9), last, but not least is the
- 5) *Transfer competence* – which encompasses the strategies and procedures that allow translating the text from L1 to L2, it is the ability to *perform* translation as such quickly and efficiently. This competence is superordinate to the previous four competencies and has a transient nature, because it is “triggered off by the nature of the text” (Neubert; Schäffner 2000: 15) or by different parts of a single source text (ST).

In connection with transfer competence it is important to explain the concept of equivalence as Neubert perceives it. Equivalence is the desirable outcome, which is facilitated by all the previously mentioned sub-competencies. It is not an absolute, firmly set quality, but a concept that is functional and depends on a particular translational situation. Such notion of equivalence does not depend solely on linguistic, content or subject correspondence; it emerges as interplay of the five competencies.

These competencies are tested, solidified and honed with every translation task, which means that they have to be continuously improved upon and that the translator, however proficient and experienced, never arrives at a finite stage in their development. What can be derived from Neubert’s perspective of TC in respect to the proposition of a new translation model is summarized in the following lines.

TC is a multifaceted concept that includes “passive” elements (related to knowledge) and an active element. The active element (transfer) consists of procedures and strategies that are used while working on the translation task at hand. The transfer element is superordinate; it employs and activates all the other “passive” sub-components. Moreover, the nature of TC is open- ended; there is no finite stage to arrive at. Yet, TC can be developed and can integrate certain tools, which translators may acquire both through theory and practice. In turn, translation competence becomes the basis that influences methods or strategies, which translators use while working on their tasks. Respective competencies regroup, transform and manifest according to the cognitive effort that is required for a particular translation.

Neubert’s perspective of translation competence as a complex and heterogeneous phenomenon that is in fact an amalgamation of several sub-competencies is adopted quite often in the scope of translation studies. Although some of the scholars try to come up with unified, simple (r) or minimalistic definitions of translation competence, most of the definitions emerging in relation

with translation training and the needs of professional market divide TC into multi/sub-componential models. Furthermore, the perspective of constant reconfiguration of sub-competencies within Neubert's definition is frequently reflected in these multipartite models. Neubert's notion of regrouping appears consistent with Levy's theory of minimax strategy, "that the translator must exert minimum effort for maximum effect" (Pym 1995: 603). Accordingly, respective competencies should regroup in order to facilitate such minimax strategy; activate in response to the task at hand, but also according to the expertise of the translator

#### **D. Summary**

In summary, translation competence is as an underlying knowledge or ability needed to carry out a translation task. Neubert proposed 5 translation competences such as; language competence, textual competence, subject competence, cultural competence and transfer competence. Those translation competences must be owned by translator to make the good translation.

#### **E. Exercise**

1. What is the definition of translation competence?
2. Mention the translation competence proposed by Neubert?
3. Explain the role of translation competence for a translator!
4. In what situation, the translation competence is crucial to be implemented by the translator?

## **CHAPTER 6**

### **TESTING THE TRANSLATION**

In this chapter, first different ways of testing a translation is studied. As it will be mentioned, there are some ways to test a translation which consist of comparison with the source language, back – translation, comprehension checks, naturalness and readability testing, and consistency checks. After that, testing and evaluation in the translation classroom are analyzed. At the beginning, the meaning of some key terms in testing is presented. Then, types of assessment are evaluated. After that, different types of test items are considered. Next, there exist assessment and grading or marking of the students' translation in the classroom; and two kinds of assessments, that is norm – referenced and criteria – referenced, are examined. Finally, some information is given about testing and evaluation in an academic atmosphere as well as case studies of tests for translation courses.

#### **A. Ways of testing a translation**

According to Larson, there are exist seven ways to test a translation:

1. Comparison with the source text
2. Back – translation into the source language
3. Comprehension checks
4. Naturalness test
5. Readability test
6. Consistency checks
7. Using the testing result

Here are the following explanation of each ways :

##### **1. Comparison with the source text**

One of the main purposes of the comparison is to check for equivalence of information content. The comparison is actually a self – check; that is, it is done by the translator. Of course, it could be done by someone else who knows both languages well and knows translation principles. After checking to be sure that all of the information is there, the translator will make another comparison of source language and receptor language texts, looking for any problems.

##### **2. Back – translation into the source language**

A second way to check a translation is by having someone else, who is bilingual in the source and receptor languages, make a back – translation of the translated text into the source language. This person takes the translation and writes out the meaning he gets from it back into source language. He should do it without having read the source text used by the translator. This back translation will let the translator know what is being communicated to this person. In translating, one uses natural and clear forms; in back – translating, literal forms are used in order to show up the structure of the translation being back – translated.

##### **3. Comprehension checks**

Good comprehension testing is the key to a good translation. The purpose of this test is to see whether or not the translation is understood correctly by speakers of the language who have not seen the translation previously.

It is designed to find out what the translation is communicating to the audience for whom it is intended. This type of test involves having people retell the content of the translation and answer questions about it.

Comprehension testing is done with persons who are fluent speakers of the receptor language. These people should be ordinary people from various classes of the society. Testing should be done with young people, middle aged, and older people. It should be done with the more highly educated and with the newly literate, if the translation is intended for all.

The respondent is asked to retell or give a summary of the material read. The tester should be careful to choose a section which is a unit and which is not so long that it would be hard to remember the content. The second step in comprehension testing is asking questions about the translated text. The questions should be prepared beforehand, not made up on the spot. This gives the tester time to think through what he expects the respondent to understand and to decide exactly what he wants to check.

There are several kinds of questions, each with a different purpose. Questions may be asked to give information about the discourse style, or about the theme of the text, or they may be questions which have to do with details; Style questions are related to the genre and the style of the translation. Questions may also be asked which are designed to evaluate the translation of the theme. These questions focus on the high points of the story or argument. The purpose of these theme questions is to determine if the main points of meaning are clear in the translation. The theme questions are used to begin the discussion.

Detail questions are questions about words, phrases, and other matters which the tester does not want to ask while he is concentrating on the main points of the text. Detail questions often lead to complicated discussions and would cause the respondent to lose track of main points, if asked while discussing genre or theme. The answers to most detailed questions should be clearly found in the text unless one is checking to see if implicit information is retrievable.

#### **4. Naturalness tests**

The purpose of naturalness tests is to see if the form of the translation is natural and the style appropriate. This testing is done by reviewers.

Reviewers are people who are willing to spend time reading through the translation making comments and suggestions. However, most reviewers simply read the translation looking for ways to improve the naturalness and style.

Reviewers need to know enough about translation principles to understand what is meant by an idiomatic translation. They can probably best be trained by having a consultant or translator work through a number of texts with them. All reviewers should be looking for ways to improve, the clarity, naturalness, flow of the discourse, and the emotive impact on the readers.

The process used by the reviewer is first to read through the whole section of the translation at one time. This is important for checking the flow of the translation and the overall meaning of the text. He should write notes either in the margin or on a separate paper to give to the translator.

After the reviewer has checked for clarity and naturalness, he may also check for accuracy, if he knows the source language well. He will compare the translation with the source text looking for omissions, additions, or any changes

of meaning. Once again the reviewer should make careful notes for the translator.

## **5. Readability tests**

The translator and tester may do readability tests. These tests are done by asking someone to read a part of the translation aloud. It should be a complete section; that is, a unit. As they read, the tester will notice any places where the reader hesitates. Also, if he stops and re-reads the sentence, this should be noted as it indicates some problem in readability.

Readability tests do not need to be done in formal sessions only. At any time that someone is reading the translation, the translator, testers, and reviewers who are listening should be aware of any difficulties in reading. A text is readable because it is good writing, that is, it has a pleasing style, a good rhythm, and moves along at an acceptable pace. It should be kept in mind that what is readable for one audience may not be readable for another. A highly educated audience will easily read rather complex sentence structure. This is why it is important that the readability tests be done with persons who will be the users of the translation.

Readability may also be affected by formatting matters. The size of type, punctuation, spelling, size of margins and space between lines may all affect the readability tests.

## **6. Consistency checks**

As the translation comes near to completion, it is very important that consistency checks of various kinds be made. Some of these have to do with the content of the translation and others have to do with the technical details of presentation. All of those who are testing the translation should be alert for reading problems related to formatting as well as content.

The source text will have had certain key terms which were identified and for which lexical equivalents were found. If the document being translated is a long one, or done over a long period of time, it is possible that the translator has been inconsistent in the use of lexical equivalents for some key terms. At the end of the translation project, a check should be done of such terms. This will be especially true in technical, political, or religious documents.

In the final review, the formatting of the text and of any supplementary material like footnotes, glossary, and index or table of contents, should also be checked for formatting style.

## **7. Using the testing results**

After all of the tests have been carried out, the results will need to be evaluated and recommended changes accepted or rejected or modified in some way.

After the initial draft is completed, it will be very helpful to the translator if he himself does some readability checks and comprehension checks with various people. The reworking of the initial draft results in the second draft. This draft is then tested by a careful comparison with the source text. A back – translation is prepared which the translator will use for a self – check and for working with a consultant. Comprehension checks, naturalness checks and readability checks are also made.

A third draft, the revision draft is then made by the translator incorporating the information into the draft. Once the revised draft is completed, some



consistency checking may need to be done again. Additional readability testing may be done. It may even be wise to do some more comprehension testing or reviewing, especially on parts of the translation on which there was disagreement among the members of the team. The final draft will then need to be checked very carefully for consistency in technical matters and proofread a number of times. If a number of people can read through it completely, this will give the best check of the final draft.

## **B. Testing and Evaluation in the Translation Classroom**

According to Dr. Carol Ann Goff – kfouri, one particular problematic area is that of marking translations and making decisions on student competence. One of the most challenging terms for professional educators is 'test '. Even experienced instructors may not always feel at ease with putting a grade or a mark on a student's final paper. Instructors and curriculum designers today seem to be convinced that a more learner – centered, creative and flexible teaching system motivates students. Instructors who emphasize a communicative type of testing may promote a more efficient learning environment. Instructors of translation need to become competent in test writing, but they must keep in mind that there is no perfect test and no foolproof grading or marking system.

### **Key Terms**

- a. **Measurement** is a Process that attempts to obtain a quantitative representation of the degree to which a student shows competence in a particular skill or area of knowledge. In order to measure, instructors must have an instrument. The instrument an instructor uses to measure a student's competence has traditionally been the test. A test (oral or written) is made up of items.
- b. **Evaluation** is also a process; it is the systematic process of determining the extent to which students reach the educational objectives set by the institution or standard – setting body that issues their diploma. Evaluation is part of a decision – making process; and it depends on the reliability of the test instrument.
- c. **Reliability** refers to the test's consistency. If the same test were administered a second time under equivalent conditions, the same results should occur. A test of technical translation ability may render more reliable results than a literary translation test.
- d. **Validity** reflects whether the test measures what it was supposed to measure. For example, if students are asked to write an essay in a language class on the latest methods of imputing data into a database, and those students are not knowledgeable on that particular subject, that test will not be a valid judge of their language abilities.

## Types of Assessment

Translation students will take a number of tests during their time in university.

### a. A placement test

It is generally the first test a student translator will sit for at university. The purpose of the placement test is to classify the level of incoming candidates to a translation or any other skill – based program. According to the results, the department may have to implement remedial or intensive courses. Placement tests are a practical way to assess the evolution in incoming students talents from one year to the next.

Candidates to a translation or any other skill – based program. According to the results, the department may have to implement remedial or intensive courses. Placement tests are a practical way to assess the evolution in incoming students talents from one year to the next.

### b. Diagnostic tests

Tests are designed to pick out student problems before it is too late in the year or the semester to do so. A diagnostic test is given so as to facilitate the student's learning, to encourage students to correct areas of weakness. Some progress tests may also serve a diagnostic function.

### c. Progress tests

The most frequent tests instructors give. The objective of a progress test is to determine if the students have mastered material that has already been taught. Progress tests are most often “open book “in translation classes; and students have access to notes, databases, dictionaries, etc. Quizzes, graded homework, short projects, weekly or bi – weekly tests are all types of progress tests.

### d. Achievement tests

Meant to determine if the student has met the course objectives. If students were placed in the correct course level, benefited from the results of diagnostic tests and progress tests, the achievement test should reaffirm their acquisition of skills necessary to advance to a further level of study. Their results should be examined closely so as to evaluate the program's strengths and weaknesses.

There are two further traditional types of tests: formative and summative.

**Formative assessment** takes place during the instruction period and is designed to guide instructors to object their teaching, if need be. Progress tests also fall into this category, as do diagnostic tests. Feedback from formative assessment must be communicated to the student as soon as possible. Students react more positively to formative assessment if the results are analyzed by the instructor and the teaching style or class content is altered if need be. This is called the washback effect. Formative assessment is the ongoing process instructors and students use to gauge the success of the syllabus and to prepare for the second type of assessment, the summative.

**Summative assessment** contrasts with formative assessment first of all by its purpose. The purpose of summative assessment is to attribute value, and for that reason it is often more quantitative than the qualitative formative assessment. It also occurs at the midpoint and/or end of instruction so as to determine the extent to which syllabus objectives have been met. Achievement tests, final exams, oral or written, and research projects are examples of summative assessment. Grades or

marks from summative assessment often provide a basis for passing a student or for repeating a class.

**e. Process assessment**

A relatively new assessment technique that is more formative than summative. It works most efficiently with long – term projects and is particularly applicable to higher – level translation studies. An instructor sets process assessment in place by first setting benchmarks the student must attain.

**f. Portfolio assessment**

Is also a relatively new technique to aid students in tracking their progress. Not only do the students track their own level but also the instructor is able to judge the student's work in reference to past assignments. A portfolio is a file that students compile throughout the semester or course and in which they choose the work they have done and want to be marked for a final grade. Instructors can determine the minimum number of assignments per week, or each two weeks, to be included in the portfolio.

### **Test Items**

Translation instructors need not depend only on a text as a basic test item. In order to assess in a formative or summative manner, instructors have a wide range of item formats to choose from. The basic types of item format are objective and subjective. In a simple format objective test, the items may be supply, true – false or alternative response, or matching. Multiple – choice and interpretive items are more complex forms of objective tests. Essay tests and their derivatives form the basis of subjective exams.

#### **Supply or free – response items**

Unstructured short answer and fill in items are the main types of free response test questions. They are used primarily in informal testing. The great advantage to these items is their ease of preparation and correction.

#### **The Two – Alternative Items**

More commonly known as yes / no, true / false, such items measure how well students know facts and definitions, and if they can distinguish between fact and opinion.

#### **Multiple Choice Items**

Multiple choice items can be used to measure a variety of learning objectives such as vocabulary acquisition, analysis, application of principles, cause and effect association for the ability to interpret data. Actually, multiple – choice tests have more advantages than disadvantages. First, an instructor can build an item bank and alter particularly effective questions and use them more than once. Also, multiple – choice statements offer the instructor one means of being creative in the testing of translation skills.

If you want to experiment with constructing multiple – choice questions, the following guidelines are valuable:

1. The stem of the question should be meaningful in itself.
2. State the stem of the question in positive terms.
3. Write all alternate answers in parallel form.

### **Dictation and Dicto – comp**

Dictation is quite useful in a translation classroom to test the receptive skills of listening and recognition and use of terminology. After students have documented a text to be translated or read parallel texts, they can benefit from dictation taken from one or more of the texts. Students of interpreting skills benefit from dictations because the instructor can vary the speed of delivery, and can ask colleagues to deliver a dictation so students become accustomed to various accents.

As a means of creative dictation, you may use a small portion of the text students are to translate and dictate one section as you see it in the target language. Marking dictation is very straightforward. Inform students in advance of the criteria you are using. Beginning with 10 points or 20 if the text is longer, take off one mark for every error.

Language instructors have been using Dicto – comp as means as a means to test student ability to remember main ideas of a text in chronological or logical order and as a test of comprehension. Translation and interpreting instructors can use dicto – comp in both the L1 and the L2 of the student. It can be used after the students have prepared documentation for their translation but have not yet written the translation. The following is a simple methodology to try dicto – comp.

1. Read the text to the students several times. Students listen with pens down.
2. Then ask the students to write what they remember in a logical order staying as close to the original as possible. To correct the dicto – comp, provide students with the 5 , 10 , or 15 main ideas in the order of the original.

What is practical about this test is that translation students are initiated into the idea of translation units and can then move on to consecutive interpreting with greater ease. This type of test is particularly appropriate for instructors of consecutive interpreting.

### **Assessment and Grading / Marking**

When instructors mark exams they usually do so based on one of two traditional options available. Norm – referencing assessment judges one student's performance based on the rest of the students in their group. The group is the norm. Students will be informed if they fall in the top or bottom third of the class, for example. In competitive testing situations, a norm – referencing assessment is used; and the candidates are competing against each other.

Criteria – referenced assessment involves evaluating whether the student can perform a task or not; instructors are not concerned with the comparison among students. In translation classes, criteria – referenced tests are more frequent. Students are judged on how well they alone can perform a task. For example, can they complete a technical translation within a fixed time period? In theory, all of the students may be able to do so.

Ipsative referencing compares a student's present performance with a previous one. Generally considered effective in special needs education and performance coaching, it may be beneficial in translation classes as it enables students to judge how much they have progressed within a fixed period of time.

### **Instructor Assessment**

There have been many suggestions made as to how to mark a translation. Certainly the type of translation whether technical or literary plays a crucial role in the type of correction you choose. The corrector also plays an important role. Some emphasize

certain criteria above others. Students in a classroom must be informed of the criteria you are judging.

### **Self – Assessment**

Translation students are adults who have chosen to pursue a career in language services. The majority knows that competition is quite stiff and in order to succeed they must be superior to others. Asking students to assess their own progress is one way of initiating them to see their work objectively.

### **Peer Assessment**

Students are effective revisers and evaluators of each other's work. They are even more effective when they help decide on the criteria for the assignment undertaken. In fact peer assessment is an extremely useful learning experience.

### **Testing and Evaluation in an Academic Atmosphere**

Remember that testing the class is as much a reflection of teaching as it is of the students' knowledge. A test may evaluate the effectiveness of the instruction. Teaching should be in a way that prepares students to apply what they have learned in any situation, test or normal class work.

As in the case of many university courses presently, if you are teaching with a team of teachers in what is called a "multi – section" course and are called upon to write a common exam for your students as well as the other instructors' students, remember the following:

1. Contribute items that have not been covered on your own class quizzes, this is not a fair evaluation of your students in comparison to the others.
2. Consult with the other instructors in advance as to what is to be covered on the exam.
3. Set up a common grading scale as well as the common exam.
4. Meet and exchange papers to make sure grading is consistent. For example, ask that all your colleagues bring three papers for discussion: the highest, the average and the lowest grades. Exchange the papers and discuss objectively.
5. You may even experiment with exchanging entire class sets of papers for truly objective grading.

### **Case Studies of Tests for Translation Courses**

It is tempting to give a text and simply request that it be translated. If the objective in testing is to evaluate the overall ability of the student then this is an appropriate method. However, instructors may wish to test specific skills.

The hardest part of writing a test is deciding how much material can be tested within a certain time frame. When you carry out activities in class, gauge the amount of time your class needs to complete the work.

One way to test basic knowledge on a theme is to give students terminology in the source and their equivalences in the disorder. Students are then allowed 4 minutes, or more (or less) depending on the length of the list to find the correct match.

In order to test the student's ability to apply the terminology, you may give the students sentences that must be translated within a certain time limit.

For a higher – level course, provide two translations of the same text, or part of one, and ask students to evaluate the strengths and weaknesses of each.

Testing will probably never be the high point of a teaching experience, but we can try to make our tests as creative as possible so that students learn both from their time in our classes and our testing sessions.

### **C. Summary**

Shortly, there are seven ways to test a translation: 1) Comparison with the source language, 2) Back – translation into source language, 3) Comprehension tests, 4) Naturalness test, 5) Readability tests, 6) Consistency checks, 7) Using the testing result.

For testing and evaluation in the translation classroom, knowing the meaning of measurement, evaluation, reliability, and validity is of great importance. There exist different types of assessment that translation students will take during their time in university: a placement test, diagnostic tests, progress tests, and achievement tests. There are two further traditional types of tests: formative and summative.

In the section of test items, there are supply or free – response items, the two alternative items, multiple choice items, dictation and dicto – comp. Assessment and grading are based on norm – referenced assessment and criteria – referenced assessment. Norm – referenced assessment judges one student's performance based on the rest of the students in their group. It shows how the candidates are competing against each other. Criteria – referenced assessment involves evaluating whether the student can perform a test or not; so the instructors are not concerned with the comparison among students. Also the instructor assessment, self – assessment, and peer assessment are practical and useful in translation classroom. Moreover, testing and evaluation in an academic atmosphere, and case studies of tests for translation courses are two matters which should not be neglected in the translation classroom.

### **D. Exercise**

1. In your opinion, why a translation must be tested?
2. Mention some ways to test the translation?
3. Mention some ways to test and evaluate the translation classroom?
4. Mention some of the different types of assessment that the translation students will take during their time in university?

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## TERMINOLOGY TERMS

Analysis	: the first of three stages of translation. The set of procedures to get clearest understanding of the meaning, in preparation for the transfer.
Equivalence	: a very close similarity in meaning
Interpreting	: to interpret a message from a source text into target text.
Interpreter	: a person who interpret a message from a source text into target text orally.
Message	: the total meaning or content of a discourse ; the concepts and feelings which the author intends the reader to understand and receive.
Receptor	: a person receiving or intended to receive a message
Receptor language	: the language into which a message is translated from the original language.
Restructure	: to change the form of a discourse without changing the contents of the message; spesifically to transform the raw results of the transfer process into a stylistic form appropriate to the receptor language and to the intended receptors.
Source language	: the origin language, which to be translated
Target language	: SEE receptor language
Technique	: it is practical thing, technique is used toward specific task (in this case translating task). Based on the practical character of technique, technique related to translating practice and translating problem solving than with a certain translating procedure.
Text	: a specimen of linguistic material displaying structural and semantic coherence, unity, and completeness, and conveying a message.
Transfer	: the second stage of translation in which the message is actually reproduced in the receptor language.
Translation	: the result of translating
Translating	: to translate a source text into target text
Translator	: a person who translate
Translation Competence	: is perceived as an underlying knowledge or ability needed to carry out a translation task.
Translation strategy	: it is done by a translator as a way to solve problem which may appear in the translating process.
Translation technique	: it is a realization from translation strategy which is known from the translating product.
Translation method	: it is relate to whole texts,
Translation procedure	: it is used for sentences and the smaller units of language



