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Current Trends in Translation Teaching and Learning in 2014

This is the fifth volume of Current Trends in Translation Teaching and Learning, but the first totally electronic edition. Hence, the new name: Current Trends in Translation Teaching and Learning E. It was decided that producing a free online version is the best way to make the up-to-date articles focusing on translation education available to as many people as possible.

This volume has been in the making for the past year and puts forward articles that focus on many of the current themes in teaching and learning translation. It is hoped that it will reach as wide an audience as possible, so feel free to distribute it either using the link provided or as a pdf file.

The first article in this volume by María Brander de la Iglesia and Jan-Hendrik Opdenhoff from the University of Granada addresses teaching retour interpreting in interpreter education. Second language metaphor translation is dealt with in the interesting article by Dermot Heaney from Università degli Studi di Milano. Designing an undergraduate economic, financial and commercial translation courses is addressed by Kenneth Jordan-Núñez from San Jorge University.

Rudy Loock from Université Lille Nord de France and UMR 8163 du CNRS and Cindy Lefebvre-Scodeller from the Université de Limoges have written an interesting article on referring to the dead in French obituary translation. Anikó Makkos from University of West Hungary and Edina Robin from Eötvös Loránd University contributed an article on explicitation and implication in back-translation. This edition also includes Wang Shu-huai from Huazhong University of Science and Technology description of translation teaching in China, an area “Westerners” know little about.

After a double blind review process, selected papers were published in this volume. There is also a companion website located at <http://www.ctl.org>. I would like to express my heartfelt thanks to the following individuals: the writers for submitting their contributions to a blind review process, because without their courage and effort an edited collection like this would not be possible; the members of the editorial review board for their thoughtful and timely reviews.

I would also like to warmly thank Ville-Veikko Jylhämäki from the University of Helsinki for his editorial assistance. His dedication to this project and keen eye have contributed to the high quality of this volume.

I would also like to thank members of the independent specialized translation class who

helped proofread and edit this volume. They are:
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Jonna Latva-aho, Hanna Ruuhonen, Jenni
Salovaara, Hannamari Sivonen, Matias Tamminen,
Taru Tirkkonen, and Laura Tolvanen.

I hope the readers will find reading *Current Trends
in Translation Teaching and Learning* both
interesting and rewarding.

Mikel Garant
November 27, 2014

RETOUR INTERPRETING REVISITED: TUNING COMPETENCES IN INTERPRETER EDUCATION

María Brander de la Iglesia
Jan-Hendrik Opdenhoff

Members of GRETI - Interpreting and the
Challenges of Globalisation
University of Granada

Abstract

For the past two decades interpreter trainers have been wondering not whether retour interpreting should be taught, but *how* it can be taught (Harris, 1990, 1992; Snelling, 1992). The European Higher Education Area (EHEA) offers new opportunities for the proliferation of networks and exchanges of didactic materials or methodologies for the teaching of interpreting into B. First, we critically appraise the traditional dichotomy between models based on constructivism and liberalism in interpreter training. We then present those competences inherent to retour interpreting and describe the joint edition of a DVD featuring didactic materials and speeches in its initial phases. We finally discuss our experience in the use and evaluation of the teaching materials for the learning and teaching of simultaneous interpreting into B from Spanish into English and into German with the aim of fostering those skills.

1. INTRODUCTION

In addition to his ground-breaking notion of 'natural translation' in 1976, one of the first scholars who dared to break the long-held taboo of bi-directionality in the interpreting classroom was Brian Harris (1990, p. 116; 1992). He did so, among other contributions, by describing a two-year postgraduate interpreting course in the University of Ottawa, where the convenience of teaching retour interpreting from and into French and English could hardly be questioned in the professional Canadian market, where it is frequent for speakers to change from one language to another even within the same speech. After Harris, other authors such as Gile (1995, 2005) or Bartłomiejczyk (2006) followed, and many academics, inspired by the literature on the subject, are now eager to prove such theories in their research. When asked about their position regarding the teaching of interpreting into B, interpreters nowadays seem to have accepted the legitimacy of retour interpreting. Out of 2,129 interpreters in 94 countries who participated in an international survey (Opdenhoff, 2011), only 1.7% indicated that retour interpreting should not be offered at all at universities, whereas 26.7% thought that it should be offered in some language combinations, and 36.1% thought that it should be offered in all language combinations. Some

interpreters even agreed that it should be compulsory for students in all (21.9%) or some (13.7%) language combinations. The data has also shown that 81.2% of professionals believe the practice of interpreting into B is totally legitimate, whereas 18% said the practice of interpreting into B is a necessary evil which should be avoided whenever possible, and only 0.8% still believe that the practice of interpreting into B is unacceptable and should be avoided at all costs.

These data undoubtedly call for a reappraisal of the status quo concerning return interpreter training in many countries across the European Higher Education Area (EHEA), or even worldwide. We will first focus on the State of the Art of interpreter education into B, before exploring the traditional dichotomy between constructivist didactic models and those based on liberalism, comparable to the historical overview of return interpreting. We then discuss the transversal and specific competences in return training – from Spanish into English and from Spanish into German – and present the joint edition of a DVD featuring didactic materials and speeches for the learning and teaching of consecutive and simultaneous interpreting into B in its initial phases. Finally, we discuss our experience in the use and evaluation of the teaching materials with the aim of fostering the mentioned skills.

2. INTERPRETING INTO B: HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE AND CURRENT TRENDS

For many years since the start of modern conference interpreting after WWII, theory and practice in return interpreting formed a whole. The issue of directionality was not subject to change until the 1980s, probably due to the fact that pioneers at attempting to explain the functioning of interpreting were interpreters who had successfully earned their living as such and who, during the 50s and 60s, were the founding fathers of interpreting schools in several European universities. Many had not received formal training in interpreting, let alone education in research, and lacked the background knowledge to develop theoretical models or an analytical methodology. Their explanations of the interpreting activity were usually based on their personal experience. In this way, personal professional activity became the foundation for the first interpreting theories which prevailed and went unquestioned for several decades, in spite of their lack of scientific thoroughness (Kalina, 1998, p. 32).

Among these theories, the question of whether one should interpret into his or her A or B language was championed by followers of two opposite models which separated theorists and professionals from Western capitalist countries and those from Eastern countries in the Soviet block. While Western

theorists supported interpreting into A as the only practical direction – at least in simultaneous interpreting – those from Eastern countries argued the reverse. The former, headed by the Paris School, based their arguments on what was known as the *théorie du sens*, giving much importance to a particular conception of quality in the target language:

When listening to actual interpretation, however, the superiority of an “A” language over a “B” is obvious. Few interpreters working into and from widely used languages have a good enough working knowledge of their B languages to be able to perform equally well into both their “B” and “A” languages. When they work both ways, it is easy to note not only that the “B” language is poorer but that it is subservient to the “A” source language and that the efforts made to find corresponding expressions in “B” distracts the mind from constructing sense. (Seleskovitch, 1999, p. 62)

Eastern theorists, on the other hand, focused their interest on comprehension in interpreting:

To transform a message into the target language and deliver it he [the interpreter] has to understand it in the

source language, otherwise there will be nothing to interpret and deliver. The losses at input cannot be repaired. This can hardly be denied. So understanding the message in the source language or comprehension is the most crucial stage in the Bermuda triangle of the simultaneous interpretation process. [...] A full or near full message gotten across even if in a somewhat stiff, less idiomatic or slightly accented language serves the purpose much better than an elegantly-worded and an impeccably pronounced half-message or less. (Denissenko, 1989, p. 157)

Both models constituted the theorization of two different professional, political, social and economic realities. The Western interpreting market was dominated by certain, more common languages, and interpreters had it easier than their Eastern colleagues to travel and to live in other countries in order to improve the knowledge of their B language. Employers had the necessary economic resources at their disposal to organize conferences with various one-way booths, and interpreters in the capitalist market “sold” their services as a high-quality product to their clients. The situation in Eastern countries was completely different; the ideological component was so strong that it was believed only “national” interpreters

could transmit faithfully their positions and messages.

The situation developed following changes in the world of international politics (i.e. the enlargement of the EU and the fall of communist regimes) and the subsequent increase of local freelance markets, not to mention the increasing importance of English as a *lingua franca* (see for example Martin, 2005, p. 88). In smaller countries where different, less popular languages were spoken and in universities where interpreting into B was already part of the academic curriculum, people began to question the reasoning behind predominant directionality paradigms. Snelling (1992) argued it made no sense to debate whether interpreting into B should be taught or not, but that the discussion should be focussed rather on *how* it should be taught, since it was already a reality in the interpreting market. Harris (1990, p. 117) also mentions a number of communicative contexts in which the B to A norm is not practical. From then on, interpreting into B, and directionality in general, became a fertile research line, inspiring two themed conferences, one in 1997 in Ljubljana (Grosman, 2000) and one in Granada (Kelly et al., 2003). This research led to a considerable number of papers which differed from the preceding publications in that they left behind the historical dichotomy in favor of a more empirical approach to describe contexts of varying directionality, including aspects of teaching interpretation into B.

3. THE TEACHING OF RETOUR INTERPRETING IN THE FRAMEWORK OF THE EUROPEAN HIGHER EDUCATION AREA (EHEA)

The creation of the EHEA has brought new challenges to translation and interpreting schools and to all European educational institutions where different teaching models have traditionally coexisted. Translators and interpreters, as many other professionals who work in the context of a specific market (be it local or international) must learn to provide solutions for the needs of their clients, and professional trainers in the field are aware of these issues. Yet translator and interpreter trainers worldwide are now familiar with teaching practices and didactic models such as those inherited from language-learning acquisition models, and are of late trained to become trainers themselves. Many universities include subjects such as Didactics or Training Translators and Interpreters in their postgraduate programmes. One such model is the constructivist approach to translator education, defended by Don Kiraly (2000), among others.

The model based on ‘competences’ (and ‘skills’, as we will explain further on) offered by the EHEA allows for at least two fundamental interpretations of the vision conveyed, clashing in certain areas and full of internal contradictions: the first mostly based upon the principles of liberalism, the second

defending the construction of knowledge as the key process in learning. In the case of interpreter education, the former takes into account the needs of the free market, international exchange and globalisation; the latter also looks for participation and dialogue in training as key components of learning, using a constructivist approach. The implications of the adoption of models based on liberalism in interpreter training have been widely explained by authors such as Stévaux (2003). In the specific case of conference interpreting into the student's B language, professional associations of interpreters have at times safeguarded members' market interests above scientific and pedagogical considerations. New paradigms, however, have flourished as of late in Interpreting Studies, fostered by the development of (bilateral) public service interpreter training in certain countries, and the insistence of scholars worldwide on the need to include a more egalitarian model based on social justice and academic proof of cognitive skill acquisition. Among these paradigms, the study of Applied Ethics could also contribute to a change of viewpoint in return interpreting (see for example Brander de la Iglesia, 2012a, 2012b).

From Kiraly's (2000) constructivist perspective, partly based on Piaget's theory of cognitive development (Piaget, 1955), individuals accommodate and assimilate knowledge from their experience of the external world in order to construct frameworks to bear new knowledge. By

incorporating new experiences to a mental representation of their life experiences, they reframe existing structures when an experience or knowledge is not viable with respect to their needs, or in order to represent reality as they see it. This lack of viability, once recognised as such, leads to learning. Constructivism is not a specific pedagogy. In translator and interpreter education, this theory may help us describe how learning happens by describing a learning model for a given subject matter or practice. Translators and interpreters construct their knowledge for the most part out of their experiences in translation and interpreting, be they in the interpreting lab, in the classroom or in a real-life context, hence the importance of bringing real-life pedagogical materials and tasks into the interpreting lab, as well as during internships which help students develop translation competence (on the competence norm in translation, see for example Rothe-Neves, 2007).

It is perhaps useful here to distinguish between the concepts of competence, skill, and aptitude. Competence is a term used especially in human resources management – reminding us again of the liberal model – to describe a combination of the latter two, together with knowledge or understanding, and behaviour or attitude. Professional competence in an interpreting student, for example, could be defined as the standardized requirement for him or her to interpret successfully, first according to the lecturer's given expectations,

then to the clients' or audiences'. That is, that (s)he has the ability to adequately carry out an interpreting assignment (including non-skill-related aspects such as using the booth, and attitude-related requirements such as dealing with the clients). The skills, aptitudes, knowledge and attitudes needed to be an adequate interpreter – very much linked to the concept of user expectations of quality in interpreting defined by Collados Aís (2000) – are all part of what we can call professional competence. We should bear in mind, as well, that different modalities and/or techniques of interpreting require on some occasions different skills, a skill being defined as "the ability to use one's knowledge effectively and readily in execution or performance", and "a learned power of doing something competently: a developed aptitude or ability" (Merriam-Webster, 2014). A skill can therefore be learned or encouraged. An aptitude, on the other hand, is a natural ability or talent that can also be mitigated. It would be interesting, for example, to study Harris' unpublished *Taxonomy of Interpreting* according to the skills to be developed for each modality (Pöchhacker, 2011).

Hence, the didactic model introduced by the Bologna Process is a methodology based on competences, as described by each White Book for the different undergraduate degrees offered in European countries, using comparable definitions of learning results, competences, abilities, skills and dexterity. It constitutes a framework of

reference to help fine-tune teaching and learning structures throughout Europe, and competences encompass not only the knowledge, skills and abilities learned in a given subject, but also the values needed to perform adequately as a professional and a citizen. For an account on how it can be possible to measure the acquisition of ethical awareness in the classroom by means of a case study featuring the questionable use of retour interpreting, among other ethical issues, see Brander de la Iglesia (2012a).

Competences can be further divided into two practical classifications: the specific competences to be learned for each area of knowledge (in our case: translation and interpreting) and transversal competences that can be found in other programmes, such as Languages, Law, Librarianship, or even Engineering (including critical awareness of ethical dilemmas – see Brander and García, 2014). Within those specific competences inherent to our field of study, we can in turn find some which are shared by both translation and interpreting (Moro Cabero and Torres del Rey, 2008), and others shared by all interpreting subjects (for a detailed list, see Brander de la Iglesia, 2008), regardless of directionality, modality, or language combination. On this occasion, we will focus on those competences intrinsic to interpreting into B language according to our experience as interpreter trainers into second language(s).

General or transversal competences in the process underlying the learning and teaching of interpreting into B include: 1) cognitive abilities, such as understanding, analysing and synthesizing; 2) methodological abilities, such as having acquired basic knowledge of the profession; 3) technological dexterity, including information management skills allowing the student to analyse and search for information coming from different sources; 4) linguistic skills, such as excellence in aural communication in their B language or knowledge of their own culture and the target language's culture; 5) interpersonal skills, such as the capacity to be self-critical, understanding of one's own feelings and the dexterity to manage them in times of stress, or the capacity to work in an international context; and 6) systemic competences, which will help the student gain a global perspective in order to manage his or her performance adequately, including the ability to put theoretical knowledge into practice, applying knowledge about foreign traditions or being motivated by challenges. Among other more specific competences in the learning and teaching of interpreting, one could mention specialised knowledge in one or more subject matters (e.g. medical terminology), competences needed in particular modalities (liaison interpreting, conference interpreting, public service interpreting etc.) and, of particular interest to us, competences in the learning and teaching of interpreting into B for a specific language combination. Along the lines of Padilla's cognitive

approach, if we dissect the process and take the efforts one by one:

Comprehension during simultaneous interpretation is a very complex task that can make the interpreter sensitive to small specific differences in each language, which may have no relevance in monolingual situations. These differences may include [...] sociolinguistic aspects of language [...] syntactic structures [...] grammatical redundancy [...] and differences in the perception of words. (Padilla Benítez, 2005, p. 50)

Linked to constructivism in translator and interpreter training, and paramount to any specialised interpreting student, is the capacity to reflect upon his or her own performance in a given task (Kiraly, 2000, p. 32). In addition, we will mention two threadbare yet essential competences of unequivocal interest to the learning and teaching of interpreting in the language combinations object of the present contribution, namely analysing and synthesizing skills, as well as linguistic proficiency in oral English or German as second languages. All these basic skills can be undoubtedly learned, preferably in a separate manner, before being put together when acquiring interpreting competence by means of skill-specific exercises and interpreting of speeches. This requires using state-

of-the-art audiovisual teaching materials taken from real-life contexts and distinguished in order of difficulty.

4. TWO TEACHING AND LEARNING INNOVATION PROJECTS IN INTERPRETING

Even at early stages in the learning process of interpreting and regardless of the directionality, the use of digitised speeches recorded in professional situations and ordered in various levels of difficulty helps to foster not only many of the competences mentioned in this paper, but also most of the transversal competences that have not been explored. The availability of audiovisual materials organised in order of difficulty can encourage students to work autonomously and empower them to become responsible professionals in charge of improving and controlling the quality of the performance they offer their future clients, and of improving and controlling their contribution to society in general. In the context of the EHEA, where lecturing is divided into practical tutoring and self-study hours, the general availability of real-life speeches with their transcriptions, be they from the Internet, the speech repository of the SCIC, or from other sources, has become an empowering tool both for students and lecturers. Among other fundamental advantages of the two Teaching and Learning Innovation projects in interpreting which we will describe below, is the

possibility to include various speeches from the same communicative context or *hypertext* (Pöchhacker, 1994, p. 47), thus closing the gap between professional practice and the interpreting lab, while motivating students to become familiar with specialised terminology and knowledge in a given subject matter.

The materials created by a group of lecturers in the research group GRETI (Interpreting and the Challenges of Globalisation) and, specifically, in two innovative teaching and learning projects, are relevant within the framework of the EHEA, as these materials include a transcript of every speech to allow for the grading of the level of difficulty of each speech (speed of the speaker, density of information and syntax). The presence of transcriptions improves the didactic potential of teaching materials for interpreting, as they constitute a fundamental tool for correction, as well as offering the possibility to highlight specialised terms and add footnotes explaining certain concepts. Audiovisual material is used in interpreter training to fulfil the three following objectives: 1) the use of original material is the most efficient way to approximate interpreter training to the professional interpreting reality; 2) the use of videos contributes to improve the dynamics in the classroom: the study of the recordings by the teacher allows him or her to classify the material according to its usefulness with regard to the different interpreting modalities

(bilateral, consecutive, simultaneous) and the different learning phases (beginner, intermediate, advanced). Also, the teacher can concentrate better on the student's performance since (s)he is not engaged in reading the speech; and 3) it facilitates self-study for students outside the classroom, to which the EHEA attaches great importance. This is particularly relevant in interpreting training where, due to the nature of the activity and the need to have a speaker at hand, self-study is more complicated than in other areas (including translation), since the number of teaching hours is hardly sufficient in many training institutions.

The first project entitled "Creation of Didactic Multimedia Materials for the Teaching of Interpreting" was carried out between 2002 and 2004, with the aim of developing real-life teaching materials from professional contexts in English, Spanish and French (De Manuel, 2007). One DVD with speeches and transcriptions made by students and lecturers was compiled for each of the three languages mentioned and a database was created at the University of Granada to store descriptions of the materials. At first, the database consisted of VHS recordings of the Europe by Satellite TV channel, which meant there were minor quality problems as the tapes deteriorated. Afterwards, other contexts were included and multilingual events at the University of Granada, as well as Social Forums, were recorded and digitised. Once the material was transcribed, it was included in the

database, where the information is ordered according to various fields, among which are language, accent, subject matter, length, speed, parallel texts, links, contextual autonomy from other speeches in the same communicative event, grade of obsolescence, recommended modalities, level of specialisation and learning phase (e.g. advanced consecutive or beginner's simultaneous). The second phase of the project, entitled "Virtualisation of Multimedia Didactic Materials from Real-life Professional Contexts for Interpreter Training (2005-2007)", was designed with the purpose of increasing threefold the teaching materials available for each language. Finally, the materials were and continue to be evaluated in various universities by means of a questionnaire also created within the same research group, as well as action research discussion groups, thus encouraging the students to reflect upon the interpreting task and the role of the interpreter in a specific communicative context, while helping the lecturer rank the materials according to their difficulty.

5. RETOUR SIMULTANEOUS INTERPRETING FROM SPANISH

Our participation in the transcription and the subsequent creation of teaching materials in the form of real-life speeches resulted in the edition of three DVDs in our specific language combinations:

- 1) "Beginner's simultaneous interpreting from

Spanish" (Opdenhoff & Brander de la Iglesia, 2009); 2) "Consecutive Interpreting from Spanish" (Opdenhoff, 2009); and 3) "Consecutive interpreting from English" (Padilla Benítez & Brander de la Iglesia, 2009). In this section, we will develop our teaching experiences at the University of Heriot-Watt, the University of Salamanca and the University of Granada, specifically with respect to the use of the DVD we transcribed and edited jointly for the teaching of retour simultaneous interpreting from Spanish.

5.1 Retour simultaneous interpreting into English: a case study

Unlike the case of language combinations for which the traditional attitude has been to interpret both ways (as for the English-Russian pair), simultaneous interpreting from English into Spanish, and vice versa, has followed the usual pattern of the first languages to be incorporated into institutional settings for the purpose of being translated or interpreted. English was one of the founding languages of the UN (1945) and a working language from the start of the EFTA; the UK was first part of the "outer seven", and then of the European Community by 1973. Spain entered the EU in 1986 and Spanish has also been a working language in the UN from the start, together with French, Mandarin and Russian. Thus, in the institutional work market, interpreting into B from Spanish into English or English into Spanish

was not, and is still not, customary official practice. In addition, interpreters themselves insisted that clients, be they within institutions or in the private market, obey the directionality norm in order to work in the best possible conditions, despite the fact that pioneer simultaneous interpreters had, at first, worked into a variety of non-native languages (Baigorri, 2000; Stévaux, 2003). As a consequence, whereas two-way liaison interpreting was usually included in the curricula of Spanish and British universities, interpreter training into B for the English/Spanish language combination in simultaneous interpreting was nonexistent for years. This has changed as of late due to local market requirements, including public service interpreting, as well as the influence of empirical research results on the rule of directionality (Stévaux, 2003, p. 334).

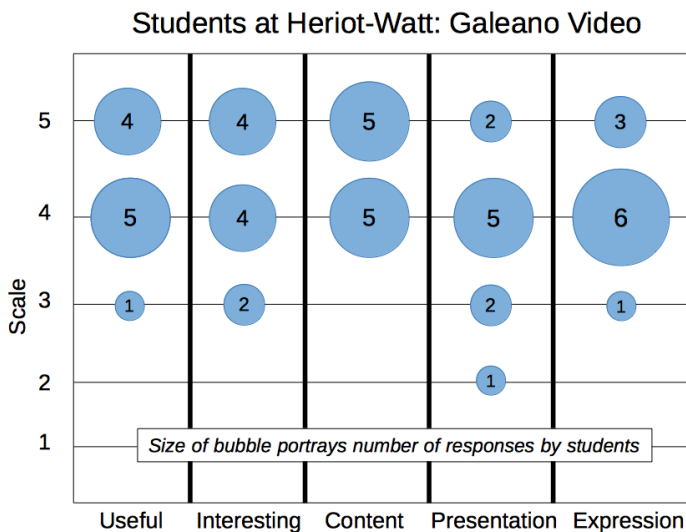
Among other areas of research in the field of interpreting studies, members of GRETI have undertaken the evaluation of the abovementioned teaching materials by means of questionnaires conceived for this specific purpose. Following an initial study from French into Spanish at the University of Granada (De Manuel, 2006), these questionnaires have been used in the University of Heriot-Watt (Edinburgh) and the University of Salamanca, in different classes of simultaneous interpreting from English into Spanish or Spanish into English. The study includes results from two groups of students from Heriot-Watt interpreting

from English into B-language Spanish (and vice versa), as well as three groups in Salamanca interpreting into B-language English (and from English into their mother tongue). The students were all in their fourth year of undergraduate studies, except for one of the groups in Edinburgh, composed of MSc students, who were therefore doing the equivalent of a fifth year. Those in Edinburgh were mostly native speakers of English (except for one Spanish student), and the students in Salamanca were all native speakers of Spanish. Due to time constraints in the training programmes the students interpreted and evaluated most of the videos, but not all. At the end of every academic year the students were also monitored and participated in discussion groups and interviews with open questions (Waters-Adams, 2006).

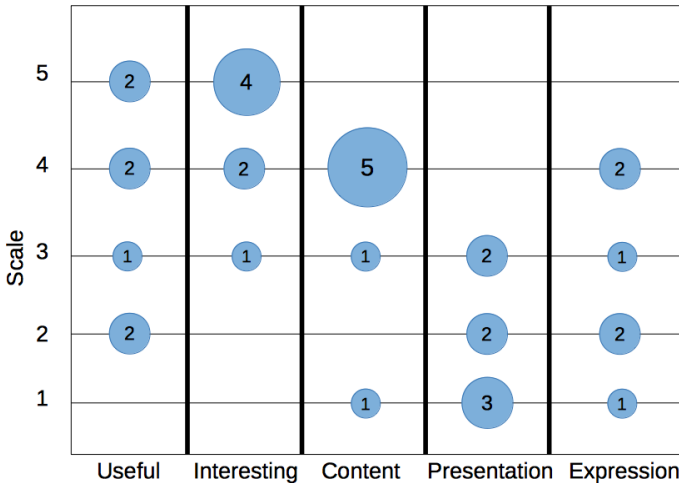
For this specific case study, only the results of the questionnaires for a given video have been used. The video of Eduardo Galeano's speech in the 2003 World Social Forum was selected because the students rated it as one of the most interesting, but also one of the most challenging, as the degree of formality in Galeano's speeches is usually very high, in spite of the fact that on this occasion he talks about a general subject that the students had treated previously. The main objective of this case study is to understand and improve teaching and learning practices in the training of return simultaneous interpreting from Spanish into English by means of the use and evaluation of

teaching materials taken from real-life situations. After interpreting a video and before communicating with each other or receiving feedback from the teacher, each student filled in a questionnaire, rating the exercise they had just accomplished from 1 to 5 according to the following variables: usefulness, interest, difficulty of content, presentation and expression.

The following charts represent the results obtained from the questionnaires filled in by two groups of students after having interpreted the same video into English:



Students at USAL: Galeano Video



We will now compare the evaluations of the same video interpreted by two groups of students, native and non-native. The first chart suggests that the ten Heriot-Watt students participating in the experience mostly found the video very interesting and useful, but also very difficult to interpret into their own mother tongue. Among the reasons quoted for this are the fact that Galeano's Uruguayan accent posed a problem to the students, as they were not used to listening to different accents in their regular interpreting classes. The students found the speech motivating because it differed from the usual themes used in interpreting classes. Galeano's flowery prose was the subject of much discussion in the answers, and the fact that students were not aware of Daniel Gile's contributions to the issue of interpreting elegant speeches in retour (Gile, 2005, p. 17) may also be of didactic interest. There are no

significant differences between the answers of the only Spanish student in the class, who had been in Edinburgh for many months, and the native speakers of English, even when they found it "hard to follow" as it was one of the first real-life videos they interpreted.

The second chart shows that the seven Spanish students who interpreted the video into B-language English had varying experiences with the video they interpreted. Broadly speaking, we could say that students' reactions to the video in return are unequal when compared to the less disparate results obtained from the ten students of Heriot-Watt University interpreting the video into their own mother tongue. Examining the open explanations given by USAL students, it could be argued as well that the main reason for the inequalities was that the students in Salamanca had very little experience interpreting from real-life videos at the time: for example, when reflecting upon the usefulness of the video, the two students who did not think the video to be useful graded it a 2 out of 5, arguing that "while learning return might be useful for the interpreting market, it is not useful for this subject, which is into A", and that "what would be useful would be to introduce a specific subject for return in the programme". It would perhaps be interesting to compare these charts with those created from questionnaires of videos interpreted a) in return from English into Spanish in both universities and b) in later academic years, now that interpreting

into B has become part of the curriculum in Salamanca. Further research might suggest that the context and previous misconceptions about the difficulty of retour affects motivation, along the lines of research undertaken by Von Glasersfeld (1989).

The aim of this case study was not to prove or disprove the virtues of retour interpreting, but to improve the teaching and learning process in the courses taught, to go a step further when exploring *how* retour interpreting could be taught. Extrapolation from results from one case study concerning two different groups of 10 and 7 students, although their B-language level was similar, is unadvisable. Yet together with additional results, it may give us an idea of what worked in those specific classes, and the problems encountered by the students in the open answers they gave. Although the results are not statistically significant, they are of pedagogical value and indeed served their purpose of improving the trainer's practice as well as the learning and teaching process by opening up a means of anonymous communication between the actors of said process and by helping with the general objective of putting the videos into order of perceived difficulty.

5.2 Retour simultaneous interpreting into German: teaching experiences

Unlike English and Spanish, which both enjoy the status of working languages in several international organizations, the role of German as a vehicle for international communication is rather insignificant. If one considers that only 11.2% of the enormous Spanish-speaking community (estimated population 352 million worldwide) live in Europe, but that 96% of the clearly smaller German-speaking community (101 million speakers worldwide) are from this continent (Haarmann, 2002, p. 33), it is not surprising that the importance of the German language in institutional settings is limited to European organizations. As of late, Spanish and German have come in contact with the integration of Spain in these organisations and institutions. This is the case of the OSCE since the entry of Spain in 1973, as well as in the Council of Europe (where neither Spanish nor German are official languages, but where both are used as working languages in the Parliamentary Assembly since the entry of Germany in 1950 and Spain in 1977). It is also the case in the different institutions of the European Union since Spain became a member in 1986. Moreover, the Spanish/German language combination has achieved a certain relevance in the local interpreting markets in Spain and in German-speaking countries, in particular after the opening of Spain with its transition to democracy. In spite of the comparatively European

institutional structures and the fact that in the abovementioned institutions interpreting into B has never been an accepted practice, the Spanish/German combination (including interpreting into Spanish B) constitutes an inherent part of university interpreting training in Germany since this type of training was first taught. Thus, the University of Heidelberg, which was the first to have a programme in Translation and Interpreting Studies, has offered courses into Spanish B since it first opened. The first two Spanish universities to offer Translation and Interpretation Studies, the Universidad Autónoma of Barcelona and the University of Granada, also included German in their curriculum from the first year on, in 1973 and 1974 respectively, and later added retour interpreting. From today's perspective, this approach has been vindicated, since it might be very difficult to succeed in the local private market without a strong B language, both in German-speaking countries and in Spain.

In this section we seek to report our observations and personal experiences in teaching conference interpreting from Spanish into German at the University of Granada (see Opdenhoff 2012 and 2013 for specific studies on directionality and working memory in interpreting students, as well as on quality in retour interpreting from the perspective of the professionals). Beforehand we would like to stress the fact that on the basis of this experience, we generally support the perception

that specific language directions affect the cognitive processes, the demands on memory and attention resources and, thus, the training in conference interpreting (Padilla Benítez, 2005, p. 48). Therefore we assume that the Spanish/German combination (into B and into A) as well has its specific implications for performance and training. To illustrate this, we wish to point out three specific characteristics of the Spanish-German combination which can affect comprehension, as well as production processes involved in simultaneous interpreting.

As stated earlier, traditional approaches in interpreting training are somewhat lacking realism, since the speeches, which usually are oral manifestations of written texts, don't necessarily have the same characteristics as spontaneous oral language. In the case of Spanish, spontaneous oral speeches (especially those using non-specialised language) frequently differ greatly from the written language norm. This might lead to difficulties in interpreting from Spanish into German (but also into other Germanic target languages) where the differences between written and oral language norms are not so pronounced. Typical features of spontaneous Spanish speeches might not constitute a problem if the message is received in a monolingual communicative situation, or in a consecutive setting where the listener (or the interpreter) does not have to render the message in another language at the same time. Yet these can

create great difficulties in simultaneous interpreting settings where a high degree of redundancy can be encountered. In addition, many Spanish speakers present their message in a way that requires more time than German speakers to “get to the point” and usually have a high degree of emotional perception of reality – as opposed to the descriptive perception in Germanic languages (Padilla Benítez, 2005, p. 55). In this context, working with the abovementioned materials is highly advantageous, since it allows practice with realistic material consisting of spontaneous oral speeches and it offers the possibility to acquire, on the basis of participation and dialogue, a very important strategy for this concrete language combination and others: This strategy is the establishment of a certain distance regarding the original speech, which has to be grasped on a macro-level and – if necessary – the rendering of neutral or meaningless statements until the speaker comes to the point. According to our teaching experience in a mixed classroom with students from both Spanish-speaking and German-speaking countries, these kinds of speeches are not only difficult for the latter but also for the former. This suggests that the problem is not only due to a certain sociolinguistic or cultural gap between the two languages, but that the way to express information in the source language (Spanish) can simply lead to a time management problem in interpreting, irrespective of the language direction.

The second characteristic is related to morphosyntactic differences between Spanish and German. Due to their structural dissimilarity, interpreting between these languages normally requires a greater time lag. The position of the verb plays an important role in this sense, especially the fact that in German one part of the verb (or the whole verb in subordinate clauses) can be put at the end of the sentence. This fact is normally mentioned when speaking about interpreting from German into Spanish (or other Romance languages), which needs the verb in the second position. But it is also a challenge when interpreting into German, since the interpreter has to store the verb until the end of the sentence, and this can constitute a considerable memory effort, especially when the sentence preceding the verb is very long. Generally, German is a more rigid language regarding its morphosyntactic structures. This implies that one of the important strategies in simultaneous interpreting – the election of open structures in the message-rendering phase – can be more difficult in German than Spanish. Special exercises could be carried out to practice this strategy. Finally, we should mention differences between Spanish and German on the lexical-semantic level, which are clearly greater than those between Spanish and English. This could imply a larger processing load (especially an increased memory and attention effort).

6. CONCLUDING REMARKS

Among the most important pedagogical conclusions derived from the use of the materials in the teaching of retour interpreting is the fact that the videos of the DVD we edited can, and probably should, be used as well – but not only – for pre-interpreting exercises such as clozing, in all phases of the learning process (e.g. comprehension exercises can be created with real-life speeches whenever the students in question have not had access to such training in previous years). To give but one example, students could be asked to produce a summarised simultaneous rendition after having watched and worked on the vocabulary and structures earlier. If specific skills can be activated by means of different pre-interpreting exercises (Padilla Benítez, 2005, p. 59), interpreting competence should perhaps receive a similar treatment. In this respect, future research could explore teaching models that include specific pre-interpreting exercises to develop not only certain skills, but competences and subcompetences, along the lines of research undertaken in translation studies from a constructivist perspective. The not-so-universally-acknowledged truth that a speech written and oralised by a student or trainer is unequal in too many ways to a speech written and oralised by a real-life speaker could be the object of an entire critical article in itself, as would the question of whether directionality and difficulty are related, if such theory can indeed be proven

empirically, since difficulty is a subjective variable, whereas cognitive overload is "possibly the most important factor determining directionality differences in performance" (Gile, 2005, p. 12).

The use of different paradigms and the inclusion of diverse approaches and methodologies in interpreting studies enriches our field of study and contributes towards the end of an era where personal experience, interests or myths about interpreting prevailed. Working with researchers from different schools of thought is desirable in the continuous education of an interpreting lecturer; critical perspectives can inspire corroboration by empirical data, and vice versa. One of the disadvantages of the use of audiovisual materials taken from real-life professional situations is that one cannot use the same materials for more than a few years before they become obsolete, and although YouTube and the SCIC speech repository have done much for interpreting lecturers, depending on the language combination and target markets of their trainees, it would be desirable to start shaping networks between universities in an all-inclusive fashion and on a horizontal basis. For this, it would be necessary for public institutions, be they schools or other entities, to create open materials in the spirit of free software (Himanen, 2001, p. 73) that everyone can both benefit from and contribute to as best they can (Brander, 2010).

In this article, based on a joint conference given at the International Symposium on Interpreting Studies in Honour of Brian Harris (Universitat Jaume I, Castelló), we have tried to portray a global perspective of the state of the art in return interpreting training in the frame of reference provided by the EHEA. The new challenges posed by liberal interpretations of the Bologna Process do not necessarily have to clash with the idea of action and empowerment of the student. In spite of the fact that for more than half a century the opinions and commercial interests of a few professionals prevailed, the market itself now calls for the teaching of return interpreting, and applying a constructivist approach in interpreter education into B seemed to us a step forward. By presenting the DVD we jointly edited, together with our experience in the use and evaluation of the teaching materials, we hope to have explored the key elements for this positive evolution.

Harris (1990, p. 116) once said that when a norm ceases to be practical in some cases and under certain circumstances, it ceases to be a norm. We hope to have conveyed a vision of teaching return interpreting as the training of high-quality professionals, compatible with values in the education of interpreters as citizens. Such practical endeavour will be paramount to the improvement of society, not as an exception, but as the revisited norm.

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HYPOTHESISING A SYSTEMATIC APPROACH TO L2 TRANSLATION OF CONVENTIONAL METAPHOR IN SPECIALIZED DISCOURSES

Dermot Heaney

Università degli Studi di Milano

Abstract

The premise of this paper is the pervasiveness of conventional metaphors in the kinds of specialized texts used for training translators to work in their L2. The focus is on this directionality precisely because the difficulty of conventional metaphor identification in the mother tongue is frequently underestimated, despite evidence that it regularly underlies marked lexico-grammatical choices that skew translations. The first part of the study refers to three corpora of different specialized discourses and considers the pedagogic potential of tracing conventional metaphor across discourses. The paper then provides an account of an experimental attempt to use source domains to map conventional linguistic metaphors in three comparable corpora and considers how classifying metaphors in this way can be used to define: a) interlingual convergence and divergence patterns; b) possible translation strategies linked to these patterns; and c) the level of L2 translators' conventional metaphor sensitivity.

1. L2 TRANSLATION OF CONVENTIONAL METAPHOR

In this article I consider the translation of conventional metaphor (Kövecses, 2002, pp. 29-31) in the Italian–English pairing from the point of view of advanced L2 translation teaching in vocational courses. L2 translation is included in most first- and second-level degree translation courses (Campbell, 1998), and there are clear signs that this directionality is steadily emerging as a professional reality, be it in institutional, corporate, or freelance contexts (Limon, 2008; Pokorn 2009). It needs to be stated from the outset that the following hypothesis is proposed within a context in which the default aim is to produce L2 translations of specialized discourses that are as close as possible to meeting what Schopp (2006: p. 175) refers to as the “expectations and conventions that are prevalent for texts in that genre that are prevalent in the target culture”. This is only one of various possible approaches to translation pedagogy, but it is one that is reasonable to adopt in courses with a strong vocational bias.

It is quite possible that the emergence of L2 translators in various professional contexts is due to the way digital technology has empowered trainee language professionals. Yet, though impressive gains have been made, there are certain aspects of pragmatics and semantics that, despite their apparently non-problematic nature, or perhaps

precisely because of it, continue to pose problems, even for advanced trainee translators.

My experience as an L2 translator trainer indicates that conventional metaphor is one such problematic aspect (Heaney, 2012, pp. 36-40). One possible explanation for this is that, taken individually, conventional metaphors are regarded as a low-level problem, the cause of slight, circumscribed errors in sense relations, or in collocation inaccuracies, that can be effectively addressed by relying on mother tongue instructors' tendency to "resort more often to their intuition and their authority as competent native speakers in providing appropriate translation solutions" (Pokorn, 2009, p. 204). However, if we understand conventional metaphors as "linguistic expressions motivated by enduring conceptual metaphors" (Steen and Gibbs, 1999, p. 2), and if we accept the pervasiveness and systematic occurrence of conceptual metaphor in all forms of discourse (Lakoff and Johnson 2003, p. 3), it is reasonable to expect conventional linguistic metaphors to be equally extensive and systematic. Therefore, the question addressed here is whether a more systematic domain-based approach to the translation of conventional linguistic metaphor in Italian source texts (ST) can increase the effectiveness of English language L2 translations.

2. WHAT FORM OF CONVENTIONAL METAPHOR?

Conventional metaphor can be defined as metaphor that is “well-established and deeply entrenched in the usage of a linguistic community” (Kövecses, 2002, p. 29). Nevertheless, as Kövecses (2002, p. 248) points out, “metaphorical linguistic expressions reflecting a particular conceptual metaphor can be more or less conventional”. Although Semino (2008, p. 12) reminds us that “there is no unproblematic unit of analysis when investigating [...] metaphoricity”, by and large, it is the single-word, highly conventional metaphor that is the source of most marked solutions in L2 translation. This is because multi-word combinations are more evidently metaphorical than single lexical units, as at least one of their elements is likely to trigger metaphor awareness, because of an increased “possibility to perceive a contrast between basic and contextual meaning” (Semino, 2008, p. 17). Trainees are likely to be more aware when translating multi-word conventional metaphors. Thus, this article concerns itself with predominantly single-word instances located at the most conventional extreme of the continuum (Goatly, 1997, pp. 30-40; Pragglejaz Group, 2007, p. 30).

2.1 Conventional metaphor and L2 translation

As Semino (2008, p. 19) states, “all things being equal, the more conventional a metaphorical expression, the less likely it is that it will be unconventionally used and recognized as a metaphor”. Consequently it is less likely to trigger metaphor awareness. Of course, certain kinds of conventional metaphors are frequently translated correctly. This may be because they recur in other source texts used for assignments, with the result that students have become familiar with them. Alternatively, they may at times translate transparently into the target text. Nevertheless, ease of understanding the ST can entail considerable distortion in transfer and take the form of two probable outcomes: a) the conventional metaphor is wrongly deemed as non-problematic and therefore translated literally, appearing far less conventional in the TT, either because it entails a marked collocation or employs a part of speech not conventionally used in the target language (TL); or b) the translated conventional metaphor takes the form of a mapping that is never or rarely used for the same target domain in the TL. Whatever the outcome, the scope for inappropriately marked renderings in L2 translation is considerable, and it is quite possible to encounter a combination of them in translations of a single text displaying ‘normal’ levels of conventional metaphoricality.

3. THE DOMAIN-BASED HYPOTHESIS

The notion of domains is summarized by Semino (2008, p. 5):

[...] groups of expressions [...] reflect conventional patterns of thought, known as ‘conceptual metaphors’. Conceptual metaphors are defined as systematic sets of correspondences or ‘mappings’ across conceptual domains, whereby a ‘target domain’ (e.g. our knowledge about arguments) is partly structured in terms of a different ‘source’ domain (e.g. our knowledge about war).

As there is a close link between conceptual metaphor and conventional linguistic metaphor (Kövecses, 2002, p. 30), what is assessed here is the feasibility for L2 translation of mapping conventional linguistic metaphor in terms of domains, without going into the cognitive aspects of the theory. Therefore, this study draws on the kinds of general theories of metaphor that “consider broad questions such as why do particular metaphorical patterns occur in a particular language or languages” (Semino, 2008, p. 33). In particular, it considers the usefulness of this approach in helping trainers and trainees alike define converging and diverging patterns of

conventional metaphor use in the language pairing they are working in.

3.1 Domain systematicity

Semino (2008, p. 34) foregrounds two aspects of systematicity (theorized by Cameron, 1999, p. 16) that are crucial to the present hypothesis:

Discourse systematicity applies when particular linguistic metaphors are used within specific ‘discourse communities’ [...] discourse systematicity also applies when particular uses of metaphors are characteristic of certain genres or discourses [...]. Global systematicity applies when particular uses of metaphor occur across many genres and discourses.

Semino’s account is potentially of considerable practical usefulness to L2 translators. Interlingual comparison of discourse systematicity should provide important indicators as to which conventional metaphors are most (un)commonly used in comparable discourses in a language pairing. As the picture is completed for various discourses, it should facilitate a more comprehensive understanding of global metaphor systematicity across the specialized domains used for L2 translation training.

3.2 Intercultural aspects of conventional metaphor systematicity

Zoltan Kövecses stresses how cultural divergence and convergence is reflected in and highlighted by linguistic choices. Any interlingual account of conventional metaphor patterning is necessarily indebted to his work on intercultural consistencies and variations in conceptual metaphor use. In particular, he draws attention to the following aspects of cultural variation (2002, p. 183):

It is to be expected that, in addition, to universality, there will also be cultural variation in metaphor [...]

I suggest that the following are likely possibilities for cultural variation:

- 1) Variation in range of conceptual metaphors
- 2) Variation in the particular elaborations of conceptual metaphors for a given target;
- 3) Variation in the emphasis on metaphor versus metonymy associated with a given target.

This study is principally concerned with possibility 2, in other words, in variations in source domains, for the following reasons: a) because they actually constitute metaphoricity; (b) they are the most

immediately obvious way to see the ratio of conventional metaphoricity in discourses within a language pairing; and (c) because the immediate concern is not to identify the target domain (or ‘knowledge about an argument’), which in the case of conceptual metaphors is usually quite accessible, but to ascertain whether the conventional linguistic metaphors are correspondingly common in the TL.

Steen et al. (2010, p. 8) argue that “if precisely identified metaphorical mappings in conceptual structure were incorporated into MIP (Metaphor Identification Procedure), this would reduce reliability, for identifying by conceptual metaphor is open to much more disagreement between analysts”. This is one of the reasons why no attempt is made here to define the scope of the identified domains. The source domain approach proposed here is not intended to afford insight into conceptual mappings so much as to offer a convenient way of grouping lexical conventional metaphors for the purposes of translation options.

4. CONVENTIONAL METAPHOR IDENTIFICATION

Any choice of a metaphor identification procedure will take into account the two dominant proposals for achieving this: MIP (Pragglejaz Group, 2007) and MIPVU (Steen et al. 2010). Steen et al. (2010, pp. 15-16) sum up the difference between the two procedures as follows:

The Pragglejaz group has built MIP on the assumption that metaphor in discourse can be identified by looking for indirectly used words, which then have to be interpreted by comparison to a basic sense. However [...] there are other forms of metaphor which also operate on indirectness by similarity, but not at the level of indirect word use, but at the level of the conceptual structure of discourse. Since we have conceptualized metaphor as a matter of cross-domain mapping in conceptual structure, they are also metaphors, but either expressed directly or implicitly. They hence require an extension of MIP to be identified as linguistic expressions of metaphor.

The L2 translation of highly conventional metaphor is already a significant challenge because of the difficulties of triggering conventional metaphor awareness, let alone of activating more implicit metaphor awareness. The translator's task is to convey the surface of a text in a form that is linguistically, generically and culturally appropriate. The sensitivity of MIPVU is perhaps beyond the range of L2 translators' competence, since they cannot be reasonably expected to apply it in all cases. Therefore the conventional metaphor identification procedure referred to for this study is

MIP, particularly stage 3 (Pragglejaz Group, 2007, p. 3):

3. (a) For each lexical unit in the text, establish its meaning in context, that is, how it applies to an entity, relation, or attribute in the situation evoked by the text (contextual meaning). Take into account what comes before and after the lexical unit.

(b) For each lexical unit, determine if it has a more basic contemporary meaning in other contexts than the one in the given context. For our purposes, basic meanings tend to be

—More concrete; what they evoke is easier to imagine, see, hear, feel, smell, and taste.

—Related to bodily action.

—More precise (as opposed to vague)

—Historically older.

Basic meanings are not necessarily the most frequent meanings of the lexical unit.

(c) If the lexical unit has a more basic current–contemporary meaning in other contexts than the given context, decide whether the contextual meaning contrasts with the basic meaning but can be understood in comparison with it.

4.1 Conventions of domain-based categorization

Since Lakoff and Johnson's influential study (1980), the conventional notation for the domain-based approach to metaphor is the use of CAPITALS, in which the target domain, the abstract concept, traditionally known as 'tenor', precedes the source domain, traditionally called 'vehicle', that 'embodies' the target domain. The classic example is ARGUMENT IS WAR (Lakoff and Johnson, 1980, pp. 3-4). As specified above, this study focuses on the second element in the mapping; thus all source domains identified in the corpora and shown in the tables are capitalized.

5. THE DATA AND THE CORPORA

Three sets of corpora-driven data are used to advance this hypothesis. Corpora have a consolidated place in metaphor research and theory (Semino, 2008, pp. 199-206 and Deignan, 1999). As Semino (2008, p. 199) states, "corpus-based methods are ideally suited to investigate the use of conventional metaphorical expressions, and particularly frequencies, distributions, collocations, and so on [...]". Cross-linguistic metaphor use has been the subject of a number of corpus-based studies (for example Deignan and Potter, 2004). As Semino (2008, p. 206) points out:

Corpus-based methods have also been applied to the cross-linguistic equivalence of the metaphors used in different languages within particular genres and in relation to particular topics.

This case study falls within this category.

The focus on metaphor systematicity draws on two previous research projects that mapped source domains in the English-Italian pairing. The first (Heaney, 2012) analyzed patterns in the discourse of company museums; the second (La Rosa, 2012) applied a similar approach to fashion industry press releases. These initial findings are integrated by a more recently assembled set of corpora for the discourse of local produce, comprising an ST corpus, a comparable TL one and an L2 TT one. There is a triple purpose underlying this design: a) to extend the mapping of conventional metaphor to another discourse, building up a more complete picture of both discourse and global systematicity; b) to examine students' levels of conventional metaphor awareness and their strategies for rendering conventional metaphors; and c) to consider the usefulness of this approach for gauging metaphor awareness and possibly exploiting it for L2 translation teaching.

5.1 Interlinguistic patterns of conventional metaphor use: corpora set 1

A comparison of the first two corpora initially sheds light on: a) the extent of conventional metaphor use in each language in the pairing (at least within these discourses), and b) emerging patterns of both discourse and global systematicity in conventional metaphor use.

Table 1 shows the rates of conventional metaphor frequency in the Italian and English language corpora for the discourses of company museums and fashion industry press releases.

Table 1. Rates of conventional metaphor frequency in Italian (ILC) and English language (ELC) and American English (AEC) corpora

Corpora set 1			
Company Museums	ILC	ELC	
Rate of conventional metaphor	4.3%	1.6%	
Corpora set 2			
Fashion Industry Press Releases	ILC	ELC	AEC
Rate of conventional metaphor	4.00%	2.49%	2.15%

The percentage of conventional metaphoricity for the Italian language corpus for each discourse is given in the first column. The second and third columns provide the metaphor frequency rates for comparable English and British and American English language corpora. Even allowing for possible inconsistencies in MIP, the Italian language corpora reveal consistently higher rates. This alone suggests the discrepancy is significant and worth examining more systematically.

The following table shows the top ten ranked source domains for conventional metaphor in corpus set 1.

Table 2. Corpus set 1: Ten first-ranked domains for Company Museums

IC		EC	
1	JOURNEY	1	JOURNEY
2	HOSPITALITY	2	NARRATION
3	<i>PROCREATION</i>	3	WEALTH
4	<i>BUILDING</i>	4	HOSPITALITY
5	NARRATION	5	<i>STABILIZATION</i>
6	PLANT	6	<i>REANIMATION</i>
7	<i>OPEN UP/OUT</i>	7	<i>CONTAINER</i>
8	WEALTH	8	PLANT
9	<i>BODY</i>	9	<i>DEPICTION</i>
10	<i>TESTIMONY</i>	10	<i>PROTECTION</i>

As can be seen, there is cross-linguistic convergence (**IN BOLD**) between 50% of the domains and the same level of non-convergence (*ITALICS*) for others.

5.2 Interlinguistic patterns of conventional metaphor use: corpora set 2

The same approach was used for the cross-linguistic study of conventional metaphor in fashion industry press releases in Italian, American English (AEC) and British English (BEc). In the following table, patterns of interlingual (**BOLD**) and intralingual (**CAPITALS**) convergence are given. The table also shows interlingual (*ITALICS*) and intralingual (UNDERLINED) non-convergence of source domains.

Table 3. Corpus set 2: Fashion Industry Press Releases

ILC		AEC		BEC	
1	JOURNEY	1	JOURNEY	1	JOURNEY
2	SUBSTANCE	2	MOVEMENT	2	MOVEMENT
3	THEATRE	3	PLANTS	3	STABILIZE
4	PLANTS	4	THEATRE	4	PLANTS
5	<i>FAMILY</i>	5	BUILDING	5	<u>BODY</u>
6	NARRATION	6	WAR	6	WAR
7	WEALTH	7	NARRATION	7	<u>RACE</u>
8	WAR	8	SUBSTANCE	8	BUILDING
9	BUILDING	9	STABILZATION	9	WEALTH
10	<i>PROCREATION</i>	10	WEALTH	10	SUBSTANCE

5.4 Cross-discourse patterns of conventional metaphor use

Taken together, Tables 2 and 3 show that some source domains are more globally systematic (e.g. JOURNEY, NARRATION, PLANT). They recur over discourses and therefore are likely to reoccur in other STs that students will translate from. Others appear to be more discourse systematic and likely to be prominent where they are appropriate to particular kinds of discourse. HOSPITALITY, for instance, will presumably occur with greater frequency in museum discourse, which often describes where and how collections are ‘housed’. WAR, on the other hand, is more likely to feature in company discourse, where the concept of ‘hitting

a target' is likely to be present. The two tables also indicate that there is only very tenuous or no convergence at all of certain source domains, irrespective of the discourse. PROCREATION, for example, may be globally systematic in Italian, but it is far from being so in the English language corpora, suggesting an alternative conceptualization for the related target domain.

5.5 Corpus set 3: local produce discourse

Corpus set 3 is comprised of three comparable and related corpora. The first is an ST corpus of texts promoting local produce in Italy (wine, cheese and other produce). These texts were originally used for assignments in the second semester of a four-semester, second-level degree in specialized L2 translation. The second is a comparable TL corpus of texts from Anglophone countries (Australia, South Africa, America, Britain) on wineries, local produce consortia and slow food-style dairy products. The third is a trainee TT corpus, comprising translations of texts in the ST corpus. The ST and TT corpora were supplied by a colleague to avoid undue bias in data selection and to ensure an authentic sample of discourses used in translation training.

Table 4. Rates of conventional metaphoricity in corpora set 3

Local produce promotion corpus	STC	TLC	TTC
Conventional metaphor rate	1.9%	0.4%	13.6%

As in the preceding two corpora sets, there is a considerably higher ratio of conventional metaphor use in the ST sample. Moreover, the figure for the TT corpus indicates that conventional metaphor tends to become even more frequent in L2 translation, presumably because students' translation strategies actually make it more pronounced in their TTs.

The patterns of source domain convergence and/or divergence and non-correspondence in the most recent data are given in the following table.

Table 5. First ten ranked source domains in corpora set 3

STC		TLC		TTC	
1	<i>JOURNEY</i>	1	IMAGE	1	WEAPONRY
2	PHYSICAL JOINING	2	IMAGINATION	2	WEALTH
3	PROCREATION	3	<i>JOURNEY</i>	3	PROCREATION
4	GEOLOGY	4	WEAPONRY	4	KEEPING INTACT
5	MAKING STHG. LAST	5	PHILOSOPHY	5	RESTORATION
6	WEAPONRY	6	COMBAT	6	RELIGION
7	REGAIN POSSESSION	7	HEALTH	7	PROTECTION
8	RETURN TO LIFE	8	GROWTH	8	INHERITANCE
9	WEALTH	9	MENTAL EFFORT	9	PHYSICAL JOINING
10	IMPART MOTION	10	PROCREATION	10	IMAGE

There are certain consistencies with the data from the previous two studies. There is further evidence of a high-frequency, interlingual, globally systematic source domain, e.g. *JOURNEY*. There is also a discernible pattern of only very slight convergence in the authentic SL and TL texts, e.g. **PROCREATION**. In addition, there is the case of a conventional source domain that seems discourse systematic, e.g., **WEAPONRY**. It is also evident that there is considerable or total non-convergence

between other source domains occurring in the three corpora.

As a result of this review of the three comparative studies of source domain use, it is possible to advance the following general observations that are potentially useful for training in L2 translation of conventional metaphor:

1. Developing conventional metaphor sensitivity in one discourse at a time could theoretically help students gradually increase awareness of both global and discourse systematicity.
2. Charting source domains interlingually in various discourses might develop awareness of how divergent or convergent they are in various discourses of a language pair.

6. ANALYSIS OF STUDENTS' CONVENTIONAL METAPHOR AWARENESS

In this section the discrepancies between conventional metaphor rankings in corpora set 3 will be analyzed with a view to understanding the extent of students' conventional metaphor sensitivity, defining the kinds of strategies they have developed as a result, and suggesting possible reasons for their development.

6.1 Source domains in student translations: convergence

Table 5 shows that the WEAPONRY source domain features in all three corpora. As the following table shows, it is a classic one-word, conventional metaphor instantiated through either the verb or the noun *aim*.

Table 6. Relatively convergent SD across all three corpora: WEAPONRY

STC	TLC	TTC
Mirare [v. aim]	aim	aim
Scopo [n. aim]	aim	aim
EXAMPLES		
ST example 1: con lo scopo precipuo di promuovere gli eccellenti frutti di questa terra [...]		TT example1: <i>Our aim is to keep our traditional art of cooking alive [...]</i>

This SD occurs in a relatively high position in all three corpora, and the conventional metaphor is rendered by and large successfully in the TTC. This may be due to the global systematicity of the conventional metaphor itself, so common in many of the kinds of discourses students are trained with in this language pair that practice has made them perfect.

6.2 Source domains in student translations: divergence

However, the above kind of performance is by no means consistent. Table 5 indicates that the SD PROCREATION is highly divergent in the STC and TLC, while the TTC is more symmetrical with the SLC. As can be seen from Table 7, this conventional metaphor is translated much more unevenly.

Table 7. Divergent source domains: PROCREATION

STC	TLC	TTC
Nascita [birth]	-	creation
Nasce [is born]	-	is born
Nato [was born]	-	is born/created/founded
Figlio [son]	-	son
	Virgin	
	Renaissance	
EXAMPLES		
ST example 2: Il Consorzio [...] nasce		TT example 2: <i>The Consortium was created in order to enhance</i>
ST example 3: "Il lodigiano, nato dall'acqua, è figlio di palude.		TT example 3: <i>Lodi was born from the water, it's the son of the marsh.</i>

Table 7 indicates that though the source domain occurs in all three corpora, the typical realizations in the TL corpus are highly divergent with the other two. The source domain PROCREATION generates various conventional metaphors in the STC, which appear to be translated in two distinct ways in the TTC. The difference may depend on

the dominant text function in the passages where it is used. When the metaphor is used in the section of text where the informative function prevails, the students produce more convincing renderings. This is achieved either by substituting it with a source domain that is more conventional in the TL, e.g., BUILDING (foundation) or with a more general superordinator like ‘creation’. This is presumably because they are familiar with how this metaphor is generally translated for this particular text function; Taylor (1998, p. 117) provides a fuller discussion of the relevance of functions of language to translation. However, problems occur when the same metaphor is used in the expressive text function (Taylor, 1998, p. 117), with which students are less familiar (see TT example 3). Although the metaphor is still conventional, the rendering is not.

6.3 Non-convergence with TLC

The following example, though not ranked in the first ten source domains, provides an insight into what happens when a source domain occurs in both the STC and TTC but not in the TLC. Such a pattern is likely to indicate significant non-correspondence in conventional metaphor use. Table 8 exemplifies this in translations of the source domain PLANT.

**Table 8. SD in ST and TT but not in TLC:
PLANT**

ST	TLC	TT
Frutto [fruit]	-	fruit of this land
		fruit of the intelligence of
Frutti [fruits]	-	fruits of this region
		fruits of this land
EXAMPLES		
ST Example 4: [...] frutto esclusivo del lavoro intelligente e razionale degli uomini.		TT Example 4: [...] <i>the exclusive fruit of the intelligent and rational work of men.</i>

Such divergence indicates that the translated conventional metaphor is quite likely to be marked, as it is in the above example, and consequently less conventional, probably shifting the translation towards an inappropriately expressive function. Further research may help define reliable and repeatable translation strategies for cases in which a metaphor is absent in a TLC.

Categorizing conventional metaphors in terms of source domains appears to reveal the following likely outcomes:

1. When a source domain is proximate in all three corpora, it is likely that it will be appropriate and handled correctly.
2. When students encounter the same conventional metaphor within a single text, they are more likely to translate it convincingly in the kind of text function they are more familiar with.
3. When a source domain is highly divergent in terms of frequency in the ST and TL corpora, it is likely to be the cause of marked solutions in the resulting TTs.

7. TYPES OF METAPHOR SENSITIVITY-LESSONS FOR TEACHING

When the TTC is viewed against the information for the other two corpora, it is also possible to advance some hypotheses about trainees' degree and type of conventional metaphor sensitivity. This involves identifying where the resulting strategies are successful, where they are less so, possible reasons for this, and possible more general

applications of these findings in teaching L2 translation.

7.1 Source domains absent in TTC

The wide scope source domain JOURNEY occurs in both the STC and the TLC, but is totally absent in the TTC. Although JOURNEY is a globally systematic conventional metaphor (see Tables 2, 3, 4), it is realized in the STC in ways that students probably feel are only tenuously connected with that domain, and therefore they appear conscious of its problematic nature.

Table 8. Source domain present in both STC and TLC but not in TTC

ST	TLC	TT
ad indirizzo	follow	employed in
condotte	footsteps	devoted to
arrivare		
EXAMPLES		
Example ST 5: ad indirizzo produttivo prevalentemente arancicolo		Example TT 5: <i>it is mainly devoted to orange production</i>

Previous evidence (Heaney, 2012, pp. 47-48) indicates that when the same SD is realized by a more familiar and recurrent form of metaphor in

the L1, students are more likely to respond to it as transparent in the TL too, and translate it literally, resulting in jarring collocations and unconventional metaphoricity. On the contrary, infrequent or ‘more extreme’ realizations of the SD in correspondence with a familiar text function, particularly the informative one, would appear less likely to be translated with the same domain.

7.2 Source domains present only in the STC

The case of source domains present only in the STC, but in neither the TLC nor the TTC, indicates that students are rightly sensitive to a problematic conventional metaphor. The source domain GEOLOGY is probably one that verges on creative metaphor in this discourse, and significantly there is no attempt to translate it in the TTC, as Table 9 shows.

Table 9. SD present in the ST but not in the TLC or TT

ST	TLC	TT
Giacimento/i [deposits]	-	resource/resources
EXAMPLES		
ST Example 6: promuove iniziative per la tutela e la valorizzazione dei nostri giacimenti eno-gastronomici		TT Example 6: <i>has been promoting different campaigns for the preservation and the development of our agro-food resources</i>

Identified as marked, the metaphor is rendered with a more conventional one, in the form of a superordinator from within the same domain, i.e. ‘resource’.

7.3 Source domains more frequent in STC and TTC

The source domain IMAGE provides further insights into the difficulties posed by highly conventional metaphors. IMAGE is present in the ST corpus, but is used just once and is too lowly ranked to appear on the chart. However, it occurs more frequently in the TT:

Table 10. A source domain present in STC and TTC but not in TLC

ST	TLC	TT
rappresenta [v.is]	reflection	represent
	reflected	
	reflecting	
	display	
EXAMPLES		
Example ST 1: rappresenta con i suoi prodotti la vera ricchezza del nostro territorio		Example TT 1: <i>that represent both local production and our expertise.</i>
Example ST 2: ottenuta da una mutazione gemmaria della Washington Navel		Example TT 2: <i>represents the result of a bud-sport of the Washington Navel Orange</i>

While example TT1 is entirely conventional, TT2 is less so. This is probably because ‘rappresentare’ is very often used as a synonym of ‘essere’ [to be] in Italian, and the trainee translates the synonym as if it had the same range in English. There is, therefore, an increased likelihood that it will be more marked in the L2. This tendency may also partly explain why the TTC is more conventional metaphor-dense than either the STC or TLC, as the

students may fail see that translations of ‘rappresentare’ are intrinsically more metaphorical than they realize.

This section has drawn attention to a repertoire of strategies that students apply sporadically, intuitively and empirically, but which might warrant more systematic attention on the part of trainers, perhaps taking the following observations as a starting point for further classroom applications and assessment:

1. When a conventional metaphor is viewed as being an infrequent realization for a source domain, students may replace it with an appropriately conventional metaphor from an entirely different source domain for the same target domain.
2. When a conventional metaphor is seen as marginal or extreme within an STC, some trainees are likely to opt for a superordinator or explication.
3. When a source domain is realized in a highly conventional way in the STC, it is more unlikely to be spotted and thus translated equally conventionally.

4. Students may be more likely to overuse certain conventional metaphors that are employed as synonyms, especially when those conventional metaphors are normally used to substitute copular verbs.

7.4 Summary of findings

The analysis of the sets of corpora has indicated that there are three broad areas of conventional metaphor that it may be fruitful to explore in didactic and research scenarios. Each of these provides pointers for addressing particular aspects of conventional metaphor in L2 translation.

Comparison of the three corpora in sections 6 and 7 indicates that there are differences in global systematicity that are consistent with the cross-discourse variations traced in the exploratory studies described in section 5. Consolidating familiarity with patterns of convergence and divergence across discourses may lead to a reduction in the frequency of marked renderings of a number of the most globally systematic conventional metaphors.

The data also indicates that within a single domain across a language pair, there is a correlation between patterns of conventional metaphor use in the ST, TL, and L2 TTs. Unmarked renderings appear to be related to the convergence of source

domains in STC and the comparable TL corpus, while more marked translations are likelier when there is divergence. This suggests that designing a preliminary set of comparable corpora could be a useful preparatory tool for anticipating the challenges associated with this aspect of translation. The data also indicate that, faced with a combination of conventional metaphor and more unfamiliar text functions, trainees will probably produce forced renderings. This indicates that it may be didactically useful to grade assignments in terms of difficulties related to metaphoricity and discourse functions.

Significant differences in trainees' metaphor awareness also emerged and these were related to more or less marked renderings. A particularly relevant aspect appears to be students' awareness of the infrequency or frequency of source domains. When sensitivity is high it is more probable that strategies will be convincing. When it is low, renderings are just as likely to be marked.

This preliminary research indicates that it may be viable to pursue a more integrated and systematic domain-based approach to developing conventional metaphor awareness and competence in L2 translation.

8. CONCLUDING REMARKS

This article has attempted to indicate the range of difficulties involved in dealing with conventional metaphors in L2 translation and the ways in which conventional metaphor awareness can be raised among L2 translation trainees and trainers alike. In order to validate the hypothesis advanced here, further research into the global and discourse systematicity of conventional metaphor in specialised discourses is required.

The design and construction of comparable corpora for translation teaching is now a consolidated practice in many training scenarios. This article has described some basic ways in which such resources can be exploited to provide pointers to patterns of source domain convergence and divergence from an interlinguistic perspective. Existing, specifically designed comparable corpora can provide an immediate source of data for further quantitative, empirical research. If the results of such analyses are consistent with this preliminary hypothesis, there may be grounds for factoring conventional metaphor tagging and comparison into subsequent corpora designed for specialised translation training. Of course, there is no reason why this research should be confined to the language pair analysed here. Extending the method to other languages is likely to have two immediate results: firstly it would, presumably, consolidate trainees' awareness of this neglected aspect of specialised

translation; secondly it would make even more data available for comparative empirical research into the density and systematicity of conventional metaphor in other language pairs and even language groups.

It is true that MIP is “not a task that can be accomplished easily or quickly” (Pragglejaz Group, 2007, p. 36). Nevertheless, it is possible that findings from further research and from exploratory classroom applications will gradually provide a surer and more nuanced understanding of the global and discourse systematicity patterns of conventional metaphors in the kinds of specialised discourses L2 translators are trained to work on.

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SOME TIPS FOR DESIGNING AND LECTURING AN UNDERGRADUATE COURSE IN ECONOMIC, FINANCIAL AND COMMERCIAL TRANSLATION

Kenneth Jordan-Núñez

San Jorge University

Abstract

The aim of this article is to present some reflections on teaching an undergraduate course in economic, financial and commercial translation (English-to-Spanish) and to provide a model for preparing and presenting a similar course. Our aim is to clarify some key concepts regarding the didactics of specialized translation, to analyse the features of the subject and to suggest some ideas for designing and lecturing it. We briefly describe the current state-of-the-art, with major stress on the didactics of specialized translation, put forward some ideas for the content and give some tips for the methodologies and teaching-learning activities, the selection of materials, the in-class sessions, and the assessment and correction of the translation exercises. We suggest, among other things, using real texts for bringing students closer to the professional practice, using an error-analysis-based method for correcting the exercises, or asking students to keep a translation dossier for making them learn from their own mistakes.

1. INTRODUCTION - THE DIDACTICS OF TRANSLATION

The aim of translation studies is to educate students to be capable of performing well in the professional world of translation and thus to guide and help them to develop the knowledge and skills of translation. The possession of these qualities has been defined as “translation competence”, whose development and improvement is the objective of the didactics of translation.

Jean Delisle in *La traduction raisonnée* (1993) was one of the first to establish some clear objectives for the teaching-learning process of translation. Without doubt, his most important contribution was his effort to remind lecturers of the need to apply basic teaching principles in their classes, one of the most important principles being the establishment of clear and achievable objectives. According to him, this key element in the planning implies four basic advantages: it facilitates communication between lecturers and students, it facilitates the selection of the teaching tools, it suggests different learning activities, and it gives a basis for the assessment of learning (Delisle, 1998, pp. 21-22).

Christiane Nord suggests a very complete model based on the premise that the teaching of translation should simulate professional practice. According to her, it should therefore not include translation exercises without a realistic goal, as

Delisle's model does. Nord's proposal is based on a functionalist model of translation-oriented text analysis. In this analysis students should answer some questions to help them do translation exercises designed for developing the translation competence: Who? On what subject matter? To whom? What? What for? By which medium? In what order? Where? Using which non-verbal elements? When? In which words? Why? In what kind of sentences? In which tone? What function? To what effect? (Nord, 1991, p. 144). It is, thus, a clear commitment to learner-centered teaching and to introducing students to the professional reality of translation.

Delisle and Nord insist on the importance of the process in the teaching of translation, which contradicts the traditional tendency. In this sense, the teaching of translation should be more concerned with the translation process than with the resulting written product. Daniel Gile follows this same line of thinking. He states that the point is to raise students' awareness of problems and suggests "good translation *principles, methods, and procedures*" (Gile, 1995, p. 10), instead of merely giving students texts to translate and then discussing the translations in class, indicating what is right and what is wrong in the different versions presented. For Gile, this approach is especially appropriate for the first translation teaching stages.

Jean Vienne's proposal, even if essentially functionalist, differs from Nord's proposal. According to Vienne (1994), the activity in class should be based on a series of translation projects professionally and previously carried out by the lecturer, so that they can act as the initiator in the translation process in a more realistic way. However, he rejects the simulation of professional exercises that Nord suggested on the grounds that "it is difficult, indeed sometimes impossible, to carry out a realistic analysis of the situation, and to answer the questions that might arise" (Vienne, 1994, p. 52). Vienne's methodology requires, therefore, that students carry out a contextual analysis of the translation project and that the lecturer, acting as the initiator, answers the students' questions and provides them with essential information to do the translation.

2. THE DIDACTICS OF ECONOMIC TRANSLATION

According to Hurtado, specialized translation is the real professional translation from a teaching point of view. Therefore, specialized translation is not restricted to the translation of the so-called specialized texts, but it also includes audiovisual translation and literary translation (Hurtado, 1996, p. 31). Moreover, in comparison with the preceding, general translation could be considered a mere introduction to real translation.

Verónica Román holds that the two pillars of the learning of economic translation are the command of the thematic area and corporate documentation and the command of economic terminology in both languages (Román, 2008, p. 26). In fact, according to her, most of the difficulties students have to confront regarding specialized translation are due to their lack of thematic and terminological knowledge. However, this concept does not take into account all the sub-competences that make up translation competence, which are essential for Zabalbeascoa (2000), Hurtado (1996, p. 34) or the PACTE Group (Beeby et al., 2005). It is true that, for economic translation, the command of terminology in both languages is important and that, of course, a good knowledge of the area of specialization is essential for interpreting and contextualizing a text. But what about Hurtado's translational competence or the PACTE Group's transfer competence? And what about "the knowledge of what translating involves" and the "formal training in translation and in the analysis, interpretation and production of texts" that are essential for Zabalbeascoa? We also have to consider what the PACTE Group defines as "the knowledge of the management of working tools" or what Hurtado calls "professional competence". The objectives of the didactics of specialized translation, therefore, cannot come down to the command of the thematic and terminological area, but should take into account all the sub-

competences and skills that make up translation competence.

Precisely with regard to professional competence, the act of working in pseudo-real translation projects is important for Román. According to her, a translation job or project is an added motivation for the students as it involves a proposal of activities that introduce them to what will be their future professional life (Román, 2008, p. 26). According to her, this need to recreate real situations of professional practice can only be gauged if lecturers have a close and frequent relationship with the world of professional translation, so that they can adapt the syllabus to their students' needs and to those of the labour market. Could we interpret this as Román's attempt to take into account the professional competence that is so important for Hurtado?

Overall, we can infer from Román's statements that students need to receive a thematic education in the corresponding area. This has already been considered in previous courses on the fundamentals of economics and law. However, it is also possible to include in the syllabus a thematic section at the beginning of the course or to work on that during the development of the subject, as Román suggests (2008, p. 27), through materials that deal with this knowledge in an instrumental way and that have been specifically designed for translation.

Finally, Pizarro (2010, p. 168) establishes the knowledge of the source and target languages and cultures, the knowledge of the specialized subject matter and the necessary technical knowledge in the translation process as the pillars of economic translators' ideal education.

Pizarro also gives her opinion about the eternal dilemma of whether a translator specialized in economics or an expert in economics with knowledge of foreign languages should translate economic texts. According to her, translators can understand technical and specialized texts from the fields of economics, finances or accounting, and are thus capable of translating them even if they do not have in-depth knowledge and even if that "passive knowledge" does not allow them to write original texts on the subject (2010, p. 168). From this, we infer that, although thematic knowledge is very important, translators do not necessarily need to have an expert "active knowledge".

3. DESIGNING AND LECTURING THE SUBJECT

3.1 Contents

According to Sevilla et al. (2003, pp. 110-111), in designing the syllabus for the course, it is advisable to take into account three fundamental aspects:

1. The students' learning needs and the theoretical aspects related to translation that they should acquire.
2. The students' level (their expectations and interests), which can be assessed through questionnaires where they can express their opinions.
3. The professional practice of translation, the actual difficulties that this practice involves and the strategies applied for solving those difficulties.

For Zabalza (2004), one of the main problems that planning a course involves is the tendency to “hypertrophy” its contents, designing an incoherent syllabus according to the curricular weight of the course. Sometimes it is difficult to make a selection of the contents for the actual time available, but for Zabalza, it is necessary to fulfil that commitment. According to him, not all that can be taught should be taught and he, therefore, suggests selecting the most basic and/or important content that will allow the students to pursue the learning process in an autonomous way.

Following Sevilla's suggestion, it is advisable to hand out a questionnaire to the students at the beginning of the course in order to ascertain both their knowledge of the fields of economic and specialized translation and their expectations

regarding the course. On the one hand, what can be concluded from the results of such a questionnaire given out during two academic years at San Jorge University is that 87% of students expect to learn terminology and that 40% expect to acquire theoretical knowledge of the field of economics, finance and commerce. Just 1.3% of the students expect to learn the stylistic features of economic, financial and commercial English and Spanish or mention the importance of understanding texts in this area of specialization and another 1.3% expects to acquire the ability to do conceptual and terminological research. On the other hand, a test of general knowledge revealed that the basic concepts necessary to deal with the contents of this course had already been assimilated by most of them. Moreover, they did not specifically need to learn terminology but to learn how to use documentary sources for finding equivalences (terms or designations representing the same concept in a different language).

In view of the above, we decided to opt for a syllabus including theoretical aspects related to the translation of economic texts (as an introduction to economic translation), some aspects related to the ability to do conceptual or terminological research (in a section devoted to documentary sources) and some aspects related to the specialized translator's real practice. Regarding this last point, we decided to work on texts belonging to different sub-areas within the field of economics, finance and

commerce and to introduce students to localization, which plays an important role in the business world. Thus, the syllabus of the course was organized as follows:

Table 1. Course syllabus

<p>1. Introduction to economic translation</p> <p>1.1 Special features of the language of economics</p> <p>1.2 Types of texts</p> <p>1.3 The role of the translator of economic texts (functionalism in economic, financial and commercial translation)</p> <p>2. Sources and strategies of documentation for economic translation</p> <p>2.1 Sources of documentation (analysis of the reference bibliography)</p> <p>2.2 On-line translation tools and electronic corpora</p> <p>2.3 Comparable and parallel texts for economic translation</p> <p>2.4 Creating and managing a glossary for economic translation</p> <p>3. Difficulties in translating economic texts</p> <p>3.1 Main problems in translating economic texts</p> <p>3.2 Introduction to editing and revising texts</p> <p>4. The translation of professional genres</p> <p>4.1 The translation of commercial and business texts</p> <p>4.2 The translation of corporate documents</p> <p>5. The translation of academic and journalistic genres</p> <p>5.1 The translation of economic press articles</p> <p>5.2 The translation of financial press articles</p> <p>6. Localization in the field of economics, finance and commerce</p> <p>6.1 Introduction to the localization of corporate websites</p> <p>6.2 Localization of corporate websites using CatsCradle software</p>

3.2 Methodologies and teaching-learning activities

According to Mariana Orozco (2003a), a lecturer of specialized translation has two methodological options to help student acquire the command of a thematic area. On the one hand, teaching could be focused on the product of translation, investing effort for students to acquire the previous

specialized or thematic knowledge and converting the course into an introduction to one of the areas of specialization that is most in demand. The second option, centered on the process, entails promoting all those skills that allow translators to deal with new projects on subjects they are not specialized in. This last option is focused, then, on the lack of specialized knowledge or the insecurity in the use of specialized terms. For this subject, it is advisable to deal first with more general texts (which may be more familiar to students and for the translation of which they can easily find parallel texts) or texts that allow us to center on the translation process and, later, with texts that allow us to center on the product (see point 4).

With regard to the structure of the teaching units, we should consider Sevilla's proposal (2003). According to him, a teaching unit could be organized around the translation of a text and a series of tasks but should also include other specific elements, like some theoretical rudiments, that can contribute to the students' acquisition of certain skills. And, regarding the activities or tasks, we could take into account the structure suggested by Hurtado (1999a, pp. 46-50). According to her, for each task it is necessary to decide the objective that must be pursued, the materials that will be used (the text that will be translated and other documents with thematic and terminological information), how the task will be developed (individually or in groups) and the method for evaluating the results.

Sevilla et al. (2003, p. 118), precisely using Hurtado's theory (1999a), suggest three types of tasks for each unit so that the students can work on the different stages of the learning process: awareness-raising tasks, skill-acquisition tasks and skill-application tasks. Nevertheless, given the time restriction, we recommend a specific type of task for each type of unit. Thus, it is advisable to include at least awareness-raising tasks in the units specifically devoted to specialized translation (sections 4 and 5), skill-acquisition tasks in the introductory units (section 1, 2 and 3) and skill-application tasks in the unit mainly devoted to the group preparation of a final translation project with its corresponding oral presentation (section 6).

Awareness-raising tasks involve the translation of a text through which, according to Sevilla et al. (2003, p. 18), students understand translation difficulties, become aware of their lack of competence and, at the same time, are motivated to acquire the skills they need to solve the translation problems arising from the specialized nature of the text. To that end, the lecturer should give the students plenty of time for the text (so that they can translate it without the restrictions of time and sources that face-to-face classes impose) and, in the first session (centred on understanding), the lecturer should present and contextualize the text, explaining where it has been taken from and at whom it is aimed and analysing the features of the text (subject matter, degree of speciality and type

of text). Finally, the lecturer should make a short presentation in the students' mother tongue (Spanish, in this case) about the subject matter, using the terminology that the students will need for the translation. During the subsequent sessions (centred on re-expression), after the translation has been done individually by the students, the original text will be read and, for each paragraph, a different student will share their translation with the rest. After reading that first translation, the lecturer should invite other students to comment on that proposal in order to improve it (if necessary) or to suggest a different option of translation. The lecturer should also clarify and explain all the doubts that may arise and, finally, should unify all the opinions to suggest a final translation. By doing so, students will be able to recognize the different translation strategies used by the others (and analysed by the lecturer) and will be able to detect and solve the problems in their own work and include them in their translation dossier.

Skill-acquisition tasks are used to deal with the theoretical content of the unit or course. Therefore, as already stated, they will be applied in the introductory sections where most theoretical contents are taught.

As has been said above, skill-application tasks could be used for the final project. For the development of these tasks, Sevilla et al. (2003, p. 121) suggest the following model: working in

groups, students choose a text and translate it outside the classroom. Each group hands in a copy of the selected text and the translation and gives an oral presentation about the criteria they have followed to select the text, the steps taken for translating it, the problems that have arisen and the strategies applied for solving them. The lecturer then invites the rest of the students to make comments or ask questions. Finally, each group works with the lecturer and addresses the doubts or queries expressed, unifies opinions and justifies the final result.

Considering that making mistakes is essential in the teaching-learning process, we thought it was also necessary to ask students to keep a translation dossier (which had to be presented at the end of the course) so that they correct their own work and become aware of their mistakes and lacks. If the lecturer corrects students' mistakes but does not allow them to take part in the process of correction, the lecturer is hindering the knowledge process and preventing students from entering into conflict with themselves and from becoming aware of what they do not know – which is exactly what they need to learn. In this way, it is hoped that students will take into account the lecturer's comments and corrections in the face-to-face sessions, their classmates' contributions and the lecturer's marking of the translation exercise (in which they are given the type of error but not a suggestion for

translation) and then be able to understand the error and correct it.

The aim of the terminological glossary is to acclimate students to the practice of building such a glossary for and in their professional future and to make them understand that the purpose of registering their work is to use that work in future translation projects. This practice will not just help them in the translation task itself but will also give internal and/or external coherence to the texts they have to deal with in the near future (e.g. documents from the same client or belonging to the same area of specialization).

4. THE SELECTION OF MATERIALS

As Ahmed Kamal Zaghoul points out, the didactics of translation are usually developed through the translation of texts in class. According to him, this is justified by the fact that its main objective is to educate professional translators, not translation theorists (Kamal, 2010, p. 189). That is why the selection of texts for translation in class is a key aspect for guaranteeing an adequate methodology and a correct progression in the acquisition process of translation competence by the student, as Orozco states (Orozco, 2003b). However, for Orozco, there is another didactic approach that usually involves the lecturer selecting some texts first and then asking students to translate them, without defining for each text a

specific learning objective. In that way, texts define the methodology and the syllabus of the subject and not the other way around, and the lecturer may consider the students' efforts in a concrete translation exercise more important than the adequate development of the skills that will help them become good translators.

Sevilla et al. (2003, p. 298) suggest some criteria for selecting the texts for the translation exercises: 1) the texts should come from a real source and should be able to become translation projects; 2) they should be complete texts; 3) they should be varied in terms of subject matter, type and degree of specialization; and 4) they should be able to be translated by students, since a text of excessive difficulty will lack pedagogical value.

Orozco (2003c) highlights Sevilla's first basic requirement: that selected texts should be real. Moreover, she suggests that, as far as possible, they should have been the subject of a real translation project. If so, it is possible to familiarize students with the labor market and to introduce them to it with some adequate expectations. This is in accordance with what Christine Durieux states when she says that it is important to work with real texts (and not those created specifically for teaching and learning translation) with the aim of preparing students for professional life (Durieux, 2010, p. 119).

Orozco (2003c) advises starting with texts dealing with topics that are familiar to students, so that they can easily find thematic information for understanding the texts. On the other hand, she points out that the linguistic and terminological difficulty of texts must be introduced gradually so that it does not become an impossible task for students, something that Durieux (2010, p. 119) has also suggested in the case of technical translation. For Durieux, ideally, we should achieve a progression in the difficulty of the texts and this progression should be built on three axes: the difficulty of writing, the difficulty of documentary and terminological research, and the integration of different techniques.

Following these instructions, we consider it appropriate for a subject of economic, financial and commercial translation to start with the translation of commercial texts (which are much less specialized and more similar to those that the students have worked with in previous subjects of general translation), gradually increasing the degree of thematic, linguistic and terminological difficulty of the texts. Thus, after some introductory translation exercises, students will translate texts ordered according to their thematic and terminological difficulty and according to the degree of familiarity that students have with the corresponding type of text. They will start with the translation of commercial texts (e.g. some business letters, an invoice and an excerpt of a marine open

cargo policy) and will continue with the translation of two corporate documents (e.g. the minutes of a meeting of a board of directors and an independent auditors' report). Orozco states that, given the high proliferation of these kinds of documents, this is an appropriate type of document to work on, since students can quickly recognize the text type and its function, and can easily find parallel texts in both languages (Orozco, 2003d). According to her, the only precaution that must be taken is to select texts that are not too specialized so that the problems do not present a high level of difficulty. In the second section, more centred on the product of translation than on the process, students will translate two articles from the economic press and then two articles from the financial press.

With regard to the final project of the course, which could be carried out in groups of four or five, students are expected to learn how to use a different computer-aided translation tool from those that they already know. With that purpose, we chose a very user-friendly computer tool (CatsCradle) used for the translation or localization of webpages and websites. Doing so, apart from developing the competences which are directly related to translation and information technology (the ability to understand and apply localization techniques through translation, the ability to choose and use the computer tools applicable to translation and the ability to apply the most common techniques of computer-aided translation in their

professional environment), it is possible to develop their ability to work in a team, which is essential for a successful integration into the labor market. With the aim of increasing the corpus when working with a larger number of types of texts, we opted for the translation of a corporate website selected by the students themselves.

5. IN-CLASS SESSIONS AND INDEPENDENT STUDY

As has already been described, students' in-class work is developed during sessions that are fundamentally devoted to skill-acquisition tasks or awareness-raising tasks. Nevertheless, in order to prevent students from merely listening and taking notes and to make them participate actively, it is also advisable to do some other activities that are not as linked to the mere analysis or correction of translations.

For certain sessions, we propose other in-class activities, which are generally in groups and supervised by the teacher. These are some examples:

1. The lecturer gives students a list or table with all the bibliography items present in the library that are useful for general and specialized economic, financial and commercial translation. Students are asked to make workgroups,

go to the library, glance through the reference books and attempt to fill in the table with the information missing: type of document (general monolingual dictionary, specialized bilingual dictionary and so on) and use (why it is useful for translation and when it should be used). Later in class, all the information is shared. The aim of this activity is not only to make students familiar with the documents available for doing their job but also to work on some competences such as the ability to do research, the ability to carry out research tasks and to look for information and specialized documents, and the ability to do conceptual and terminological research.

2. Students are asked to comment in groups on a translation which has been previously done individually at home and to prepare a final version of the translation, agreed by consensus, that they will hand in at the end of the class. For that, they should be able to, among other things, justify the translation strategies used and defend the terminology selected, but at the same time, they should be able to accept constructive criticism from their classmates, admit their own mistakes

and correct them. The aim of this activity is therefore to develop students' ability to work with critical thinking, the ability to work in a team and the ability to consider alternatives and make justifiable decisions.

3. The lecturer gives students a corpus with different corporate documents written in English. They are asked to analyze those documents in groups and, at the end of the class, to hand in a list of the documents with their names in English and their equivalent terms in Spanish, with a short description of each document and its function. The basic objective of this activity is to familiarize students with this type of document, to work on their ability to understand economic, financial and commercial texts in English, and to work on their ability to do research and to look for information and specialized documents.

However, we want students to have a leading role, since they have the primary responsibility for their own learning¹, so their homework is also very important. This autonomous work involves mainly the preparation or execution of individual and

¹ In the European Higher Education Area (EHEA), students become active agents of their own learning and teachers become facilitators and managers of the students' learning.

group tasks or projects: on the one hand, they have to carry out a linguistic analysis and/or pre-translation, the translation exercises mentioned above, the terminological glossary (with equivalent terms) and the translation dossier; on the other hand, they will have to carry out a final project that involves the localization of a corporate website.

For the exercise of linguistic analysis, or pre-translation, we used the model designed by Hurtado (1999b, p. 114). Although this activity had been already done in previous subjects of general direct translation, we considered that it was appropriate to present again the rubric to the students and to remind them about the importance of this type of analysis as an indispensable step before translating.

In relation to the terminological glossary, students are asked to collect all the terminological units that have appeared in the texts during the course and to present a selection of them at the end with their Spanish equivalents and a definition of the concept either in English or in Spanish. The main objective of the project is to develop students' ability to learn and to manage their own learning, the ability to apply techniques and to acquire terminology from specialized translation, the ability to carry out research tasks and to look for information and specialized documents, the ability to adequately manage and keep the information and documentation which is necessary for carrying out

their job, and the ability to do conceptual and terminological research.

Finally, with regard to the translation dossier, students are asked, after correcting the translation exercises during the face-to-face sessions, to detect and solve the mistakes in their own work and to prepare a final proofread version of each translation exercise. These final texts must be included in a dossier and handed in at the end of the course. It is important for students not to merely copy the versions suggested by their classmates or the lecturer, or to hand in a new translation of the text, but to be able to analyze their own work based on those proposals and suggestions and to change just what is necessary. With that purpose, it is also essential to take into account the correction of each exercise that the lecturer will give the students. The basic purpose of this task is therefore to make students learn from their mistakes. However, they are also expected to develop some other competences such as their ability to work with motivation for quality, their ability to learn and manage their self-learning throughout their professional lives and their ability to consider alternatives and take justifiable decisions.

6. ASSESSMENT AND CORRECTIONS

There is a great variety of methods used for assessing translations in undergraduate education (see Waddington, 1999). However, we opted for an

error analysis-based method, since we consider that those methods are more objective than the holistic ones, which are based on the teacher's own impressions. The assessment is thus carried out through the study of the types of errors made (which are classified according to a certain scale). The grade or mark is calculated by adding up the negative points arising from this analysis (each type of error is given a fixed weighting) and then subtracting that number from the number of positive points of the exercise (normally, 10).

It is very useful to use the pedagogy of error for teaching translation. For Carmen Mata (2005), it is a way of forcing students to reflect on their own mistakes (and even those of their classmates) and the only possible way of reconstructing the student's translation process and intervening in it in order to extrapolate what has been learned to similar situations. If students do not reflect on the error and the lecturer just marks it, they will not be able to understand the reasons for the correction and, consequently, will not learn as they are expected. That is why it is important for Mata to devote some time in class for analyzing mistakes and trying to guess their causes, so that students can learn to label their errors and the assessment method becomes transparent.

Hurtado (1999b, p. 119) classifies translation problems as linguistic, extra-linguistic, textual and pragmatic problems. According to this

classification, she suggests a translation assessment scale for general and literary translation (see Hurtado, 1999b, p. 181; and Waddington, 1999, p. 240). Nevertheless, it has been verified that, using this classification of errors and this assessment method (designed for a text of 400 words), it is very difficult to label certain errors and, since most of the texts exceed 400 words, we are forced to modify the value given to each error in each exercise.

We decided to add a new type of error for inappropriate renderings related to terminology (“TERM”) – distinguishing between general lexical errors and errors related to the specific lexicon of the field. Moreover, we divided spelling and punctuation errors into spelling (“SP”) and typography (“TYP”). Regarding the value given to each error, we tried to establish that value according to its importance. Thus, we decided to use the following translation assessment scale, based on that of Hurtado (1999b, p. 181). We only classify errors, but we also indicate the points that should be taken off according to their significance:

Table 2. Translation assessment scale

1. Inappropriate renderings that affect the meaning of the ST <i>CONTRESENS</i> (CS) (-0.5) <i>FAUX SENSE</i> (FS) (-0.5) NON SENSE (NS) (-0.5) OMISSION (OM) (-0.5) ADDITION (AD) (-0.25) <i>IMPRECISION</i> (IM) (-0.25) INAPPROPRIATE RENDERING OF CULTURAL ELEMENTS (CULT) (-0.25) INAPPROPRIATE USE OF DIALECTS (DIA) (-0.25)
2. Inappropriate renderings that affect the expression in the TT SPELLING (SP) (-0.10) TYPOGRAPHY (TYP) (-0.10) GRAMMAR (GR) (-0.25) LEXICAL (LEX) (-0.25) TERMINOLOGY (TERM) (-0.25) TEXT (TX) (-0.25) STYLE (ST) (-0.10)
3. Inappropriate renderings related to pragmatics (PRAG) (-0.25)
Good renderings (GR) (+0.5)

With regard to the problem resulting from the fact that most of the texts exceed 400 words, we can simply multiply by a factor of 400. The following formula could be useful for the calculation and assessment of the translation exercise:

$$\text{FINAL GRADE} = \frac{\frac{no.ST}{400} - (e1 \times 0.10 + e2 \times 0.2 + e3 \times 0.5) + GR \times 0.5}{\frac{no.ST}{400}}$$

In this formula, *no.ST* refers the total number of words of the source text, *e1* to the first group of errors (which take off 0.10), *e2* to the second group of errors (which take off 0.25), *e3* to the third group of errors (which take off 0.5) and *GR* to the good renderings.

7. CONCLUSIONS

By way of conclusion, it is necessary to lay emphasis on certain aspects that could represent concrete solutions for some problems that may arise during the lecturing practice:

- 1) In establishing the objectives of a course of this kind, it is appropriate to take into account the concept of translation competence and all the sub-competences that comprise it, but we also recommend focusing on the aspects that bring students closer to the professional practice of translation.
- 2) In order to ensure that professional practice is present in class, it is useful that texts have constituted a real translation project, so that the lecturer can contextualize it, act as the initiator of the process and help students to carry out a contextual analysis.
- 3) So that the translation exercises are realistic but do not demotivate students, it is important that the lecturer order the texts according to the level of difficulty.
- 4) It is advisable to work with the largest possible number of types of texts that are present in this area of specialization.

5) The correction of the translation exercises should not be limited to presenting the students an “ideal” translation, but should involve correcting exercises (marking errors according to a scale), sharing the students’ translation proposals in class, and making students analyse their errors and proofread their translations.

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WRITING ABOUT THE DEAD: A CORPUS-BASED STUDY ON HOW TO REFER TO THE DECEASED IN ENGLISH VS. FRENCH OBITUARIES AND ITS CONSEQUENCES FOR TRANSLATION

Rudy Loock
Cindy Lefebvre-Scodeller

Université Lille Nord de France and UMR 8163 du
CNRS
Université de Limoges

Abstract

The aim of this article is to compare the use of referring expressions to the deceased in obituaries written in English and in French, with an aim to define implications for translation. While both grammatical systems provide speakers with similar expressions (First Name + Family Name, Family Name, Title + Name, First Name, Nickname, Lexical Descriptions with or without Names, Pronominal Forms), these do not show the same distribution and frequency. Through the study of Necrocorpus, a corpus of recent obituaries written in English and French, inter-language differences are uncovered and used for a discussion on the utilization of inter-language differences for translation training and quality assessment.

1. INTRODUCTION

The aim of this article is to compare the way writers refer to the deceased in obituaries written in English and French, with an aim to define inter-language differences in usage that need to be taken into account by translators. When referring to a person who has recently passed away, journalists have different possibilities: full name, family name only, full name preceded by a lexical description, lexical description without a name, pronominal forms and so on. While the English and French grammatical systems provide similar possibilities, our corpus-based study shows that these are not used in the same proportion, and that significant differences in language use exist between the two languages. A specific comparable corpus was compiled for the study, consisting of obituaries extracted from Anglo-American and French newspapers and magazines published online. Four recently deceased celebrities were chosen: Michael Jackson (1958-2009), Whitney Houston (1963-2012), Amy Winehouse (1983-2011), and Larry Hagman (1931-2012). The corpus, which is called Necrocorpus and was compiled within a corpus-based translation studies (CBTS) research project, the CorTEx project (Corpus, Translation, Exploration), comprises ca 100,000 words for a total of 100 obituaries.

As the study was conducted within a CBTS research project, the final aim of this article is

methodological for translation training, by establishing a link between contrastive linguistics and translation studies. We aim to show that it is important for translators to exploit inter-language differences to in determining usage constraints as defined in Loock (2010a), which are to be taken into account to provide natural-sounding translations (cf. Salkie's (1997) concept of naturalness) and avoid grammatically correct translations that nevertheless do not sound idiomatic. We claim that such a methodology, which has been used extensively for the translation of the lexicon but not so much for grammatical choices, is actually easy to implement, and of particular importance for the translation training of students as well as for translation quality assessment.

The article is organized as follows. An overall description of the study is given in section 2; section 3 provides detailed information on corpus material, methodology, as well as the theoretical background. The results of the corpus study are given in section 4 and are discussed thoroughly in section 5.

2. OVERALL DESCRIPTION OF THE STUDY

For this study, we have chosen a specific type of text, namely newspaper/magazine obituaries, which can be defined as articles relating someone's death,

together with a biographical note of varying length. Although newspapers and magazines publish two types of obituaries – edited obituaries written by journalists on the death of public figures, and private obituaries generally written by the family of the deceased – our corpus-based study here concerns edited obituaries only, which were published on the internet by well-known websites of American/British and French newspapers and magazines. The reason why we have chosen this specific type of text is that we wanted to show that inter-language (or cross-linguistic) differences can easily be defined no matter what the type of text is, thanks to a methodology that can easily be implemented for translation training, providing inexperienced students with valuable information.

The informational content and text structure of edited obituaries written in English are generally very similar from one obituary to the next, as emphasized by Moses and Marelli (2004), who claim that “[t]he template for the edited obituaries is quite predictable, with most of the elements and their order obligatory” (Moses & Marelli, 2004, p. 125): statement of who died, why s/he was an important person, when and where s/he died, life and career in reverse order, list of family members.

The linguistic phenomenon retained for this corpus study is referring expressions to the deceased, that is, any noun phrase referring to the celebrity, whether lexical or pronominal, first occurrence or

anaphoric expression. We chose this linguistic phenomenon as there are multiple linguistic ways of referring to an animate entity in the physical world (we retained eight possibilities here, see below), the choice between them being mostly motivated by pragmatic considerations. Also, the parallels between the two languages that were selected for this corpus study, and which have the possibility to resort to similar referring expressions, make such a linguistic phenomenon a good candidate for inter-language differences. In turn, we would like to show that the uncovering of such differences can be utilized as a usage constraint by translators.

3. CORPUS MATERIAL, METHODOLOGY AND THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

3.1 General description

A comparable¹ corpus, Necrocorpus, was compiled for this study. A selection of obituaries written in English and French was collected, relating to the death of four celebrities famous on an international

¹ We refer here to the opposition between parallel (also called translation) corpus, that is “a bilingual or multilingual corpus that contains one set of texts in two or more languages” and comparable corpus, which consists of the adding up of “corpora in two or more languages with the same or similar composition” (Teubert, 1996, p. 245, 247).

level: Michael Jackson, Whitney Houston, Amy Winehouse, and Larry Hagman. In total, 100 obituaries were collected (50 in English and 50 in French) for a total of 96,605 words. The obituaries were extracted from online newspapers and magazines (e.g. *The Times*, *The New York Times*, *The Independent*, *The Guardian*, *USA Today* for English; *Le Figaro*, *Libération*, *L'Express*, *Le Point*, *20 Minutes*, *Closer* for French). Necrocorpus was compiled in November 2012 but the articles retained were published in the days following the death of the celebrities. It should be noted that although the corpus is balanced in terms of number of obituaries, this is not the case if we compare the number of words: the English subcorpus contains 62,377 words whereas the French subcorpus contains 34,128 words. This can be explained by the fact that French obituaries are systematically much shorter than English obituaries (1,248 words per English obituary vs. 683 words per French obituary). One reason for this may be the fact that obituaries do not represent such a well-established, distinct genre in the French press as opposed to the Anglo-American press (Revaz, 2001). Necrocorpus is thus balanced in terms of variety (50 articles per language) and it is on this basis that we consider it to be a comparable corpus. Table 1 provides a summary of the content of the corpus.

Table 1. Content of Necrocorpus.

Subcorpus	English			French		
	Number of articles	Number of words /tokens	Number of words /tokens per article	Number of articles	Number of words /tokens	Number of words /tokens per article
#Jackson	11	18 208	1 655	11	14 357	1 305
#Hagman	11	10 262	933	13	5 031	387
#Houston	13	16 373	1 259	12	8 113	676
#Winehouse	15	17 534	1 169	14	6 627	473
Total	50	62 377	1 248	50	34 128	683

3.2 Methodology

All obituaries were retrieved from the internet and saved as .txt files in UTF-8 format (to allow for the representation of accented letters), to be used with a concordancer, namely KWIC Concordance (http://www.chs.nihon-u.ac.jp/eng_dpt/tukamoto/kwic_e.html), developed by Satoru Tsukamoto, to automatically process all word counts. Each subcorpus was then analyzed manually to retrieve all references to the deceased by the authors of the obituaries, which were then listed in a table based on the different linguistic possibilities of referring to the deceased. In total, we distinguished eight possibilities, listed below (examples 1-8):

(1) First Name (+ Middle Name) + Family Name

(1a) Michael Jackson sold records by the million - and broke records too.

(1b) Michael Jackson, enfant prodige et génie de la musique, a été l'une des stars les plus adulées puis l'une des plus controversées, pour ses transformations physiques ou son mode de vie.

(2) Family Name

(2a) The popularity of "Dallas" made Hagman one of the best-paid actors in television and earned him a fortune that even a Ewing would have coveted.

(2b) En 1992, avec le blockbuster lacrymal *The Bodyguard*, dans lequel elle jouait le rôle principal, et sa chanson-phare *I Will Always Love You*, monumental tube, Houston était au sommet de sa popularité.

(3) First Name

(3a) Amy caught the performing bug so early that by the age of eight she was attending stage school.

(3b) En 2009, apparemment guérie de ses addictions, Whitney a même livré une interview confession à Oprah Winfrey dans laquelle elle décrit sa consommation de drogue comme une routine quotidienne.

(4) Lexical Description (+ First Name) + Family Name

(4a) DALLAS star Larry Hagman, who for more than a decade played villainous patriarch JR Ewing in the TV soap Dallas, has died at the age of 81, his family said today.

(4b) La chanteuse et actrice américaine Whitney Houston, l'une des artistes pop ayant vendu le plus de disques, est morte samedi à 48 ans dans un hôtel de Beverly Hills.

(5) Title + Family Name (Mr/Mrs/Mrs; M./Mme/Mlle)

(5a) Ms. Houston was found in her room at 3:55 p.m., and paramedics spent close to 20 minutes trying to revive her, the authorities said.

(5b) En plus de son épouse, M. Hagman laisse dans le deuil une fille, Kristina Hagman, un fils, Preston Hagman, et cinq petites filles.

(6) Nickname

(6a) "Wacko Jacko", as he was now called in the British tabloids, allegedly had an eating disorder, slept in an oxygen tent, tried to buy the remains of the Elephant Man, and wore a surgical mask on his rare public outings.

(6b) Malgré ses dettes, ses démêlés avec la justice américaine, des accusations de pédophilie et une existence de plus en plus fantomatique, "Bambi" – son surnom dans sa jeunesse – fut à la pointe de la société du spectacle.

(7) Lexical Description

(7a) Kristen Foster, a publicist, announced Saturday that the singer had died, and police sources later confirmed that she was found unresponsive in her room at the Beverly Hilton Hotel about 3:30 p.m.

(7b) Le chanteur américain est décédé jeudi à Los Angeles, à l'âge de 50 ans.

(8) Pronominal Forms

(8a) Indeed, at the start of her career she was known as the “Prom Queen of Soul” for her wholesome image.²

(8b) En 2010, elle avait dû annuler une partie de sa tournée européenne et être hospitalisée à Paris pour une infection respiratoire.

² We have included possessive pronouns in our list of pronominal forms. Although there is no consensus on this, some reference grammars (e.g. Quirk et al., 1985; Huddleston and Pullum, 2002) do consider that *my*, *your*, *his*, *her*... are possessive pronouns and it is this terminology that we use in this article instead of ‘possessive determiners/articles’ that is used by other grammar books. This is due to the fact that they can be replaced with a full noun phrase (*her career* = *Whitney Houston’s career*). As a consequence, to avoid any artificial imbalance in our corpus, the same was done for French and examples like *sa carrière* (meaning *la carrière de Whitney Houston*) were included, although possessives are not traditionally recognized as pronouns in the French language but as adjectives or determiners. The debate on the category to which possessives should belong is beyond the scope of this paper.

Only the referring expressions used by the authors of the obituaries were retained. We therefore excluded all references to the deceased from family, friends, or colleagues, which means that all text within quotation marks was discarded (9). We also excluded all mentions of the deceased that do not refer but predicate something about the deceased, as in the case of nominal appositives (10).³

(9) “Larry was back in his beloved Dallas re-enacting the iconic role he loved most,” his family said in a statement carried by the Morning News.

(10) Winehouse, a five-time Grammy winner whose distinctive fusion of jazz and soul influenced other young artists, was found dead in her London home Saturday.

Once the raw results were obtained for each language, inter-language differences were observed through the relative distribution of the different ways of referring to the deceased. Although Necrocorpus is not a multi-million-word corpuscomparable to well-known electronic

³ There is a lot of disagreement in the literature on the (non-)referring property of the second unit (U2) in an appositive structure. According to some authors (e.g. Acuña Fariña, 1996; Loock, 2010b) the apposed unit does not refer and does not belong to the main predication, the evidence being that it cannot trigger agreement with the verb. It is this description of appositives that we have retained when extracting data from our corpus.

corpora,⁴ a statistical test was used to determine whether the observed differences are statistically significant or not. As we compare two independent samples of original language brought together as a comparable corpus, we use the test called ‘Significance of the Difference Between Two Independent Proportions’, which calculates a z-ratio and provides a two-tailed p-value (the retained significance level is $p=0.02$), based on the raw results for the number of observations within our two samples (English and French texts). Statistical analyses were carried out online via the VassarStats website (<http://faculty.vassar.edu/lowry/>). These results are presented in detail in section 3.

3.3 Theoretical background and perspectives

The results of corpus-based contrastive linguistics are regularly utilized within the field of translation studies. A specific field, namely corpus-based translation studies (CBTS), has developed since the 1990s (see e.g. Baker, 1993; Johansson and Oksefjell, 1998; Laviosa, 2002) and aims at

⁴ While many researchers focus on the size of the sample (the bigger the better), “sample size is not the most important consideration in selecting a representative sample” (Biber, 1993, p. 243). With Necrocorpus, we have chosen short texts but their number (100) is quite high for this type of corpus. However, we do not claim that our corpus is sufficient to reach representativeness and we will remain very cautious in our discussion in section 5.

considering both inter-language differences (e.g. between English and French) and intra-language differences (e.g. between original and translated English). Our study here aims to establish a link between the two types of differences.

3.3.1 *Inter-language differences*

Through the use of comparable reference corpora of original language (e.g. British National corpus for British English, Frantext for French), many researchers have uncovered systemic differences between two or several linguistic systems. For instance, Cappelle and Loock (2013) have shown that although existential structures exist both in English (*there*-constructions) and French (*il y a*-constructions) and are often considered to be translationally equivalent (see e.g. Bergen & Plauché, 2005), there exists an extremely significant inter-language difference in their frequency of use, with existential constructions being much more frequent in English than in French.⁵ With the increasing availability of corpora since the 1990s, many contrastive studies have

⁵ Cappelle and Loock's (2013) corpus study relies on comparable corpora of post-1980 fiction texts in original English (15,909,312 words from the BNC), original French (11,365,626 words from Frantext), English translated from French (995,143 words from the Translational English (TEC) corpus (<http://www.llc.manchester.ac.uk/ctis/research/english-corpus>), and French translated from English (276,742 words from a self-collected corpus). See Cappelle and Loock (2013, pp. 256-259) for more information.

relied on such inter-language comparisons (for a series of recent case studies, see Aijmer & Altenberg, 2013). Such contrastive information can then be used by translator trainees and translators to respect the usage norms of the target language, by for instance not systematically translating English existential *there*-constructions with French existential *il y a*-constructions. In the same vein, our study aims to uncover such systemic differences between the English and French grammatical systems for referring expressions in obituaries.

3.3.2. Intra-language differences

In parallel, through the use of comparable and/or parallel corpora, researchers in the field have shown that translated language systematically differs from original language, bringing evidence for the existence of a third code. While much of the literature on the subject has accounted for such intra-language differences with translation universals as defined originally by Baker (1993), explaining that differences are a natural phenomenon and the result of universal tendencies by translators independently of the source and target languages (hence the term ‘universals’), other researchers have suggested that the source language does play a role. For instance, Cappelle and Loock (2013) have shown that existential constructions in English and French show extremely significant intra-language differences,

with existential constructions being more frequent in French translated from English than in original French and less frequent in English translated from French than in original English. As existential constructions show an extremely significant inter-language difference in frequency (see above), the intra-language results are interpreted as being the result of source-language interference, also contra translation universals. It is then suggested by these researchers that the observed intra-language differences might be correlated with translation quality, and that CBTS results can provide tools for translation teaching and translation evaluation. To such researchers, translated texts and original texts should be homogeneous as far their linguistic characteristics are concerned:

“The smaller the disparity between native and translated usage in the use of particular grammatical structures associated with specific meanings, the higher the translation rates for quality.”
(Rabadán et al., 2009, p. 323)

Such an approach belongs to the (non-consensual) conception that a translation should not reveal itself to be a translation (cf. concept of the invisible translator, see Venuti, 1995) and that “[t]he utopian goal is to make it virtually impossible to tell the translation from an original text in that language” (Teubert, 1996, p. 241), with translators providing

translations that are as natural-sounding as possible.

Our study here takes up the same position: if there are significant inter-language differences in referring expressions in English and French obituaries, then this information should be utilized by translators to try and minimize intra-language differences. What our study aims to emphasize is the link between the two types of differences: differences in usage, if any, should be defined as a usage constraint, to be taken into account by translators. If such an approach has been adopted widely for the translation of the lexicon, in particular technical vocabulary for which traditional dictionaries do not provide sufficient information (Kübler et al., 2010; Van Campenhout & Temmerman, 2011; Bertels & Verlinde, 2011; Bowker, 2003; Zanettin et al., 2003), it remains very limited for the choice of grammatical or morphological phenomena.⁶ The aim of our study is also methodological: we aim to show that compiling such a comparable corpus is a good way to sensitize translation students on the existence of inter-language differences for linguistic expressions that seem to be equivalent.

⁶ Although the different possible referring expressions include lexical descriptions, we consider the phenomenon under study here to be a grammatical phenomenon, as we are dealing with a grammatical choice between different possibilities to refer to the same animated entity.

4. RESULTS

4.1 Relative distribution of referring expressions

If we consider the overall results for English and French, we notice both similarities and differences in the way reference to the deceased is linguistically achieved. If pronominal forms are naturally the most represented as the deceased represents the discourse topic throughout the article, other referring expressions are used, but not with the same relative distribution. It is interesting to note that the proportion of pronominal vs. lexical forms is identical in English and French: 67% to 33% for French vs. 70% to 30% for English (the difference is statistically insignificant; $z=1.73$ and $p=0.0836$). The two diagrams in Figure 1 provide a summary of the results. Table 2 provides the detailed results, both raw and as percentages (note that raw results are clearly insufficient here, as the two sub-corpora English and French are balanced in terms of texts but not of words).

Figure 1. French-English comparison

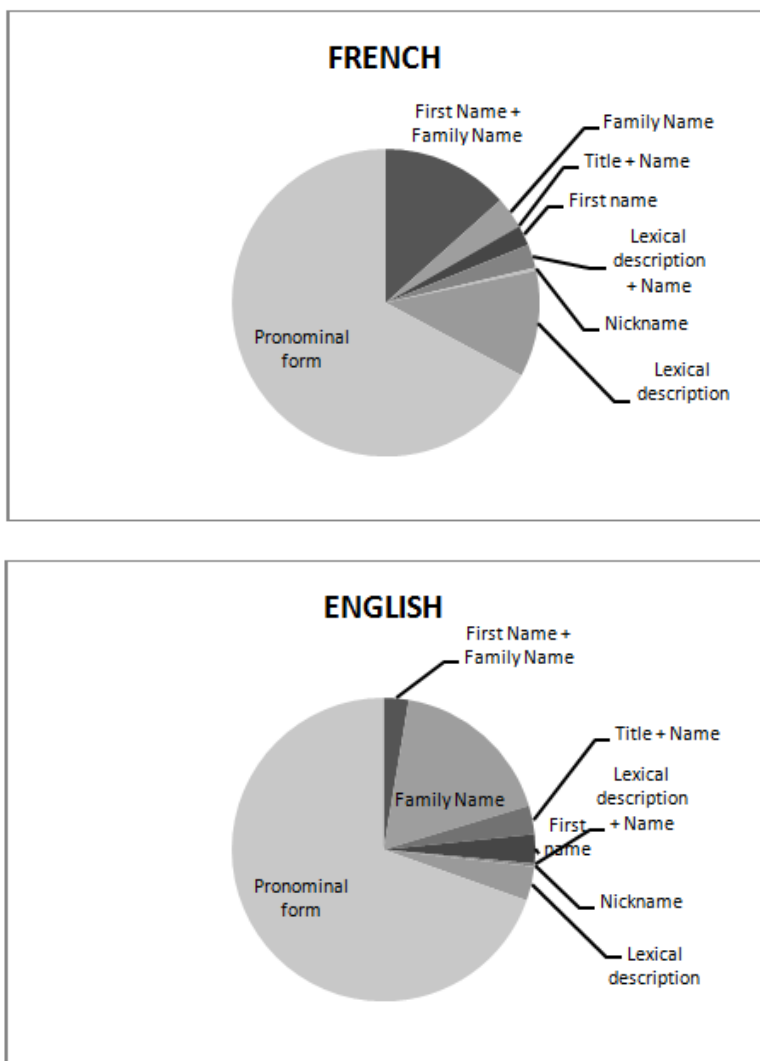


Table 2. French-English comparison (raw results and percentage)

	French	English
First Name + Family Name	215 (13.4%)	95 (2.7%)
Family Name	52 (3.2%)	633 (17.7%)
Title + Name	2 (0.1%)	109 (3%)
First Name	34 (2.1%)	111 (3.1%)
Lexical Description + Name	40 (2.5%)	11 (0.3%)
Nickname	5 (0.3%)	1 (0.03%)
Lexical Description	180 (11.2%)	130 (3.6%)
Pronominal Forms	1 080 (67.2%)	2 492 (69.6%)
TOTAL	1608 (100%)	3582 (100%)

What we notice is that while all referring expressions are used in both languages, some of them are only marginally represented in one of the two languages under study and some others show a significant inter-language difference in distribution. This is the case of the Title + Name expression (e.g. *Mr. Jackson*), which is hardly ever used in French at all (statistical test inapplicable as $n < 5$ for French). On the other hand, the combination Lexical Description + Name (e.g. *American singer Michael Jackson*) is hardly ever present in the English part of Necrocorpus ($z = -7.364$; $p < .0002$).

Other major differences concern the use of a Family Name (e.g. *Jackson*), quite common in English but quite rare in French ($z=14.21$; $p<.0002$); on the other hand French regularly resorts to the full name of the deceased (First Name + Family Name, e.g. *Michael Jackson*), whereas English uses the expression with a much lower frequency ($z=-15.067$; $p<.0002$). Other differences concern the use of lexical descriptions without name (e.g. the American singer): although they are used in both languages, their frequency is not similar with lexical descriptions being used much more frequently in the French than in the English obituaries ($z=-10.634$; $p<.0002$). Below (section 3.2) we discuss the informational content conveyed by these lexical descriptions.

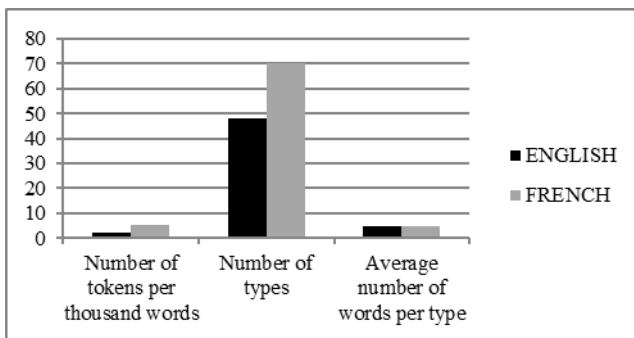
The other results, First Names (e.g. *Michael*) and Nicknames (e.g. *Bambi*) show no statistical differences ($z=-1.99$; $p=0.0466$ for First Names; test inapplicable for Nicknames as $n<5$ for English), the latter being marginal in both languages.

4.2 A note on lexical descriptions

Special attention has been paid to lexical descriptions. Although we have noted a significant inter-language difference in the frequency of lexical descriptions in English and French, it is interesting to notice that in our corpus of obituaries, writers in both languages quite regularly resorted to

definite lexical descriptions to refer to the deceased, which are generally associated with new information. Beyond their frequency, we have thus investigated the informational content of these referring expressions. Two parameters were investigated: we compared: 1) the number of words of lexical descriptions, and 2) their lexical variety (type/token ratio). The results are summarized in Figure 2.

Figure 2. Lexical descriptions in the English and French subcorpora



What we notice is that French lexical descriptions show a higher number of types (70 types for 335 tokens) than English lexical descriptions (48 types for 219 tokens), but in terms of proportions, this difference is not statistically significant ($z=-0.287$; $p=0.7741$). This means that French lexical descriptions show as much variety as English lexical descriptions. As far as the average number of words per type is concerned, our English and

French subcorpora show similar results: 4.56 words per type for English vs. 4.78 words per type for French. In both languages, some lexical descriptions are quite long (11) while some of them (the most frequently used) are very short (12). The distinction that we make here is reminiscent of Ariel's distinction between long and short definite descriptions (1-2 content words vs. 3+ content words), which "have radically different discourse profiles" (Ariel, 2007, p. 273). While short descriptions like *the singer* or *the star* (12) only refer without providing extra information about the deceased (such descriptions are informationally poor but serve to focus on some particular aspect of the referent (Ariel 1990, p. 201), this is not the case of longer descriptions (11), which convey supplementary information about the deceased: information which is not present elsewhere in the discourse but which the writer considers to be relevant for the addressees (reminding them of the awards that the deceased won during her career [11b]) or which s/he aims to convey as a personal, subjective judgment (11c).

(11a) the once incandescent star who paved the way to pop success for other African-American singers such as J. Jackson, Mariah Carey and Mary J. Blige, and has been cited by the likes of Beyoncé, Alicia Keys, Jennifer Hudson, Britney Spears, Christina Aguilera and Leona Lewis for inspiring them to become singers (51 words)

(11b) celle qui a remporté deux Emy Awards, six Grammy Awards, 30 Billboard Music Awards, 22 American Music Awards au cours de sa carrière (23 words)

(11c) celle dont le refrain le plus connu restera sans doute aussi comme l'un des plus sincères de tous les temps, "I don't want to go to rehab" (28 words)

(12a) the singer (18 occurrences for Jackson, 23 for Winehouse)

(12b) the star (8 occurrences for Houston, 4 for Jackson and Winehouse)

(12c) le chanteur (32 occurrences for Jackson)/la chanteuse (23 occurrences for Houston, 21 for Winehouse)

(12d) l'acteur (6 occurrences for Hagman)

These results for lexical descriptions actually partly go against generalities on overall inter-language differences between English and French. Many English-French translation textbooks have underlined the low tolerance of French for the repetition of linguistic elements, a difference paving the way for the use of co-referential lexical descriptions with low semantic content (use of hyperonyms like *le chanteur* or *l'acteur* for instance). It is also generally assumed that in French, for stylistic reasons (for example avoidance of repetition), lexical descriptions show lexical variety. On the other hand, the English language is said to tolerate repetition of linguistic elements, which suggests that repeating referring expressions

should not be a problem. Although it is true that in our corpus French lexical descriptions are more frequent than English descriptions, these referring expressions are identical in variety and length.

5. DISCUSSION

The analysis of Necrocorpus shows that referring to the deceased is done through the use of the same types of referring expressions in English and in French, but although all expressions are grammatically acceptable, language use varies cross-linguistically, as English and French writers use referring expressions with different frequencies.

What we want to discuss here is that such inter-language/cross-linguistic differences can be exploited within a CBTS approach by translators as a usage constraint. Comparable and parallel corpora are now extensively used for the training of translation students, with the aim of providing authentic, natural-sounding translations that do not deviate from the target language norms. However, such uses seem to be mostly restricted to the lexicon, in particular technical vocabulary in specialized texts. Some researchers have nevertheless shown that corpora can also provide valuable clues for lexicogrammatical choices, that is, information on the linguistic co-text for specific words (e.g. Gledhill, 2011).

Our position is that the same corpus-based approach, through the use of comparable and parallel corpora, is also valid for purely grammatical phenomena (i.e. morphosyntactic choices). When it comes to providing translations that sound natural and idiomatic, that is to say translations that do not deviate significantly enough from target language norms to be perceived as resulting from a translation process, grammatical choices also matter. According to our hypothesis, if a translated text shows an over- or an underrepresentation of a grammatical phenomenon as opposed to original/non-translated texts, then the translation might sound unnatural and reveal itself to be a translation. If one considers that a good translator should remain invisible, this means that the quality of the translation should be improved, and that original and translated texts should show roughly similar linguistic characteristics (of course, individual texts will vary, be they original texts or translated texts, but we are considering translated language in general here).

It has recently been shown (Loock et al., 2014) that some kind of correlation can be found between the overrepresentation of a grammatical phenomenon in translated texts, namely derived adverbs in translated French (adjective suffixation with *-ment*: *rapidement, naturellement*), and the overall quality of students' translation tasks as evaluated

independently.⁷ Through the study of a ca 400,000-word learner corpus of English-to-French literary texts, it has been shown that the more students use *-ment* adverbs in their translations, the less successful they are in providing a high-quality translation.⁸ Although this specific linguistic phenomenon cannot be used as the sole evaluation criterion for the quality of a translation, it seems that grammatical choices could be indicative of the overall quality of a translation task.

⁷ The notion of quality when applied to translated texts is a difficult question. Theoretical, pedagogical and professional approaches provide different definitions of what a good translation is supposed to be (see for example Secară, 2005). Here we are considering the pedagogical approach: a good translation must not only be faithful to the original text but also be written in a language that corresponds to the linguistic norms of the target language, that is to say the original text must sound natural and idiomatic and not like the product of a translation process.

⁸ The equivalent of *-ment* adverbs in English is *-ly* adverbs (*quickly, naturally*). Although French *-ment* adverbs and English *-ly* adverbs are considered translationally equivalent (lexical gaps and semantic problems aside), the two types of derived adverbs show an extremely significant inter-language difference with *-ly* adverbs being much more used in original English than *-ment* adverbs are in original French. This is due to stylistic considerations: *-ment* adverbs are considered long and cumbersome by French speakers.

In the study mentioned here, the number of original *-ly* adverbs in the English original texts was compared to the number of *-ment* adverbs in the students' translations, in order to avoid any influence of variation in the original texts.

If we consider the linguistic phenomenon under investigation here, referring expressions to an animate entity in obituaries (the deceased), the observed inter-language differences between English and French could help translation trainees provide translations of obituaries that respect the target-language norms as far as referring expressions are concerned. For instance, faced with the different grammatical possibilities from which a choice has to be made, translators can make use of what information a comparable corpus provides to make their decision. Knowing that the combination Title + Name (e.g. *Mr. Jackson*) is not used in French obituaries will lead them to select another referring expression for their translations of English obituaries into French. This allows translators to provide natural-sounding translations that respect the target language norms (usage constraint). However, it is important to remember that individual texts vary and translators should bear in mind that inter-language differences uncovered through the use of a corpus should never be applied as a hard and fast rule. It is also important to realize that such a quantitative cross-linguistic corpus-based study is not sufficient. Uncovering the frequencies of the different grammatical possibilities of referring to the deceased in English and French obituaries does not specify *when* any given referring expression should be used. This means that in addition to the general quantitative analysis provided in this article, a finer-grained,

qualitative analysis is required to uncover patterns of use. This is left open for future research.

From a methodological point of view, our corpus-based study shows that compiling a small corpus of specific texts and retrieving information to help translators provide more authentic translations is not as technical, time-consuming and tedious a task to carry out as one might think. Such a small corpus, even though it cannot be compared with a multi-million-word corpus, can already provide valuable information that translators can use to improve their translations (for instance, English to French translators should refrain from translating a proper name with a proper name only and either include the first name or use a lexical expression instead), and can serve as a pilot corpus within a more general project.⁹ Although the digital revolution of the late 20th to early 21st centuries has made electronic corpora easier to access (for instance, the BNC and the COCA are available online free of charge), constantly larger (the COCA now comprises more than 450,000,000 words and Frantext about 250,000,000 words, not to mention the newly born GloWbe corpus and its 1.9 billion words), and increasingly varied in their content (specific registers, original vs. translated language), their use has not been generalized in translation training and in professional translators' lives. A survey conducted in 2005 within the European

⁹ A follow-up study with students in a Master's programme at the University of Lille 3 is already underway (Loock, 2014).

MeLLANGE project (Multilingual eLearning in LANguage Engineering, <http://mellange.eila.univ-paris-diderot.fr/index.en.shtml>) has revealed that professional translators only rarely exploit corpora. While 60% of the British, French Italian and German translator responders do compile texts to help them in their translation tasks, only a third actually exploit these texts as a corpus beyond simple searches using the search function in their word processor. In the academic world, the use of corpora seems for the moment to be restricted to the training of students for the translation of technical texts with a distinctive vocabulary. We hope to have shown here that compiling a small comparable corpus to compare source-language norms and target-language norms is actually easy to realize and provides valuable information to guide grammatical choices made by translators. In translation training, the compiling of such a pilot corpus could represent a first step in helping students realize that inter-language differences in language use exist, even when structures seem to be translationally equivalent, and that a grammatically correct translation may not suffice.

6. CONCLUSION

With this specific corpus study, we have shown that inter-language differences in language use can easily be uncovered and provide valuable information for both contrastive linguistics and translation studies. However, such an approach to

translation is not without criticism and problems, the main question being to what extent the phenomena that have been observed through the exploitation of a specific corpus can be generalized. Variation needs to be taken into account, and although obituaries seem to be quite codified linguistically, there must be some variation between writers, or even the kind of celebrity under consideration. It would be interesting to compare our results with results for obituaries of politicians like Margaret Thatcher for instance, but also with other, non-Anglo-American celebrities. Also, a more qualitative approach is necessary to provide information on the kinds of contexts in which each of the referring expressions appears, as they cannot be in free variation. As far as translation strategies are concerned, such a corpus-based approach may lead to a stereotypization of translated language, with French-to-English translators never using full names (*Michael Jackson*) for instance. Also, a lot of research has shown that the third code exists and that intra-language differences between original and translated texts are a reality, even when translations are done by skilled professional translators. It would be interesting to observe translated obituaries and see to what extent they differ from original obituaries. Very importantly, it also remains to be proven that grammatical choices in translated texts do matter and can be correlated with the quality of translated texts. All these questions lay the groundwork for future research.

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EXPLICITATION AND IMPLICITATION IN BACK- TRANSLATION

Anikó Makkos
Edina Robin

Eötvös Loránd University
University of West Hungary

Abstract

The aim of this study was to test Klaudy's (2001) asymmetry hypothesis in the context of translation competence. Our main focus was to find out whether there is a connection between the expertise of translators and their explicitating and implicitating tendencies in back-translation. On the basis of previous research (Makkos & Robin, 2011) we assumed that the disappearance of shifts in back-translation is related to the professional competence of the translator. It was also hypothesized that translators perform different types of explicitation and implicitation, according to their relative competence. The back-translation task was administered to secondary school students, translation trainees, and professional translators. The results of the study support our hypotheses. Professional translators eliminated the highest number of shifts in back-translation, while secondary school students performed the lowest number of transfer operations. The research supported Klaudy's asymmetry hypothesis and thus indirectly Blum-Kulka's (1986) explicitation hypothesis, which we propose to complement with the hypothesis of explicit saturation.

1. EXPLICITATION AND IMPLICITATION

In the last three decades, since Blum-Kulka (1986) put forward her now well-known hypothesis, explicitation has been widely studied and its characteristics researched. As a result, explicating shifts are generally considered one of the universals of translation in the field. Also, Klaudy's (2001) asymmetry hypothesis has provided further evidence for the universal nature of explicitation, and called attention to the importance of examining implicitating shifts as well. However, the studies so far have been limited to studying textual characteristics, frequencies, and only a few researchers have focused on exploring the factors influencing the occurrence of explicating and implicitating shifts (Toury, 2004). Therefore, the aim of the present paper is to examine Klaudy's asymmetry hypothesis – the asymmetric relationship of explicating and implicitating shifts – in relation to translation competence.

1.1 Defining explicitation and implicitation

It was Vinay and Darbelnet (1995, pp. 342–344.) who first introduced the concept of explicitation and implicitation to translation theory. These textual phenomena were then defined as stylistic techniques resulting from general translational operations, arising generally on sentence level and

following the norms of the target language. This definition takes explicitation as a means of making something explicit in the target language which was left implicit in the source text because the information could be deduced from the given situation. Besides explicitation, the two scholars took into consideration its operational counterpart, implicitation as well, among other stylistic techniques. It is “the process of allowing the target language situation or context to define certain details which were explicit in the source language” (Vinay & Darbelnet 1995, p. 344). Later empirical studies have aimed to shed more light on the special features of explicating and implicating operations, broadening the domain of the two opposing phenomena (Seguinot, 1988; Englund Dimitrova, 2005).

1.2 The typology of explicitation and implicitation

Klaudy (1999) expanded the original understanding of these concepts (offered originally by Vinay and Darbelnet [1958]) by setting up a typology for explicating and implicating shifts. She defined explicitation not only as a translational technique used on the basis of conscious decisions on the part of the translator, but took into account the differences present between the two languages involved in translation, rendering explicitation a compulsory and automatic operation. Therefore Klaudy differentiates between phenomena which

are language specific, and those which are not. In her typology there are four different types of these operations (Klaudy, 1999, p. 9) as shown below:

Obligatory: motivated by differences in the syntactic and semantic structures of the two languages; without them target language sentences would be ungrammatical.

(e.g. Hun → Eng: inserting personal pronouns into the sentences.)

Optional: motivated by differences in text building strategies and stylistic preferences between languages; without them target language sentences might seem unnatural.

(e.g. Hun → Eng: using non-finite present participle forms instead of subordinate clauses.)

Pragmatic: motivated by differences between cultures; without them the members of the target cultures would miss out on certain cultural meanings in the source text.

(e.g. Hun ↔ Eng: defining, explaining culture-based realias.)

Translation-inherent: motivated by the nature of the translation process; without them the target text might be difficult to process for the recipients of the target text.

(e.g. Hun ↔ Eng: adding connectives to create a more comprehensible, coherent text.)

Language-specific operations refer to obligatory and optional explicitations, those phenomena which can be explained by the expectations of the target language system, whereas pragmatic and translation-inherent operations are performed by the translator in order to produce a target text that is clearer, less ambiguous and easier to process for the reader. The above categories were set up by Klaudy with regard to explicitation but the same categories also apply to those transfer operations which involve implicitation. Klaudy states that explicitation and implicitation are in fact “operational supercategories” (2004, p. 72) including almost all lexical and grammatical transfer operations.

Englund Dimitrova (2005, p. 236) differentiates between two types of explicitation: norm-based and strategic transfer operations. Norm-based explicitation is connected to specific language pairs and text types, and is realised when certain types of phenomena occur in such frequency and regularity that they can be considered norms. However,

strategic explicitation serves as a means to overcome translational difficulties. Strategic explicitation is therefore ad hoc in nature and shows greater diversity than norm-based explicating operations, arising from the translator's interpretation of the source text. Englund Dimitrova states that her two categories do not contradict those of Klaudy; obligatory and optional operations correspond to the norm-based category, while pragmatic and translation-inherent operations belong to the group of strategic explicitation and implicitation.

1.3 The explicitation hypothesis

The first systematic study of explicitation was conducted by Blum-Kulka (1986), where she examined shifts in cohesion and coherence (i.e. the effects of explicitation on translations at text level) and then formulated the so-called explicitation hypothesis:

The process of interpretation performed by the translator on the source text might lead to a TL text which is more redundant than the SL text. This redundancy can be expressed by a rise in the level of cohesive explicitness in the TL text. This argument may be stated as 'the explicitation hypothesis', which postulates an observed a cohesive explicitness from SL to TL texts

regardless of the increase traceable to differences between the two linguistic and textual systems involved. It follows that explicitation is viewed here as inherent in the process of translation. (Blum-Kulka, 1986, p. 19)

With the above statement Blum-Kulka paved the way for the theoretical assumption that explicitation is in fact a universal phenomenon, characteristic of all types of translated texts.

Although more and more studies are being conducted to test Blum-Kulka's hypothesis, there are those who question the universal nature of explicitation (Toury, 2004; Heltai, 2005; Baumgartner et al., 2008; Becher, 2010). Englund Dimitrova (2005, p. 40) makes an important statement regarding the universality of explicitation: "it must be concluded that if they are a universal phenomenon in translation, this should be taken to mean only that a *potential for explicitation* is universal in translation, not that it is by necessity always realized." Translators are affected by a number of factors and circumstances while translating, including professional experience, systemic differences between languages, as well as the actual make-up of the text to be translated, which might all serve as the basis for further research in order to fully understand the concept of explicitation as well as implicitation.

1.4 The asymmetry hypothesis

Klaudy (2001), while examining explicating and implicating transfer operations, came to the conclusion that obligatory explication is principally symmetric, that is, explication in one language direction is matched by implication in the other. These shifts she calls bidirectional or reciprocal transfer operations. In the case of optional and translation-inherent (unidirectional) explication, however, frequent asymmetry can be observed (Klaudy 1999, p. 14; 2001, p. 377). As a result, Klaudy proposes to complement Blum-Kulka's original hypothesis by arguing that explication and implication are not symmetric operations in translation; when given the choice, translators do not opt for implication, but rather prefer explication where they see an opportunity (2004, p. 74).

According to Klaudy, if empirical examinations were to support the asymmetry hypothesis through the study of implication, Blum-Kulka's original statement would also be supported. For this purpose she recommends the use of back-translation experiments. Klaudy herself has conducted such experiments (1996), examining whether elements inserted into the target text would be kept in back-translation while being translated from English into Hungarian. Her results show that obligatory explication naturally disappears through back-translation, but optional and

translation-inherent explicitation does not. Klaudy thus came to the conclusion that concise wording is not characteristic of inexperienced translators who are too afraid of losing important information (1996, p. 110).

2. RESEARCH AND DESIGN METHODS

During our research our main focus was whether there is a connection between the experience of translators and their explicating and implicating tendencies in back-translation, as regards the number, type and distribution of the identified operations. On the basis of the above statement by Klaudy (1996), we assumed that the disappearance of shifts in back-translation is related to the professional competence of translators. In reference to the level of explicitness, translations done by professionals are closest to the source text. Furthermore, it was also hypothesized that translators perform different types of explicitation and implicitation, according to their relative competence.

The back-translation task was administered to secondary school students, translation trainees and professional translators, with four participants in each group, twelve people in total. All participants were of Hungarian nationality, with Hungarian being their mother tongue. According to Neubert's definition (1994, p. 414), translation competence

consists of at least three subcompetences: linguistic, topical and transfer competence. He goes on to say that the last category is the dominant of the three, and is characteristic of professional translators only. For the administered translation task in our experiment, the participants were all in possession of the necessary linguistic skills, even the secondary school students. The topic of the text and its lexical make-up posed no difficulty for the participants either. Even the students in the last year of their secondary school studies were familiar with the subject matter. Therefore, as regards the subcompetences presented above, the only difference between the three groups could be detected in their transfer competence, the most dominant skill in Neubert's view.

The text used for the experiment came from the official exam preparatory course book for the intermediate level state language examination (Fodorné Sárközi & Sárosdy, 2002, p. 32), one of the official sample translations (from English into Hungarian) for the translation task in the key section. The already-translated text contains 291 words. The participants were asked to translate this text from Hungarian into English, unaware of the fact that they were actually performing back-translation. They were given no time limit for their work and were allowed to use dictionaries.

In the first step of our analysis we compared the number of words in the original English text, the

Hungarian translation and the English back-translation in order to examine whether we can find any indication as to the number of explicitating and implicitating shifts in the texts. The lengthening of the text is generally – although not unanimously – considered one of the indicators of explicitation (Klaudy, 1999). In the second step, we used contrastive text-analysis to identify the shifts present between the original English text and the Hungarian translation, using Klaudy's (1997) typology for lexical and grammatical transfer operations. Then the explicitating and implicitating phenomena were sorted into one of the above-mentioned four categories: obligatory, optional, pragmatic and translation-inherent. In the third step, we compared the back-translated English language text with the Hungarian translation with the purpose of examining which shifts the participants eliminated (reversed) through the back-translation from those identified in the second step, between the English original and the Hungarian translation. We were also looking for evidence that they performed additional explicitating and implicitating transfer operations. As a final step, we summarized our findings to detect any possible tendencies.

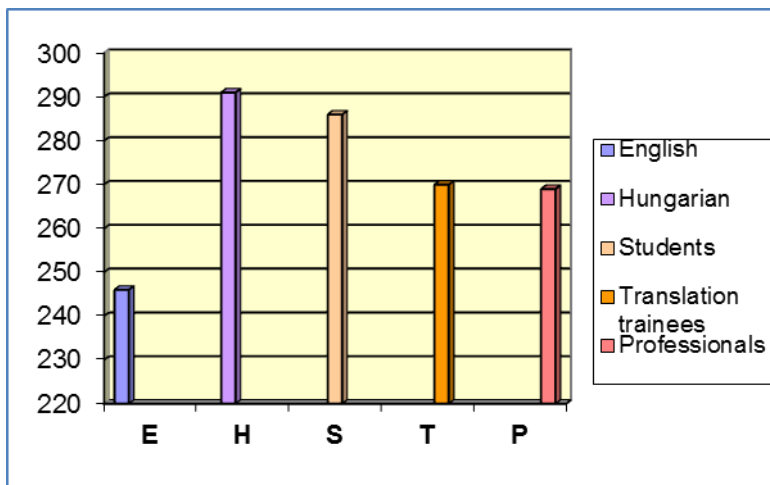
3. RESULTS

Our results are introduced and discussed step by step in the following. The important findings are summarized in figures and tables.

3.1 Number of words

First, we compared the number of words in the original English text with the same numbers in the translated Hungarian and back-translated English texts. By doing so we wanted to examine if we can relate the amount of explicitation and implicitation in the texts to the length of the texts.

Figure 1. The number of words in the texts



The numbers of words in the English source text (E), in the Hungarian translation (H) and in the back-translations (S, T and P) are shown in Figure 1. We can also see the differences between the groups which produced the back-translations (students, translation trainees and professional translators), based on the average number of words.

The original English text is much shorter than its translation into Hungarian (246 words compared with 291 words). The extended size allows us to think that the translator applied a large amount of shifts which involved explicitation. The task of our subjects was to translate the Hungarian text back into English. Although the back-translations are shorter than the Hungarian text, they are far longer than the original English text. Presumably not all of the explicitations disappeared during the back-translation process. As we can see in Figure 1, the back-translations by trainees and professionals are generally shorter, but there's still is a notable difference: 246 words (E) compared with 270 words (T) and 269 words (P).

3.2 Hungarian translation

The second step was a contrastive text analysis of the original English and the translated Hungarian texts to identify shifts according to Klaudy's typology of transfer operations (1997). We then put the explicitation and implicitation phenomena into four categories: obligatory, optional, pragmatic and translation-inherent. The results can be seen in Table 1.

Table 1. Explicitating and implicitating operations in the Hungarian translation

	Explicitation	Implication
Obligatory	26	0
Optional	24	10
Translation inherent	29	15
All	79	25

As it can be seen, the Hungarian translation is strongly explicitated: the number of explicitations is more than triple the number of implications. Apart from obligatory and optional operations, the translator applied translation-inherent operations as well, and their number is the highest in the translated Hungarian text. There are no pragmatic operations at all: it's possible the topic and the nature of the text did not make it necessary. It is worth mentioning here that most of the obligatory and optional operations were grammatical divisions, additions and upgrades, while translation-inherent operations included lexical divisions, additions and specifications. Our analysis showed a very high number of addition, (39), which may partly account for the remarkable increase in size (18%).

3. 3 Back-translations

3.3.1 *Implicated explicitating operations*

The third step of our analysis was to compare the back-translations with the Hungarian translation. We first wanted to see in the back-translations if the explicitating operations (Table 1) were implicated: how many and what types were omitted by the participants. Before discussing the results we would like to give some examples to illustrate the implication of explicitation shifts in back-translations.

1. **Obligatory**

English: Ø Women are more diet-conscious

Hungarian: A nők jobban odafigyelnek az étrendjükre

Back-translation: Ø Women pay more attention to their diet

2. **Optional**

English: ...worry about the **intake** of salt

Hungarian: ...törődik azzal, hogy **mennyi sót tartalmaz** az étrendje

Back-translation: ...care about their salt **consumption** in their diet

3. Translation-inherent

English: ...according to the market researcher Mintel...

Hungarian: A Mintel piackutató cég **felmérése** alapján...

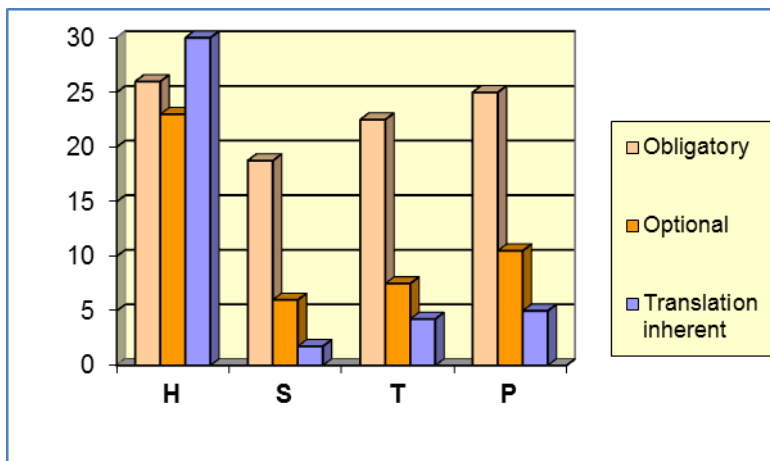
Back-translation: According to Mintel, a market research company...

The first example shows how the definite article added during the translation from English into Hungarian disappears in the back-translation. This kind of addition is an obligatory operation while transferring in the English-Hungarian direction and it is also obligatory to omit the article in the opposite direction if the translator's aim is to produce a grammatically correct target text. The second example shows an optional grammatical upgrading and downgrading. The translator used a new clause containing a verbal structure instead of the English nominal structure (*intake*). This operation was implicated by one of the translator trainees when they used a nominal structure (*consumption*) in their back-translation. These types of shifts are not obligatory: the texts would comply with the rules of the languages even if the modifications were not applied, but this participant used the version which is closer to the norms. The third example can be explained neither by language

rules nor by the usage. The translator inserted a noun (*felmérése*) which cannot be found in the source text to make the message clearer and easier to understand. During back-translation one of our professional translators did not keep this word, which was a redundant piece of information and accordingly omitted. As we will see, these types of operations are primarily typical of professional translators.

We also looked at and grouped together those explicating shifts which were implicated during back-translations and calculated their averages. The results and tendencies can be seen in Figure 2.

Figure 2. Explicating operations identified in the Hungarian translation and implicated in the back-translations



As the above figure shows, the number of explicitating operations identified in the Hungarian translation (H) and implicitated in the back-translations of students (S), translator trainees (T) and professionals (P) constantly grows in direct proportion to translation competence. The smallest number of shifts was detected in students' translations while the highest number was found in professionals' translations in all categories (obligatory, optional and translation-inherent). What this means is that professionals are able to produce a more concise text while secondary school students and translation trainees sometimes fail to perform even the obligatory operations. This result lends support to Klaudy's previously cited statement which states that concise phrasing is a skill novices do not possess. It is also worth noting that back-translations left most of the lexical additions – belonging to translation-inherent operations – untouched. This is the prime reason the number of words in the back-translations could not go down to the number of words in the original English text. Professionals are able to decrease the number of lexical redundancies in their translations the most.

3.3.2 Explicitated implicitating operations

The fourth step of our analysis was to examine how many and what types of implicitating operations were explicitated, that is, put back by our subjects in their back-translated texts. The types and

numbers of these implicating operations are also summarised in Table 1. Before discussing the results we again would like to give some examples to illustrate the explicitation of implicitation shifts in back-translations.

4. Obligatory

English: ...only one in two saying **she** did not count calories.

Hungarian: ...minden második mondta azt, hogy **Ø** nem számolja a kalóriát.

Back-translation: ...only every second said **she** does not count the calories.

5. Optional

English: ...how many of the population bought **products** marketed...

Hungarian: ...a lakosság hány százaléka vásárol olyan **élelmiszert**...

Back-translation: ...what percentage of the population buy **products** which...

6. Translation-inherent

English: ... four-fifths of **consumers** claim to eat meat ...

Hungarian: ... az **emberek** 4/5-e úgy nyilatkozott, hogy ...

Back-translation: ... 80% of the **respondents** consume meat ...

When we compared the English source text with its Hungarian translation and analysed the results, we

could not find any examples of implicitating operations which fall into the obligatory category. Example 4 demonstrates an optional operation in English-Hungarian direction but obligatory in the reverse direction. On one hand, omission of the personal pronoun (*she*) is optional when switching from English to Hungarian: the sentence is grammatically correct even if the translator does not leave out the personal pronoun, although omission results in a sentence which is closer to the norm. On the other hand, the translator can do nothing but add the personal pronoun when working in the Hungarian-English direction, as the operation is obligatory. Example 5 shows an optional shift in both directions. The grammatical substitution of the number of nouns – *products* (plural) → *élelmiszer* (singular) – is optional in both directions, and the translator obeys the usage when opting for this shift. Finally, example 6 is a translation-inherent lexical operation: the English noun (*consumers*) was translated into Hungarian with a noun (*emberek*) of more general meaning (*people*), and then one of our professional translators translated it back with another English noun (*respondents*), which has a more specific meaning compared to the Hungarian word. This choice could not have been influenced by grammar rules or language norms.

We also grouped the explicitated implicitating operations in back-translations and calculated their averages. The results show that there are no

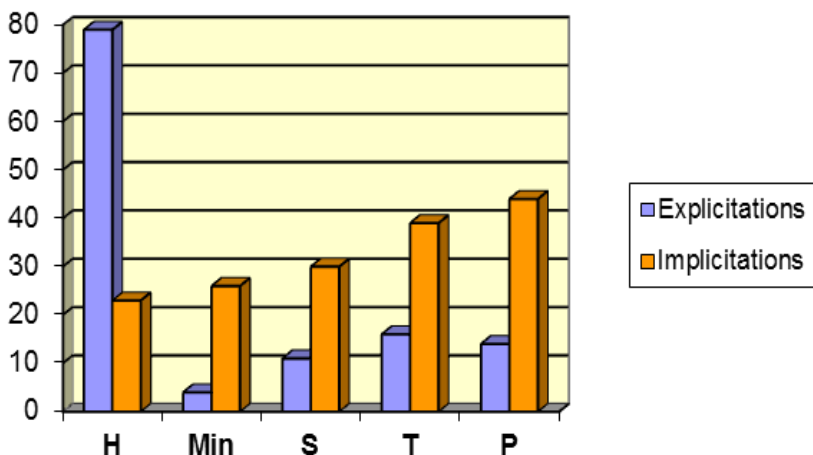
important differences between the groups of our subjects (<10%), so we cannot draw any definite conclusions here. What we can say is that most of the optional implicitations (75%) were explicitated – put back – in back-translations. Translation-inherent shifts were mainly applied by translator trainees and professionals and in very little numbers (<10%). These types of implicitations were not explicitated: our translators could not recover most lexical omissions, so what is once lost in the translation process cannot be recovered. After examining the back-translations of explicitating and implicitating operations we can conclude that there is some support here to Klaudy's asymmetry hypothesis of transfer operations.

3.3.3 All explicitations and implicitations

The small number of explicitating operations raised the question whether our participants carried out further explicitation or implicitation shifts beyond the explicitated and implicitated operations we have already discussed. That is why we performed another contrastive analysis of their translations and the Hungarian text they used as a source text and located more explicitations and implicitations carried out by the three groups. However, we could only find a few shifts (<10) and almost no differences between the groups.

There is thus no strong explicitation tendency in the back-translations, although the participants were not aware of the fact that their source text was a translation itself and that they were working on a back-translation task. At this point we might conclude that our participants applied more implicitation than explicating operations, which contradicts the explicitation hypotheses of both Blum-Kulka (1986) and Klaudy (2001). To be able to identify precisely the tendencies, we totalized all of the operations our participants performed: the back-transfer operations of the Hungarian text's shifts plus all the other explicitations and implicitations. The results can be seen in Figure 3.

Figure 3. All the operations carried out by our subjects



The first pair of bars (H) represents the number of

explicitating and implicitating operations in the Hungarian translation of the original English text. The second pair of bars (Min) shows all the obligatory (minimum) operations our subjects had to carry out in their back-translations to produce a grammatically acceptable text. In the last three pairs of bars (S, T, P) we can see all the other operations our subjects in the three groups of students, trainees and professionals performed beyond the obligatory ones. It is clear that the number of these operations rises with the level of translation competence, and the number of implicitations is much higher than that of explicitations irrespective of competence. When we categorised the shifts, it turned out that our subjects did not in fact perform more than the usual translation-inherent implicitations – see the results of our previous research (Makkos & Robin, 2011) – but they did perform fewer than usual translation-inherent explicitations, which are independent from differences in language structures.

Language differences, like the more explicit phrasing of Hungarian, cannot explain this phenomenon. The number of shifts produced by the three groups of participants (S, T, P) exceeds the minimum number of operations (Min) which was needed to produce a grammatically correct text. However, when we contrasted the original English text and its Hungarian translation, we pointed out that the Hungarian translation, which served as a source text for our subjects, is strongly explicitated.

That is why we presume that our subjects did not make their back-translations more explicit since their source text was explicit enough. They intuitively perceived the saturation of the context, which did not let them explicitate more, and even made it unnecessary in reaching the communication goal. As we know, explicitating and implicitating operations are context-dependent: the translator adds and omits information depending on whether it can be inferred from the context (Vinay & Darbelnet, 1995).

3.3.4 Explicitness index

We devised the explicitness index to be able to measure the change in the explicitness of translations in comparison to the source texts, based on the number of completed explicitating and implicitating operations correlated with each other. The explicitness index of the original English text was considered 0, to which we added the number of completed explicitating operations and from which we subtracted the number of completed implicitating operations which we found during our analysis. When we produced the data we made allowance for all the operations our subjects performed (see Figure 3). The explicitness index of the Hungarian text translated from English (see Table 1) reads like this:

$$0 \text{ (original English)} + 79 \text{ (explicitation)} \\ - 25 \text{ (implication)} = 54 \text{ (translated Hungarian)}$$

The explicitness index of all the back-translated texts can be seen in Table 2. We also counted the means of the groups to show tendencies.

Table 2. The degree of explicitness of translated texts compared to the original English text

	E	H	S1	S2	S3	S4	T1	T2	T3	T4
Explicitness	0	54	43	38	23	36	33	26	32	33
Mean	0	54	35				31			

	P1	P2	P3	P4
Explicitness	25	17	30	25
Mean	24			

Table 2 lists the explicitation indexes of the three groups of participants: students (S1-4), translation trainees (T1-4) and professional translators (P1-4). We can see that the Hungarian translation (H), which served as a source text for the back-translations, was much more explicit than the original English (E), which can be partly attributed to the differences of the language structures and partly to the explicitation tendency characteristic of translators (Klaudy, 2001, p. 376). The explicitness of the Hungarian translation was reduced by all of the three groups, but none of them eliminated it completely: the back-translated texts are still more

explicit than the original English text. We have to state though that in terms of explicitness, professionals composed their writings in a manner closest to the original texts.

4. CONCLUSIONS

4.1 Transfer operations and competence

Based on the analyses we carried out on the back-translations of explicating and implicating operations, we can conclude that the results corroborate to some extent Klaudy's asymmetry hypothesis of operational asymmetry. The hypothesis is substantiated by the asymmetry of transfer operations detected: explicitation and impication are not always symmetric since optional and translation-inherent operations often remain in back-translations. We can also propose that the number of implicating operations in back-translations increases gradually, in direct ratio with translation competence. The more experienced the translators are, the more capable they are of producing concise phrasing and leaving out information which is considered redundant. The data of the research also show that professional translators perform the most translation-inherent operations in the back-translations. Secondary school students, who are in fact language learners and do not have any translation experience proper, concentrate on obligatory and optional shifts governed by the rules and norms of the language

system. Finally, with the help of our explicitness index, we are able to argue that in terms of explicitness the back-translations made by professional translators are the closest to the original English text.

4.2 Explicit saturation

The study also reveals that the number and ratio of explicating and implicating operations are influenced not only by the translator's expertise but also by the explicitness of the source text. Our explicit saturation hypothesis claims that if the explicitness of the source text reaches a certain degree of information saturation, as restricted by the context, the dynamics of explicitation decreases and impication may dominate.

Thus we can presume the existence of some sort of explicit saturation: if reached, the context does not contain any more implicit, deducible information which can be explicitated in order to reach the goal of communication. This is why we found that the number of implicating operations exceeded the number of explicating operations in back-translations of the highly explicitated Hungarian text, irrespective of the competence of the translators, and it was not due to the higher number of translation-inherent implicating operations but rather to the lower number of explicating operations. What this means is that the explicitation

tendency, which is usually strong, may decrease considerably during back-translation.

4.3 Further research

Our research needs to be complemented by some control tests. We find it important to analyse ordinary translations from Hungarian into English – as in this study we examined Hungarian-English *back-translations* – and more back-translations into the participants' mother tongue. It would be interesting to examine translations through a relay language because the phenomenon of explicit saturation is presumably not exclusively typical of back-translations. To investigate the hypothesis of explicit saturation, we think it would be appropriate to study translations characterised by different degrees of explicitness, since by doing so one would have the opportunity to define the explicit saturation point more precisely. Finally, it would be well worth extending the research and including more translators with different competencies and varied text types to get statistically significant results.

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TRANSLATION TEACHING RESEARCH IN CHINA: FEATURES, PROBLEMS AND PROSPECTS

Wang Shu-huai

Huazhong University of Science and Technology

Abstract

This paper seeks to summarize the features of translation teaching research in China. Translation teaching research in China: 1) is equipped with a new view of the qualities of trainee translators; 2) emphasizes the influence of the translation market; 3) conducts constructivist teaching experiments; 4) employs process-oriented teaching methods; 5) applies modern education and communication technologies to the teaching; 6) initiates empirical investigations on the “black box”; 7) attaches importance to the research of translation competence; 8) pursues the study of translation evaluation and testing; 9) studies the translation teacher; 10) pays attention to research in translation coursebooks; and 11) realizes the significance of localization for teaching. However, problems in the research exist due to the insufficiency of six factors: 1) empirical studies; 2) long-term tracking studies; 3) effective and in-depth transplantation from surrounding disciplines; 4) monographs of systematic research; 5) eclectic studies to adapt western theories to a Chinese context; and 6) studies to incorporate translation market into curricula and coursebook design. Finally, prospects for upcoming research are predicted to be: 1) prospective and retrospective; 2) harmonious; 3) interdisciplinary; 4) two-phase transitive; and 5) empirical.

1. INTRODUCTION

The history of translation teaching research in China can be divided into two periods: before 2002 and after 2002. In 2001, the monumental proceeding *On Translation Teaching*, which was the crystallization of traditional teaching philosophy and methods was published. This marks the end of the first period of research that was experimental, disconnected and impressionistic. After the publication of the proceeding, the number of research papers increased and the research field expanded. If we search the China National Knowledge Infrastructure (CNKI) with “translation teaching” as the topic words, we can see that the number of papers from 1990 to 2001 is 544 while that from 2002 to 2013 is 5,891. This second period of research, which features theories and paradigms borrowed from foreign language teaching and descriptive translation studies, has experienced marked progress in research results. This paper will analyze the characteristics of these two periods, probe into the existing problems, and predict future prospects.

2. FEATURES OF TRADITIONAL TRANSLATION TEACHING RESEARCH

2.1 The training of language conversion skills is stressed while the development of non-literary translation competence is neglected

According to a survey by Zhang Mei-fang (2001, pp. 52-122), the 115 domestic key translation coursebooks published in China between 1949 and 1998 are of three kinds: word/sentence conversion-based, translation example-based, or contemporary theories-based. The first kind is organized through contrastive linguistics and a grammar translation approach; the second kind is written under the principle “fewer theories, more examples”, aiming to improve students' practical ability in future works; the third kind is made in accordance with theories such as social semiotics, text linguistics and the equivalence theory. Both the first and the third kind focus on the students' basic language ability, the former being a summary of translation skills and the latter aiming to avoid an experiential teaching style. But neither of them is perfect in associating theory with practice. Although coursebooks of the second kind focus on training non-literary translation abilities, they lack a theoretical framework (e.g. skopos theory), resulting in unsystematic teaching and ignorance of

students' higher-level abilities such as macro decision-making and microtextual construction.

Research papers from this period have similarities with coursebook compilation: 1) they emphasize translation skills featured in literal and free translation, grammatical comparison and sentence conversion; 2) they ignore the function of the translation brief; and 3) in spite of some breakthroughs in applying equivalence theory and social semiotics to teaching, there emerges two tendencies: either the theories are much too complicated or they are applied inadequately.

2.2 The field of research is narrow and the involvement of theory into practice is underdeveloped

We analyze *On Translation Teaching* (Liu Zong-he et al., 2001) as it is the most important proceeding of the first period of translation teaching research in China, registering the highest level of research before 2002 and signaling the end of the old paradigm. The theories involved are of four kinds: 1) the importance of translation theories in translation teaching (Lin Ke-nan, 2001); 2) stylistic and translation teaching (Sun De-yu & Yang Yulin, 2001); 3) text analysis and translation teaching (Li Yun-zing, 2001); and 4) English-Chinese comparative study and translation teaching (Chen Hong-wei, 2001).

2.3 Research focus

The focus of the research is on the translation product, rather than the learners. Let us consider On Translation Teaching as an example. There are 52 articles altogether, and one of them, “On Students' Intellectual Development in Translation Teaching” (Chen Xu, 2001), makes students the research target, but the book is still focused on the traditional approach. Research at this stage has not borrowed the results from education or psychology.

2.4 The teaching methods

Wang Liu-xi (2001) explains the traditional five-step teaching method: 1) teacher gives the assignment in class; 2) students finish it after class; 3) teacher writes comments and suggestions; 4) teacher gives lectures and holds discussion in class; and 5) students write a summary and improve their work. The traditional teaching methods do not consider the process of translation. Liu Quan-fu (2001) proposes “teaching through criticism”, She Xie-bin (2001) proposes “teaching translation through comparison” and Wang Shu-huai (2001) proposes a combination of “English–Chinese comparison” and “language improvement”. All the methods mentioned are translation-product oriented, rather than process-oriented.

2.5 Background

Most Chinese research summarizes experience, even if some studies are empirical or in-depth and based on a theoretical framework. There are two reasons for this. Externally, Chinese translation teachers are overloaded with teaching tasks and they lack academic training. Internally, the long-dominant prescriptive translation research paradigm tends to narrow the teachers' perspective and imprisons their thinking. On the micro-level, teachers do not know how theoretical translation studies work against translation models or laws, or how to apply the methods and results of descriptive translation studies to their research. On the macro-level, they are not familiar with the changes in scientific philosophy and research paradigms. For these reasons, there is a lack of speculative research on an interdisciplinary base, ability to conduct statistical analysis, empirical research that aims for long-term tracking, and convincing research on reliability and validity.

3. DEVELOPMENT IN RECENT TRANSLATION TEACHING RESEARCH

In recent years, as new education theories and foreign language teaching notions have been introduced into the field, the main focus in translation education has greatly changed. Meanwhile, due to the advance of information

science, translation teaching technologies have also advanced tremendously. There are eleven features stated as follows.

3.1 The outlook of translator training has changed

The awareness of the types, levels, and requirements of translators has been raised during this period. For example, Mu Lei (2008) advocates that a complete translation teaching system should be established, including a BA in Translation, an MA in Translation and Interpreting, an MA in Translation Studies and Interpreting, and a PhD in Translation Studies and Interpreting. The aim of the BA in Translation program is to train high-level professional translators with advanced high language proficiency, versatile translation skills, and expertise in consecutive and simultaneous interpreting. Wu Guang-jun (2011) suggests that in order to be able to translate interdisciplinary material, translators translating interdisciplinary texts should have basic knowledge of various subjects. Xy Jun and Gao Fang (2010) propose that translators should be taught theoretical thinking and that textbooks of translation theories should be published to help the students form their view of translation and its history. Translators with theoretical awareness should be trained, and it should be necessary to publish textbooks on translation theories which will help students form a

more comprehensive view on translation and translation history.

3.2 The importance of the translation market has been taken into account in curricula

In recent times, the researchers have shifted their focus from word and sentence translation to the demands of the translation market. For example, Li De-feng and Hu Mu (2006) point out that translation teachers should keep themselves informed of the market demands through market surveys. The teaching should meet the needs of the learners and the society through development of the curriculum, and convince the students that the teaching is practical and up-to-date. Wen Jun (2005) proposes a rotating curriculum with the focus on developing translation competence: 1) analysing context and requirements; 2) setting goals; 3) selecting contents and materials; 4) deciding curriculum contents and materials; 5) checking, evaluating, giving feedback, and improving; and 6) analysing context and requirements. Wang Yin-quan (2008) suggests a market-oriented translator training model with the emphasis on the fields of economy, trade, science, technology, law, news, media, medical science, and advertising. Zhang Kui's survey on translation market (2011) shows that there is a huge gap between the curriculum and the market requirements: translation market is mostly related

to business, mechanics, electronics, engineering, medical science, finance, and legal documents, but these are rarely covered in translation teaching. He calls for a curriculum reform, and association of translation teaching with the market.

3.3 Introducing and experimenting with constructivist teaching

Constructivist theory brings new insights to Chinese translation teachers. Wang Shu-huai (2001a) introduces Don Kiraly's theory on constructivist translation teaching, and points out both its contributions and flaws. He also suggests that Chinese teachers should find a balance between constructivist translation teaching and objectivist translation teaching. Chen Kui-yang (2005) proposes that constructivism should be applied in translation classes to encourage the students' initiative, enrich their experience, and develop their cognitive abilities in the process of building new knowledge. Huang Li (2011) suggests that, under the guidance of constructivism, the teaching model should be built upon emphasizing students' subjectivity, while also giving attention to teacher's "mid-wife" role, and encouraging cooperation between people during knowledge building.

Deng Xiao-wen and Wang Li-di (2010), based on the social constructivist outlook on learning, students and teacher, attempt to transform a

teacher-centered pedagogical model into a student-centered model, create an environment that encourages students to be active in constructing knowledge, and build a corresponding mechanism in the environment. Hu De-xiang (2010), following constructivism, has put the student-centered, collaborative teaching into practice and has achieved good results. Firstly, students demonstrated more active participation; secondly, students made considerable improvements in translation skills; and thirdly, students developed stronger research abilities.

3.4 Putting process-oriented teaching methods into practice

Researchers have noted that translation process goes along with students' psychological development, which in turn influences the developing of translation competence. Zhu Yue-feng (2004) proposes a “task-based translation teaching”. This would be organized through topic activities, be founded on cooperative learning, have a communicative teaching style and functional teaching materials. Miao Ju (2006, p. 158) suggests that process-oriented teaching can endow students with strategic abilities and process-analyzing capabilities, enhance their confidence and creativity, and better the relationship between teacher and students. Wang Shu-huai (2010b) puts forward a “perplexity-illumination-production” teaching method, the focus being on “illumination”,

which includes example selection, scaffold support, group discussion and portfolio reference.

In Li Ming and Zhong Wei-he's translation workshop (2010), real-life translation practice and authentic materials are brought into the classroom, priority is given to technical training rather than theoretical knowledge, and a process-oriented and student-centered approach is adopted. Dai Jian-chun (2011) proposes a Tencent QQ¹-based interactive after-class translation teaching model. It pushes forward students' knowledge construction through individual work, group work and teacher-student discussion on QQ, and promotes interactions within a group, between groups and between teacher and students.

3.5 The application of modern technologies to translation teaching is emphasized

Chinese teachers have made the Internet, translation corpora, and electronic resources important teaching aids. Qin Hong-wu and Wang Ke-fei (2007) explored the theoretical rationale and the pedagogical principles pertaining to the application of parallel corpora to translation teaching. Wang Zheng and Sun Dong-yun (2009)

¹Tencent QQ, often abbreviated to just QQ, is a Chinese instant messaging software service. It is the most popular such service in China.

analyzed the online evaluation technologies and tools from the perspectives of participation, e-portfolio, self-evaluation, peer evaluation, translation quality evaluation, and translation process evaluation. Wang Ke-fei and Xiong Wen-xin (2009) proposed a systemic framework for different steps of making Chinese–English parallel translation corpora. They implemented an integrated processing interface combined with sentence pairing, proofreading, and a computer-aided checking tool. Liu Ze-quan and Liu Ding-jia (2011) discussed the building and application of a students’ corpus, explained how to use tools like Wordsmith and ParaConc to evaluate students’ translations, and analyze the universals of these translations from the viewpoints of word selection, collocation, text readability, vocabulary distribution, semantic structure, and translation strategies. Li De-chao and Wang Ke-fei (2011) established a tourism corpus including sub-corpora of tourist sights, museum introductions and hotel publicity brochures which they intend to teach through DDL (data-driven learning). Wang Hui and Zhu Chun-shen (2012) established an “annotated corpus of English financial reports with Chinese translations”, and use it in their translation courses.

3.6 Empirical research on the “black box” has appeared after many introductions

Researchers such as Li De-chao (2004), Miao Ju (2005), Wang Shu-huai and Wang Ruo-wei (2008a) have introduced the research methods and achievements of TAPs (think-aloud protocols). These include translators' strategies, effects, creativity, and differences between beginners and professional translators. They also analyzed TAPs' contributions and flaws further. Zheng Bing-han (2006) introduces Translog's function and operating procedures to translation research. Based on their TAPs experiment, Zheng Bing-han and Tan Hui-min (2007) found that there are two types of translation units – a subjective and an objective translation unit, and that a translation unit is a dynamic linguistic entity offering an indexing function. Wang Shu-huai and Xu Min's research (2012), conducted through the “quaternary method”, i.e. Camtasia recording, product analysis, questionnaire and telephone interview, concludes that there are seven types of strategies in the translation process: 1) deverbalization strategy; 2) mental lexicon retrieval strategy; 3) processing strategy; 4) achievement strategy; 5) translation unit strategy; 6) monitoring and improvement strategy; and 7) tool strategy. Their study also investigates the disparities between high-score groups, medium-score groups and low-score groups. In the light of neurolinguistics and through

an empirical experiment, Li Shu-chun (2012) examined the correlation between the thinking style of the translator (right/left brain dominance) and translation competence, attempting to prove the importance of right brain oriented thinking style.

3.7 Research on translation competence becomes a core issue

The research on the components and developments of translation competence has become one of the most important topics. Miao Ju's empirical study (2006, p. 52) suggests that translation competence is composed of cognitive competence, linguistic competence and communicative competence. Of those, cognitive competence is the most important. It includes intuition, conception, inference, analogy, reasoning and association. Linguistic competence includes grammatical, syntactical, and lexical excellence, pragmatic relevancy and transfer mechanisms. Communicative competence includes knowledge of translation strategies and the profession of translation. Wang Shu-huai and Wang Ruo-wei (2008b), after classifying western translation competence research into eleven schools, propose six sub-competences: 1) linguistic-text-pragmatic competence; 2) cultural competence; 3) strategic competence; 4) tool competence; 5) logical thinking competence; and 6) coordinating competence. They also discuss the developmental stages of every component. Ma Hui-juan and Guan Xing-zhong (2010) contend that

Chinese–English (C–E) translation competence is composed of bilingual communicative competence, professional translation skills, translation strategy competence, extended knowledge (topical knowledge, encyclopedic knowledge and cultural abilities), and information retrieval competence. Feng Quan-gong (2010) explored the formation of translation competence from a cognitive perspective, arguing that translation competence consists of two categories: translation schemata and cognitive mechanisms, the former being regulated by the latter. Wang Hong (2012) divided C–E translation competence into bilingual competence, encyclopedic knowledge competence, information retrieval competence, and translation skills. He further claimed that the development of C–E translation competence can be divided into three levels: primary, middle and advanced. By means of questionnaires and sample analysis, Ma Hui-juan (2012) divided the development of C–E translation competence into three levels: novice, apprentice and post-apprentice.

3.8 The research on translation evaluation and testing

Translation teaching evaluation, as an important part of teaching, plays the role of the goal-orientor, controller and manager of the teaching system. Wang Shu-huai and Wang Wei-ping (2010) proposed a “developmental translation teaching evaluation model”, which consisted of product

evaluation and process evaluation. The former was carried out along three stages: the evaluation of language comparison and conversion, the evaluation of text production, and the evaluation of fulfilling the purpose of the translation and reproducing an aesthetic conception. The latter is carried out along another three stages: translation strategy evaluation, translator personality evaluation and translation learning style evaluation. In terms of testing, Xi Zhong-en (2011) stated that it is a three-phase process: preparation, administration, and follow-up studies. The preparation includes making an overall plan, elaborating standardization conditions, training personnel, and specifying measures to safeguard the valid use of test results.

Administration covered arranging standard testing conditions, presenting the test tasks, and marking the performance in the tasks. Follow-up studies collect the impact of the testing program and provide both positive and negative feedback. Wang Zheng and Sun Dong-yun (2009) suggested an online evaluation model for online self-study. Xiao Wei-qing (2011) revealed by means of questionnaires that computer-aided rating training, pilot rating and instruction of detailed rating schemes are of great importance in guaranteeing rater reliability. Chen Ji-rong (2013) contended that process-oriented assessment involves teacher and student-based cooperative evaluation, uses integrated methods and follows the individualized

principle, diverse strategy principle, and computer-aided assessment principle.

3.9 The research on translation teachers gradually becomes a new focus

Translation teachers are the most significant factor determining the success of translation teaching, and Chinese researchers are gradually realizing this. He Gang-qiang (2007) argued that translation teachers must be capable of passionately guiding students with a broad view of relevant translation theories and enviable translating skills, and at the same time they must be good at interacting with students in class. Han Zi-man (2008) suggested that building a qualified translation teaching team requires that the instructors are professional university teachers and translators. Professionalism of university teachers requires the teachers to possess excellent research skills, teaching skills, and translation practice, while professionalism of a translator requires the teachers to possess the ability to adapt to and handle the translation market. Li Jia-chun (2010) contends that translation teachers should be skilled at the following: 1) cross-cultural communication; 2) translation theory and practice; 3) education theory and practice; 4) translation research; 5) modern technology; and 6) translation working ethics. He further suggests a multi-cooperative network to build teaching teams that contain cooperation between universities and enterprises, universities and academic communities,

universities and professional translators, different schools in a university, and translation teachers. Wang Wen-qiu (2008) suggested that translation teachers should accomplish role transition in three ways: 1) from the role of a conveyor and demonstrator of knowledge to that of the learning instructor and initiator of the students; 2) from the role of a teaching “dictator” to that of a participant and cooperator; and 3) from someone who imposes knowledge to someone who constructs it. Zhang Rui-e and Chen De-yong (2012) conducted a study on Chinese translation teachers, indicating that the distribution of age, academic degree and title is ideal and much better than twelve years ago.

Wang Chuan-ying and Cui Qi-liang (2010) suggest that the localized translation industry can benefit from both college education and vocational training programs. The educational programs are responsible for reforming the training systems and producing skilled and professional translators. Vocational training, on the other hand, should utilize its knowledge of the industry and provide courses that meet the needs of the market.

The above analysis shows that research on translation teaching in China has extended its scope to include the student, teacher, course book, teaching philosophy, learning process and value orientation. Thus, it gradually approaches a more mature level of research.

2.10 The research on translation coursebooks begins to arrest attention

The research on translation coursebooks is characterized by two aspects: firstly, applying new translation theories to non-literary translation, and secondly, applying new teaching notions to traditional translation skills on the levels of word, sentence and text. For example, Tao You-lan (2006) argues that coursebooks should be based on skopos theory. She suggests that: 1) the concept of what translation is should be defined in the coursebook; 2) multiple translation standards should be offered for different translation practices and various translation strategies should be encouraged; 3) the translator's subjectivity and creativity should be stressed; and 4) the coursebook should be user-oriented. Zeng Jian-ping and Lin Min-hua (2010) point out that translation coursebooks should cover basic concepts about translation, English-Chinese comparison, non-literary translation theories, translation skills and strategies, translation criticism, and translation practice. Wang Shu-huai (2011) suggests two principles in writing Chinese-English translation coursebooks: the principle of systematicity and the principle of linking. In the principle of systematicity he describes the translation theories, skills and knowledge on the four levels (word, simple sentence, complex sentence and text). In the principle of linking, he introduces the building of

twelve related corpora and suggests linking them to the coursebook website.

There are also researches on non-literary translation coursebook writing: Han Zi-man (2007) argues that English-Chinese technical translation coursebooks should lay emphasis on the characteristics of technical English and select examples from a wider range of technical fields, and they should be novel and practical. Fu Jing-min (2011) in turn criticizes current legal translation coursebooks for not having clear goals and systematic arrangement. He suggests that experts with profound knowledge in law and languages as well as rich legal translation experience could be recruited to write legal translation coursebooks.

2.11 Localization teaching in the west is noted and the incorporation of it into the teaching is called for

As globalization has strongly influenced China, researchers begin to realize the importance of introducing localization into translation teaching. Zhang Ying and Chai Ming-jiong (2011) introduce the results of international researches on localization, including those on localization service industry and technology, on the training of translators to cope with requirements of localization, and on inspirations and challenges that localization brings to translation teaching. Miao Ju and Zhu Lin (2008) introduce the notions and

contents of localization teaching in western universities, describe the work of localization, put forward the goals of localization training, and point out the importance of incorporating localization into the curriculum.

4. PROBLEMS WITH CHINESE RESEARCH ON TRANSLATION TEACHING

Although much progress has been made, there are still some problems with translation teaching research in China.

4.1 Lack of empirical research

Most Chinese scholars derive their research topics from their own experience and observations. As a result, the research tends to be impressionistic and intuitive. Only a few empirical studies exist in Chinese research on translation teaching: those of Miao Ju (2006), Zheng Bing-han & Tan Hui-min (2007), Ma Hui-juan (2012) and Wang Shu-huai & Xu Min (2012).

4.2 Lack of long-term study

Usually, the researchers of translation teaching attempt to find solutions to current problems, so their research is cross-sectional. To date, there is no long-term research on complex issues, such as development of translation competence, translation

personality cultivation and translation curriculum reform.

4.3 The challenge of combining Western theories with Chinese teaching

Current trend in the Chinese research on translation teaching seems to be the invocation and application of Western theories of translation teaching. However, there is a great disparity between the Western and the Chinese translation teaching contexts. The linguistic difference between Chinese and English, and the poor English proficiency of many Chinese college students mean that translation students need plenty of language training at the beginning of translation courses. Therefore, Chinese researchers should find a balance between objectivist and constructivist translation teaching as well as between product- and process-oriented translation teaching. However, very little systematic and in-depth, cross-disciplinary research exists on this issue.

4.4 Awareness of market-driven translation issues has come from the West, but few localized actions have been taken

In China, there are a lot of introductions to translation and localization programs and market-related curriculum framework of Western

universities. Also, there are a lot of appeals for reform, but few results have been achieved in the spheres of curriculum development and coursebook writing.

4.5 Many themes of research, but few in-depth theoretical implications from surrounding disciplines

Although the scope of translation teaching studies in China has been greatly expanded, there are a few effective and in-depth theoretical implications from the surrounding disciplines. For example, when a translation curriculum is developed, how can the contemporary curriculum model (e.g. objective model, process model, situation model and naturalistic model) be used to compile practical and feasible translation curriculum? What should be included in the translational "declarative knowledge or procedural knowledge" (Anderson, 1993), and how can they be connected? There are a few studies on these questions.

4.6 Many research papers, but few monographs

From 2002 to 2013, over 5,800 research papers were published on translation teaching, but only five monographs, which are written by Liu Mi-qing (2003), Wen Jun (2005), Miao Ju (2006), Tao You-lan (2008) and Wang Shu-huai (2013). It indicates that, although many researchers understand the

importance of translation teaching, their viewpoints are desultory and their results are scattered. Besides, many research papers are repetitive, and they do not form one comprehensive entirety, and thus cannot offer a panoramic view of translation teaching.

5. PROSPECTS OF TRANSLATION TEACHING RESEARCH IN CHINA

In spite of the problems of translation teaching research in China, we can still anticipate the future from the features and accomplishments as follows:

5.1 Prospective and retrospective

When it comes to the research of factors related to the student, Chinese translation teaching research will summarize and deepen the existing achievements and, based upon this, enrich research methods and expand research area. It will not negate the previous paradigms or memes (Chesterman, 1997) when the subsequent paradigms or memes emerge. Regarding the research of the inner factors related to the student, it will investigate the students' acquired translation accomplishments and work to reach their "zone of proximal development" (Vygotsky, 1978) so as to enhance their translation competence.

5.2 Balanced translation teaching

Translation students should be trained to possess excellent language skills, translation competence, creative problem-solving abilities, communication skills, and professional ethics. Therefore, Chinese translation teaching will use three approaches of educational psychology: behaviorism, cognitivism and humanism. On one hand, this requires that students build a translation routine and they achieve "mastery" (Bloom, 1968) at each stage, and on the other hand, it helps arrange teaching materials so that they correspond to the students' cognitive developments. Above all, it makes the students feel confident, all of which will help them overcome the Atlas Complex.

5.3 Interdisciplinary translation teaching

Translation teaching researches in China will involve the theoretical results in the following areas: 1) translation studies, including theoretic, descriptive and applied translation studies; 2) linguistics, including text linguistics, contrastive linguistics, functional linguistics, psychological linguistics, and cognitive linguistics; 3) literary theory, including aesthetics, stylistics, and literary criticism (e.g. indeterminacy, prototype, reception aesthetics); 4) education theory, including education technology, curriculum theory, learning theory, second language acquisition and classroom sociology; and 5) psychology, including

educational psychology, cognitive psychology and personality psychology. The efficiency of applying these disciplines to translation teaching research will gradually increase.

5.4 From wide description to loose prescription

Translation teaching research, in essence, is normative and prescriptive. Traditional translation teaching in China is highly prescriptive, for example the translation standards are "faithfulness" and "expressiveness", and the translation method is "translate literally, or, appeal to free translation". This prescriptiveness overlooks many important factors. Future research, on the contrary, using text comparison, translation corpora and description, will describe the methods and strategies that successful translators adopt when dealing with language and cultural difficulties, and will provide loose prescriptions for translation teaching, enabling the students to make flexible and reasonable choices according to the translation task, linguistic context, and cultural inclination.

5.5 Empirical translation teaching

In order to get rid of the intuitive and impressionistic tendencies, Chinese translation teaching research will pay more attention to the empirical procedures of the studies. By means of experiment, survey and questionnaire, researchers

can either test hypotheses developed from the phenomena, or survey advantages and limits of new curricula and teaching methods. This way, their research results will become more accurate and scientific.

6. CONCLUDING REMARKS

Translation teaching research in China, having applied results from disciplines such as education, psychology and computer science, is now in rapid progress. As the amount of important research increases, its development will affect theoretical translation studies and descriptive studies and offer insight for translation teachers all around the world.

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Academic profiles

María Brander de la Iglesia is Canadian and Spanish and has been a lecturer in Interpreting at the University of Salamanca since 2006, where she teaches simultaneous interpreting from and into Spanish and English, as well as consecutive and simultaneous interpreting from French into Spanish. She is also a freelance translator and interpreter since 2002 and has worked for the private market, international organisations and charities. Her scholarly articles focus on Ethics in Translation and Interpreting, as well as Didactics and New Technologies in Interpreting Studies. She has taught at different undergraduate and postgraduate programmes in languages, translation and interpreting at the University of Granada, Heriot-Watt University and the University of Franche-Comté, among others. She earned her MSc in Research in Translation and Interpreting at the University of Granada and is currently writing up her doctoral thesis at the University of Salamanca.

Dermot Heaney is originally from Birmingham, UK. He graduated from the University of Warwick and was awarded an M.A by the same University. He also holds a doctorate from U.C.C. of the National University of Ireland. For a number of years he has taught specialized L2 translation on the two-year MA course in translation run jointly by Milano Lingue and the Université Marc Boch of Strasbourg. He has also taught L2 translation at

undergraduate and post-graduate level at the SSLIMT of the University of Bologna and at The University of Roma 2 ‘Tor Vergata’. He is currently a tenured researcher in Translation and English Language and Linguistics at the Università degli Studi in Milano. His research interests to date lie mainly in L2 translation pedagogy, particularly conventional metaphor, multilingualism in sports media interactions, and discursive identity construction, particularly in the field of sports.

Kenneth Jordan-Núñez is a Spanish professional translator and linguist, and has been teaching English, Spanish, Terminology and Specialized Translation at San Jorge University since 2008. He has translated R.L. Stevenson and Henry James, among others. His research, papers and scholarly articles have concentrated on in literary translation, legal translation and terminology, language and specialized translation teaching and learning, and lexicology and Spanish varieties. He earned his BA in Translation and Interpreting at Pompeu Fabra University, Barcelona, specializing in literary translation, and his MA in Institutional Translation at the University of Alicante. He also completed a postgraduate course in Legal Translation at the University of Alicante. He is now working on his PhD thesis on Machine Translation and Linguistic Intercomprehension at Pompeu Fabra University. He has been a visiting professor at the Haute École Francisco Ferrer, Brussels, and at Haliç University, Istanbul.

Cindy Lefebvre-Scodeller is an assistant professor at the University of Limoges, where she teaches grammar, translation, and translation studies. She is interested in the role of the translator (invisibility, creativity, subjectivity) and has worked on corpora within the CorTEx project.

Rudy Loock is Professor of English Linguistics and Translation Studies in the Applied Languages department of the University of Lille 3 and affiliated with the CNRS laboratory Savoirs, Textes, Language (UMR 8163). His research interests include discourse pragmatics, information packaging, corpus-based translation studies, and translation quality. He is the coordinator of the CorTEx project (Corpus, Translation, Exploration) and is convinced that corpus tools can improve translation quality.

Anikó Makkos is an assistant lecturer at the University of West Hungary. Her main subjects are language development for teacher trainees and professional language of tourism for students of tourism and catering management. She received her first MA degree in Hungarian and Russian language and literature at József Attila University, Szeged, Hungary and her second MA degree in English language and literature at Veszprém University, Veszprém, Hungary. Currently she is a PhD student in translation studies at Eötvös Loránd University, Budapest, Hungary. Her main research

topic is mother tongue and translation competence, as well as translation quality assessment in education.

Jan-Hendrik Opdenhoff is originally from Germany and has been a lecturer in Interpreting at the University of Granada since 2004, where he has taught simultaneous, consecutive and public service interpreting, as well as German as a foreign language since 1991. His scholarly articles have concentrated mainly on directionality in interpreting and on the teaching and learning of interpreting. He is a professional translator and interpreter since 1997, both at local conferences and international organisations such as the Assembly of European Regions. He earned his BA in Translation and Interpreting at the University of Heidelberg, his MSc in Methodology and Didactics of German as a Foreign Language from the Goethe Institute in Munich, and his Doctorate in Interpreting at the University of Granada.

Edina Robin is a professional translator, editor and proofreader in the publishing business. She received her MA degree in English language and literature at Eötvös Loránd University in Budapest, Hungary. She is currently working on her doctoral dissertation in translation studies at Eötvös Loránd University in Budapest, Hungary, where she also teaches editorial skills for translator trainees. Her research topics include translation universals, editorial competence and the effect of editing on

translated texts. Together with Anikó Makkos they have published a number of papers on the connection of transfer operations and translation competence in various Hungarian translation studies journals.

Wang Shu-huai is a professor of Translation Studies at the Huazhong University of Science and Technology, China. He has been teaching there since 1995. He earned his Master's degree of education in 1995 from Southwest Normal University, and his Ph.D of Translation Studies in 2007 from Nankai University. His chief research interests are translation teaching and translation criticism. He has published more than 40 academic papers, completed one research project of China National Fund for Social Sciences, and is the author of the book *On Translation Teaching* (Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press, 2013).