Teaching Translation and Interpreting

Advances and Perspectives

Edited by

Łukasz Bogucki
Mikołaj Deckert

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INTRODUCTION

In the 21st century, the role of translation and interpreting in globalisation, internationalisation and intercultural communication is unquestionable. What was largely a self-taught profession in previous centuries has recently become the focal element of academic curricula. Not long ago, language studies rarely boasted translation tracks, instead concentrating on literary and linguistic tuition; nowadays, they hardly ever function without them.

The volume is primarily inspired by the booming interest in translation and interpreting courses at the University of Łódź. More generally, it is a response to the developments in translation didactics which result from the recognition of the role of the translator/interpreter and the consolidating status of Translation Studies.

The bulk of articles within this volume are papers delivered at the Third International Conference on Translation and Interpreting organized in Łódź, Poland in October 2011. The present volume is intended as a follow-up to *Teaching Translation and Interpreting. Challenges and Practices*, published by CSP in 2010.

The papers raise a number of relevant issues. Though written predominantly by Polish specialists, their scope is larger than merely nationwide.

There is ample coverage of specialised translation. The contribution by Joanna Sycz of Silesia University tackles legal translation. Daniel J. Sax from Warsaw School of Social Sciences and Humanities discusses aspects of business language in translation. Łucja Biel of Gdańsk University focuses on translation within the EU, while Janusz Wróblewski (Łódź University) looks into medical translation.

A range of the papers focus on interpreting. Przemysław Janikowski attempts to gauge the difficulty of teaching aids. Zuzanna Łopacińska-Piędel (Warsaw University) discusses practical aspects of the job and their implications for teaching. Agnieszka Kałużna describes the translation and interpreting curriculum at her home university (Zielona Góra). Finally, Ewa Kościałkowska-Okońska of Toruń presents the results of a survey on professionalism and quality.

These issues reverberate in other papers. Marek Pawelec, a freelance translator, gives a practice-based account of translation quality. Urszula

Paradowska (Gorzów Wlkp.) and Magdalena Kizeweter (Warsaw) in their papers consider students' views on translation courses, their content, form and relevance.

The authors also discuss paradigms and techniques paramount to traditional and modern Translation Studies. The contribution by Arkadiusz Nowak raises the vexing question of directionality, while Izabela Mrochen talks about the implementation of CAT tools.

Two papers are set in the Ukrainian context, recounting translation policies in a country that may be Poland's neighbour and partner (as the volume is being completed, the two countries are poised to commence the European football championship), but where translation traditions and curricula differ from the Polish ones. They also carry the discussion over to literary translation. Iryna Odrekhivska presents the figure of Ukrainian translation scholar Victor Koptilov, while Nataliya Hrytsiv presents an approach to teaching literary translation.

It is evidenced by the volume's contributions that translation curricula will continue to evolve and technology will continue to influence both the practice of translation and translation teaching. As the University of Łódź has already made plans for new conferences on translation and interpreting training, more volumes may be expected in the series.

Łódź, May 2012.
Łukasz Bogucki, Mikołaj Deckert

CHAPTER ONE

"GOOD FEELINGS" AND "HOSPITALITY" IN POLISH BUSINESS LANGUAGE: AN INTERCULTURAL-PRAGMATIC CHALLENGE NEGLECTED IN POLISH-ENGLISH TRANSLATOR TOOLS AND TRAINING

DANIEL J. SAX

Introduction

This paper examines some of the key words of Polish business language – exemplified by material drawn from company websites and business correspondence – from the perspective of their translation into English, analyzing them in terms of the "showing of good feelings" and a conceptual metaphor of BUSINESS IS HOSPITALITY. These genre-marking key words, including *współpraca* (cooperation), *oferta* (offer), and a range of verbs such as *zapraszać* (invite) and *polecać* (recommend), pose a particular challenge to Polish-English translation despite having seemingly obvious and straightforward equivalents in English. The paper discusses a few ways these key words can be translated unsuccessfully and successfully into English. It goes on to claim that these key words are euphemistic in that they serve to mask the suggestion of self-seeking, profit-driven behavior, which is more stigmatized in Polish culture, and considers why these euphemistic senses are generally not reflected in either specialist or general-purpose dictionaries. As these key words are a source of frequent mistakes in Polish-English translation, the conclusion is that the underlying intercultural-pragmatic issues need to be specifically addressed in supplementary guidelines for translators and in business translation courses, where they are at present unfortunately neglected.

Key Words in Polish Business

Project-based learning (PBL) is a constructivist pedagogy approach for classroom activity that emphasizes learning activities that are long-term, interdisciplinary and student-centered. This approach is generally less structured than traditional, teacher-led classroom activities; it is designed to be used for complex issues that require students to investigate in order to understand: in a project-based class, students often must organize their own work and manage their own time.

Polish business language – or at least a particular genre thereof, addressed to potential or existing customers and business partners and frequently used on company websites and in business letters – makes frequent use of a certain set of words including *współpraca* (cooperation), *oferta* (offer), *witać* (welcome), *czekać na* (await), *zapewnić* (ensure/reassure), *zapraszać* (invite), *polecać* (recommend), *zachęcać* (encourage), and *spełnić oczekiwania* (meet expectations). These may be called the "key words" of this genre of Polish business language, based on their frequency of use and their importance for how Poles conceptualize and discuss business relations.

From the standpoint of Polish-English translation, each of the words listed above has a seemingly obvious and straightforward equivalent in English, listed in parentheses. But what makes these key words of Polish business language immediately conspicuous and particularly problematic in Polish-English translation is that none of their seemingly obvious English counterparts are actually used with much frequency in English business language. As such, these Polish words are frequently the source of mistranslation problems rooted in intercultural differences.

In what follows I will analyze these key words of Polish business language in terms of the "showing of good feelings" (a concept taken from Wierzbicka 1994) and in terms of a conceptual metaphor of BUSINESS IS HOSPITALITY (proposed herein). My main claim is that – from an English-speaking perspective, at least – these words are euphemistic in that by conveying "good feelings" and/or "hospitality" they serve to mask the suggestion of self-seeking, profit-driven behavior, which is more openly acceptable in the English-speaking business world and more stigmatized in Polish culture.

I will give some real-life examples of the use of such key words conveying "good feelings" and/or "hospitality", noting some correct and incorrect routes of translation. Overall, these successful routes rely on some of the key words of English business discourse (such as *business*, *partnership*, *deal, value for money*, *trust*, *making the right choice*), the use of imperative verbs that tell the reader what to do (*come!*, *try!*, *buy!*), and generally more cut-and-dried, less euphemistic language.

Expressing "Good Feelings" in Polish

Polish culture highly values the expression of warmth towards other people. Anna Wierzbicka (1994: 158-161) writes about the "Polish cultural value of expressing good feelings towards the addressee," noting that the "central place of feelings (spontaneously shown feelings) in Polish culture manifests itself in many ways". Among the various linguistic manifestations of this "showing of good feelings" in Polish, Wierzbicka lists "covering another person with verbal endearments", using diminutives of people's names and terms of endearment – *Kasia*, *Kaśka*, *Kasienka*, etc., and (*mój*) *skarbie!* (my treasure), (*moja*) *żabko!* (my little frog), etc. She concludes that "perhaps no feeling is more valued and more expected in Polish discourse than a good feeling towards the addressee". These traits stand in stark contrast to what Wierzbicka generally describes as "Anglo culture" – an umbrella term which embraces what is common to speakers of British, American, and Australian English. Of potential great interest to Polish-English translators is Wierzbicka's assertion that "the Polish cultural emphasis on warmth or affection must be distinguished from the Anglo emphasis on consideration and tact" (1994: 163).

Wierzbicka's comments (and the memoirs of Hoffman, 1989, which they are largely based around) are mainly concerned with differing norms of interpersonal behavior in the Polish- and English-speaking worlds, but my aim here is to show that they also serve as a productive point of departure for analyzing intercultural differences in Polish and English business language.

Współpraca (Cooperation)

The market-economics philosophy is deeply rooted in Anglo culture and manifests itself prominently in the words and expressions used in English business discourse. Polish culture, on the other hand, is less tolerant than Anglo culture – or at least ostensibly so – of self-seeking, profit-driven behavior. This difference makes itself quite evident in the language of business, with the very term *business* itself being a good first case in point. English *business* is used frequently in multiple meanings and often has positive or at least neutral connotations in the English-speaking business world, whereas its direct loan-word equivalent in Polish, *biznes*, has a more restricted range and often takes on somewhat pejorative connotations (leaning somewhat towards English *profiteering*).

Perhaps no word better encapsulates what from the English perspective may be seen as a Polish aversion to openly discussing self-serving, profit-driven behavior in the business world than the noun *współpraca* (cooperate), plus the related verb *współpracować* (cooperation) – and perhaps no other word causes so many related problems in Polish-English business translations. *Współpraca*, which has connotations of both mutual benefit and mutual pleasantness, is used very often in Polish to describe normal relations, such as those between two companies or between an individual (i.e. an employee) and a company.

As we have noted, in the English-speaking world, business is naturally viewed as a fundamentally adversarial, profit-driven environment. Each market player, whether an individual or a company, should – if the market is functioning in a normal, efficient, even healthy way – simply be looking out for their own best interests. At the same time, there is a certain link here to the Anglo concept of sportsmanship: in business, like in sports, a system of healthy rivalry, following fair rules of the game, is ultimately in everyone's best interest (at least in theory).

The word that would seem to be the immediately obvious equivalent of *współpraca* in English, *cooperation* (US)/*co-operation* (UK), has a narrower meaning than Polish *współpraca*. English *cooperation* entails positive, amicable, joint efforts by two independent actors, of more or less comparable status, in the service of some common, higher, possibly lofty ideal. The inherently adversarial business environment based on free and fair rivalry, as perceived in English, leaves little room for *cooperation* in this sense. *Cooperation* is therefore the exception in the English-speaking business world, rather than the rule. This means that English *cooperation* and *cooperate* are despite first appearances very likely to be very inappropriate translations of the Polish noun *współpraca* or verb *współpracować*.

When one company simply provides another with office supplies or travel services, for instance, in Polish they can be and often are said to *współpracować ze sobą* (cooperate with one another) but in English they are not *cooperating* with one another. In such a situation each company is ultimately acting in its own well-understood, distinct interests (each seeking to earn a profit or to procure goods/services under the best available terms), and this in English is not *cooperation*. In English two companies may be said to *cooperate* only if, for instance, they join forces to try to win a major contract that neither of them stands much chance of winning on their own (then they have a common goal, as an exception from the norm), or if they jointly set up a charity or contribute to a scholarship program (then they are striving towards a common, lofty ideal) – especially if they are normally rivals in the same market, but have suspended their adversarial relations in this respect for the sake of their common goal or ideal.

The crucial point here is that normal business relations – striving to make money for oneself, or procuring something on the best possible terms – do not in and of themselves constitute a "common goal or ideal" in English. This cultural difference explains the oddness of *cooperation*/*cooperate*, which are generally out of place in English business discourse, when used to translate *współpraca*/*współpracować* in most business-related environments. Instead, such normal business relations can be appropriately described in English simply as *doing business*, *buying*, *selling*, *trading*, or even in more specific terms (precisely what kind of transactions are involved?). Seen from this English perspective, Polish *współpraca* seems like a euphemistic term for business dealings, aiming to conceal the more culturally stigmatized self-seeking behavior that would be evident in such alternate Polish words and phrases as *robić interesy* (do interests), *handlować* (trade), etc. In contrast to these other words, *współpraca* does not bear any pejorative stamp in Polish because rather than self-seeking behavior it suggests a certain (ostensible) mutual pleasantness in additional to mutual gain. Thus, the use of *współpraca* in business-related contexts can be seen as another linguistic manifestation of the "Polish cultural value of expressing good feelings" as described by Wierzbicka above.

How can the Polish-English translator successfully cope with the Polish notion of *współpraca* in practice? We will consider two of the possible configurations – when *współpraca* describes a relation between two companies or between an individual (employee) and a company. When two companies are involved, some ideas are as follows:

(1) *Nasza firma współpracuje z ich firmą od 5-ciu lat*. (from a letter of endorsement)
NOT: Our company has been cooperating with their company for 5 years now.
Our company has been **doing business with/working with/dealing with** their company for 5 years now.

The equivalents suggested here, *doing business* and *working/dealing* with a company, in English suggest efficient and profit-seeking, rather than mutually pleasant relations. Aside from these general ideas, it is often a more natural translation strategy to make the nature of the business dealings more specific (this, of course, demands significant, perhaps extra-textual knowledge of the situation); some possibilities are illustrated in the following examples:

(2) *Nasza firma współpracuje z ich firmą od 5-ciu lat.* (from a letter of endorsement)
Our company has been **selling their French fries** for 5 years.
We have been **exporting cars** to their company for 5 years.
Their company has been **providing us with cleaning services** for 5 years.

(3) *Współpracujemy z następującymi firmami:*
(from numerous company websites)
NOT: We cooperate with the following companies:
We **do business with** the following companies:
Our satisfied clients include:
Our products are distributed by the following sellers:
We have provided top-notch consulting services to the following firms:

Other ideas for translating *współpraca* stress a more strategic, long-term relationship:

(4) *Nawiązaliśmy współpracę 10 lat temu.*
(electronics company website)
We **became partners** 10 years ago.
We **struck up a partnership** 10 years ago.
We **teamed up** (to do something) 10 years ago.
We first **launched/started our joint venture** 10 years ago.

Here too, instead of the mutual good feelings and pleasantness inherent in *współpraca*, we have the mutual trust of *partnership* and *teaming up* or the efficiency and mutual expected gains of a *joint venture*.

A person's employment with a company can also be described in Polish as *współpraca*, and in such cases as well the word stresses the (ostensible) mutual benefits and mutual pleasantness of the relationship, rather than the subordinate nature of the employment relation. Since the employer-employee relation does not fit the description of "two independent actors, of more or less comparable status" that I gave above, English *cooperation* can hardly be used as a translation here, either, and a more explicit approach needs to be taken:

(5) *Niestety X już z nami nie współpracuje.* (business email)
NOT: She no longer cooperates with us.
She no longer **works for** us.
She **is** no longer **with** us.

(6) *On z nami współpracuje od 2005.* (letter of recommendation)
NOT: He has cooperated with us since 2005.
He has **been working for** us since 2005.
He has **been our employee** us since 2005.
He has **been with** us since 2005.

(7) *Po raz pierwszy miałem przyjemność współpracować z X* (letter of recommendation)
w 2009, kiedy dołączyła do naszego zespółu sprzedaży.
X began **working under me** in 2009, when she joined our sales force.
I first **became acquainted with** X when she joined our sales force in 2009.

Seen from the English-speaking perspective, *współpraca* here again seems like a euphemism that shies away from describing standard employment relations.[1] For instance, "He has cooperated with us since 2005" as a translation of (6) above would in English likely be misinterpreted as suggesting not a standard, subordinate employment relation, but rather some nonstandard, more balanced one, perhaps between a company and an outside consultant or independent contractor.

It should therefore be clear that an awareness of this intercultural difference and its linguistic manifestations is crucial for successful Polish-English translation of nearly any business text involving the very common word *współpraca* (or *współpracować*). Unfortunately, however, I am unaware of any existing Polish-English dictionaries – specialist dictionaries for business or general-purpose dictionaries – or of any other training materials for translators which address this issue in a constructive way. Kozierkiewicz's (2005) major Polish-English dictionary of business terms, for instance, lists as many as 18 collocations in Polish including *współpraca* but indicates that every one can be translated straightforwardly using English *cooperation*, apparently oblivious to the pitfalls of such an

[1] Admittedly, a certain euphemism along somewhat similar lines is evident in the (US) English phrase "to be with (a company)" = "to work for, be employed by", illustrated in (5) and (6), but its usage is at least slightly informal and much more restricted than Polish *współpraca*.

approach as illustrated above. The only alternative equivalents Kozierkiewicz suggests alongside *cooperation* are *collaboration* (for just one collocation) and *development* (for just two); the verb *współpracować* Kozierkiewicz ignores entirely. The major general-purpose Polish-English dictionaries in print such as Fisiak (2003) and Linde-Usiekniewicz (2004) and the major online dictionaries such as ling.pl and megaslownik.pl fare slightly better, each offering a haphazard smattering of other ideas for *współpraca* in addition to *cooperation*, yet none provides any clear warning of the potential hazards of using *cooperation* in business contexts or the differing connotations of Polish *współpraca* and English *cooperation*. Douglas-Kozłowska's (1998) admirable set of practical guidelines for translators on how to cope with 100-odd problematic words in Polish-English translation unfortunately makes no mention of *współpraca*.

We can venture some conjecture, however, about why this is the case. Specialist dictionaries of business like Kozierkiewicz (2005) concentrate on terms (specialist lexemes) whereas general-purpose dictionaries like Fisiak (2003) and Linde-Usiekniewicz (2004) mainly deal with words (non-specialist lexemes). The distinction between words and terms is notoriously indistinct (see e.g. Thelen 2002), and the status of *współpraca* is far from clear in this respect. As a genre-marking key word it is closely linked to the specific genre of business texts, and it is probably for this reason it has largely fallen outside the field of vision of both the general-purpose Polish-English dictionaries and of translation-guideline sources such as Douglas-Kozłowska (1998). But on the other hand, *współpraca* is certainly not a typical term, either – it is not characterized by a high degree of "terminologicality" (a term that goes back at least to Shelov, 1982), meaning that it does not require a high degree of specialist information to understand, and it does not seem to evoke the kind of complex network or hierarchy of semantic knowledge typically evoked by terms, as the Polish business term *zarząd* (management board) or legal term *użytkowanie wieczyste* (perpetual usufruct) for instance do (see Biel 2009). Rather, what *współpraca* demands or evokes is more pragmatic than semantic: knowledge of a certain cultural script or frame, the "showing of good feelings" in business contexts, and the resulting interpretation of speaker/writer intentions. *Współpraca* therefore seems to have simply fallen through the cracks in the existing Polish-English translator tools. Its correct translation into English poses more of an intercultural-pragmatic challenge than a semantic or terminological one.

"Hospitality" in Polish Business

In the case of certain other key words of Polish business language, including at least *oferta* (offer), *zapraszać* (invite), *witać* (welcome), *czekać na* (await), *polecać* (recommend), *zachęcać* (encourage), and *spełnić oczekiwania* (meet expectations), the "showing of good feelings" takes on a specific dimension – centered around what may be called a conceptual metaphor in the sense of Lakoff and Johnson (1980). This Polish conceptual metaphor likens business dealings (buying and selling, advertising services and wares) to a situation of hospitality (someone being a guest in someone else's home). Under this main conceptual metaphor, which can be abbreviated as BUSINESS IS HOSPITALITY, comes a range of sub-metaphors: "the seller is host", "the buyer is guest", the venue (or website) is the "seller's house" and the products or services to be advertised or sold are "proffered like food on a table". This conceptual metaphor is the source of a particular type of "good feelings" frequently conveyed in Polish business language: a kind of warmth and well-wishing receptiveness which is at the same time not overly familiar, but instead mixed with a certain polite deference.[2] This combination of warmth plus deference is deeply grounded in Polish cultural norms for how hosts and guests behave in real situations of hospitality.

Like in the case of *współpraca* (cooperation) described above, the showing of good feelings can again be seen as serving to mask the suggestion of self-seeking, profit-driven behavior, more stigmatized in Polish culture. Here, too, the expression of such deference and warm, good feelings is sorely out of place in Anglo business culture, and as such these key words similarly pose formidable stumbling blocks to translators, again despite their seemingly innocent appearance.

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[2] Polite deference is also evident elsewhere in Polish business texts, as illustrated, for instance, by practices involving capitalization. While terms of address such as *Pan*, *Pani* and *Państwo* (male, female, and plural equivalents of English "you") are capitalized as a general standard in Polish, Polish business texts often stress well-wishing respect for the addressee by additionally capitalizing such words as *Klient* (client), *Szanowni Goście* (respected guests), etc. By contrast, such capitalization for politeness is not in general use in English, and English readers will be surprised to be suddenly addressed as "You, our Client" or as "our Respected Guests" in the middle of a text. This is again a related source of intercultural-pragmatic mistranslation problems that deserves separate attention in translator training – English readers will simply not understand that capitalization is meant to signal the writer's intention to convey polite deference, or how they are expected to react to it (by feeling treated more like a respected "guest").

Oferta (Offer)

The first hospitality-related key word in Polish business discourse I will consider is the noun *oferta* (offer) and the related verb *oferować* (to offer). Here the conceptual metaphor of BUSINESS IS HOSPITALITY comes into play in that hosts make offers to guests, rather than pressing anything upon them; such offers are meant to be a source of pleasantness for both sides, especially when accepted. In business contexts, Polish *oferta* most often denotes the overall set of goods or services which a company has for sale. I am claiming here that the very common practice of referring to these as the company's *oferta* in Polish and to the practice of trying to sell them using the verb *oferować* thus serves to overlay the profit-driven business relations of buying and selling with a layer of hospitality and the attendant showing of warm, good feelings plus deference.

The usage of English *offer* is more restricted (more so as a noun, somewhat less so as a verb), and again translators faced with various uses of *oferta* need to consider that English business language is generally more concrete and to-the-point. Given that English *offer* generally does not share this meaning of the overall set of goods or services which a business has for sale, Polish *oferta* is in such cases best translated not as *offer* but as, for instance, *assortment*, *range*, *line* of products or services:

(8) *bogata oferta mebli* (furniture store website)
NOT: a rich offer of furniture
an extensive **range/line** of furniture

(9) *oferta sklepu* (numerous websites)
NOT: the offer of a shop/store
a shop/store's **product assortment**

From the English perspective, Polish *oferta* here is general and euphemistic, and should be translated more concretely: What exactly does the business have for sale?

(10) *nowa oferta Apple'a* (telecoms advertisement letter)
NOT: Apple's new offer
Apple's new **products**/new **product line**
Apple's new **phones**

(11) *oferta śniadaniowa* (McDonald's)
breakfast menu

Many Polish websites have a tab or section entitled *(nasza) oferta* which might be translated variously depending on what kind of business is involved and what information is available after clicking the tab:

(12)	*(nasza) oferta*	(website tab)
	NOT: our offer	
	our cars	(if auto rental company)
	our rooms	(if hotel)
	our services	(if outsourcing company, etc.)
	conference packages	(if venue)
	laptops	(if laptop manufacturer/reseller)
	phones	(if telecom company)

When it is already clear what the company sells, *prices*, *terms*, or *conditions* might also serve as a good translation of the website tab *oferta* (provided, of course, that is the kind of information available under the tab).

To sum up, a company may *offer* products or services, but they do not constitute its *offer*. However, I do not wish to claim that the word *offer* is absent in English business discourse. *Offer* as a verb is indeed used (if perhaps somewhat less commonly than in Polish), as is the prepositional phrase *on offer*, and these are indeed frequently natural routes of translation for the Polish noun *oferta*:

(13) *Sklep ma bogatą ofertę używanych komórek.*
(cell phone shop website)
The shop/store **offers** a wide range of used cell phones.
The shop/store **has** an extensive range of second-hand phones **on offer**.

Nevertheless, especially when used as a noun, English *offer* is largely limited in business contexts to a set of restricted legal senses, referring not to products or services *per se* but to a concrete proposal of terms or conditions, understood to automatically become binding as soon as it is accepted by the other side. In some cases this coincides with the range of Polish *oferta*:

(14) *Złóżcie nam ofertę.* (business email)
Please make us **an offer**.

(15) *Niniejsza informacja nie stanowi oferty w rozumieniu przepisów Kodeksu Cywilnego*. (real estate letter)
This document/advertisement does not constitute **a commercial offer** in the sense of the Polish Civil Code.

But Polish *oferta* also has other specialist senses that do not translate into English *offer*:

(16) *oferta cenowa* (title of document)
price quotation/statement of terms

(17) *Złożyliśmy ofertę w przetargu na to zamówienie.* (business letter)
We submitted **a bid** in the tender for that contract
We **bid** for the contract.

Polish *oferta* therefore poses both a terminological and an intercultural-pragmatic challenge, and the possible use of *offer* in English as a translation of Polish *oferta* should be considered very judiciously by Polish-English translators. Again, this is unfortunately not clearly reflected in specialist or general dictionaries.

As concerns the word/term distinction, the situation with Polish *oferta* is even more complex than with *współpraca* above. Certain uses of *oferta*, such as (14)-(17) above, are clearly more term-like, with a higher degree of terminologicality, evoking considerable specialist knowledge. These senses are captured reasonably well by business dictionaries like Kozierkiewicz (2005), which lists 50 such specialist collocations involving *oferta*, most of them correctly described and useful for translators. Unfortunately, however, Kozierkiewicz does not provide a very clear overall picture of precisely which of these specialist senses of *oferta* are shared by English *offer* and which require translation via other routes. At the other end of the scale, other uses of *oferta*, such as (8)-(12) above (much like the uses of *współpraca* considered previously), are less term-like but at the same time business genre-specific; they play into the conceptual metaphor of hospitality in Polish whereas English *offer* does not play into any such metaphor and does not similarly serve to mask profit-driven behavior in English. These latter senses again largely fall through the cracks of the available tools for translators: they are apparently not term-like enough not to be reflected at all in Kozierkiewicz (2005), but at the same time they are apparently too specific to the business genre to be reflected at all in Fisiak (2003) or in Douglas-Kozłowska (1998). Linde-Usiekniewicz (2004) does provide one collocation that hints at the translation challenges described above (*oferta wydawnicza* as *range of publications*), and some useful guidelines can be found in Śliwa (2001) (in part concerned with business-related uses, such as *oferta pracy* as partially equivalent to *job offer*), but unfortunately the available translator tools do not provide much in the way of comprehensive assistance for dealing with *oferta*.

Verbs of Hospitality

Other key words frequently used in Polish business discourse that tie into the conceptual metaphor of BUSINESS IS HOSPITALITY include a range of verbs, such as *witać* (welcome), *czekać na* (await), *zapewnić* (ensure/reassure), *zapraszać* (invite), *polecać* (recommend), *zachęcać* (encourage), and *spełnić oczekiwania* (meet expectations). The hospitality element should be obvious here: hosts invite, welcome, and wait for their guests, recommend food or entertainment to them, encourage them to take advantage of the host's hospitality, and strive hard to anticipate and satisfy their expectations. By so doing, hosts (especially Polish hosts) show warm, good feelings towards their guests as well as deference. Here, too, the use of such key words to show such good feelings in a business context can be seen as serving to mask the suggestion of self-seeking, profit-driven behavior, more stigmatized in Polish culture.

Such expressions of hospitality are once again generally out of place in the English-speaking business world. The main point here is that in English, companies do not implore potential or existing customers and business partners by *recommending* things to them, *inviting* them or *encouraging* them to partake, *greeting* or *welcoming* them in a cordial way. Hence, taking a straightforward approach to translating the key words listed above, ignoring the intercultural difference, is very likely to mislead the Polish-English translator.

Instead, stronger imperative verbs can be used (e.g. *come!*, *visit!*, *try!*) or the addressee should be given a strong, convincing indication of what to expect (e.g. *just the right product*, *the very best*, *unforgettable*, *one of a kind*). Sometimes providing simple, cut-and-dried information is the best route (e.g. *open*, *available* in the examples below). These various approaches are briefly illustrated in the following set of examples, where the BUSINESS IS HOSPITALITY conceptual metaphor is strongly present in Polish phrases but is not carried over to the English translations:

(18) *Serdecznie witamy na naszej stronie internetowej* (ubiquitous on the Polish Internet)
POSSIBLE: Welcome to our website.
BETTER: We are the **number-one**…/You have **just found what** you are looking for!

(19) *Czekamy na Państwa!*
(hotel website)
NOT: We are waiting for You!
Come visit us!/We are **looking forward to** your visit!/**You will never forget** your stay!

(20) *Czekamy na Państwa w godzinach 10.00-18.00.* (power Company website)
NOT: We are waiting for You from 10 a.m. to 6 p.m.
Our offices are **open** from 10 a.m. to 6 p.m.

(21) *W cenie pokoju zapewniamy Państwu śniadanie przy suto zastawionym stole. Na posiłki zapraszamy do naszej restauracji*. (hotel website)
NOT: The room price includes lavish breakfast buffet, while for the main courses we would like to invite you to our restaurant. (version written by student translator)
The room price **includes an extensive breakfast buffet**, other meals **available** at our restaurant.

(22) *Polecamy nasze szkolenie internetowe*.
(training company advertisement letter)
NOT: We recommend our online training courses.
Give our online training courses a try!

(23) *Zachęcamy do korzystania z bezpłatnej pomocy prawnej*.
(insurance website)
NOT: We encourage you to benefit from our free legal consultation services.
Take advantage of our free legal consultation services.

(24) *Nasza oferta na pewno spełni Państwa oczekiwania.* (auto rental website)
NOT: Our offer will definitely meet Your expectations.
We are certain to have **just the car you are looking for, at just the right price**!

Unfortunately, despite their prevalence in business texts, the hospitality-related uses of such verbs also seem to have slipped under the radar of the tools available to Polish-English translators. Few if any hints at how to successfully cope with the intercultural-pragmatic challenge of translating these key words are to be found in any of the Polish-English dictionaries (print or online) or sources of translator guidelines discussed in the preceding sections.

Conclusions

I have made a case here for the analysis that the key words of Polish business discourse, which seem at first glance to be easy to translate but are in fact very frequently problematic in Polish-English translation, can be productively analyzed in terms of the showing of "good feelings" (such as the mutual pleasantness inherent in *współpraca*) and conceptual metaphor BUSINESS IS HOSPITALITY that draws upon the norms of Polish culture (such as the warmth plus deference inherent in *oferta*, *zapraszać*, *polecać*, etc.). In all these cases, the showing of good, warm feelings serves to mask the suggestion of self-seeking, profit-driven behavior, which is more stigmatized in Polish culture. As I have sought to show, successful English translations of almost any Polish business texts using these very prevalent key words need to take account of the norms prevailing in the English-speaking business world: describing business relations in more concrete, less euphemistic terms, invoking concepts of trust, efficient dealings, and mutual gain rather than mutual pleasantness, and speaking to potential/existing customers and business partners in bolder, more cut-and-dried, and more self-certain fashion.

Unfortunately, as noted above, the existing resources leave Polish-English translators almost completely high and dry in this regard. A first conclusion, therefore, is that future Polish-English dictionary resources should try to at least signal the intercultural differences that bear so heavily on successful translation of these key words. However, given that there is a limit to how much intercultural knowledge a dictionary entry can reasonably convey (even online), a more appropriate route may lie in supplementary materials targeted specifically at translators, providing guidelines for dealing with difficult situations – after the model of the guidelines in Douglas-Kozłowska (1998), albeit specifically encompassing business contexts.

Nevertheless, the best place for instilling in future translators an awareness of such intercultural differences in business language is surely in university-level courses in Polish-English business translation. At present, such courses taught at Polish institutions of higher education unfortunately tend to focus nearly exclusively on teaching students specialist terminology used in various business-related fields (the capital market, company finance, marketing, insurance, etc.), perhaps also giving them an understanding of fundamental economic mechanisms (interest rates, economic growth, etc.), while completely overlooking the kind of intercultural differences inherent in the less term-like key words discussed here. Intercultural differences and different techniques for coping with them are of course addressed in general or literature-focused translation courses and textbooks (e.g. Dzierżanowska 1990, Hejwowski 2004), but are underappreciated in business translation courses.

The main conclusion that follows from the above, therefore, is that instead of focusing so heavily on teaching terminology while tacitly assuming that people express themselves about business relations in the same way in Polish and English, it would be good for teachers of Polish-English business translation courses to take explicit steps to make translators more sensitive to the linguistic manifestations of intercultural differences. Given proper guidelines and background knowledge, as sketched out in this paper, newly-fledged translators should have an easier time handling (even without consulting dictionaries) the kind of intercultural-pragmatic challenge posed by the following examples, representative of what professional translators of business texts very often face:

(25) *Zapraszamy do zapoznania się z naszą ofertą.* (numerous websites)
NOT: Please familiarize yourself with our offer.
Take a look at what/everything we have to offer.
Take a look at our fantastic selection of X.

(26) *Gorąco zachęcamy do nawiązania współpracy!* (numerous websites)
NOT: We cordially encourage you to engage in cooperation with us!
Make the right choice and do business with us!

Epilogue

This paper has given only very cursory guidelines on how to successfully translate the key words treated herein – for a more comprehensive attempt, offering more ideas and covering more hospitality-related key words, see Sax (in preparation). The aim here has also not been to provide a rigorous treatment of intercultural differences in English and Polish business discourse and the cultural scripts from which those differences spring, which are certainly worthy of closer scrutiny. In the space that remains I will permit myself to sketch out a few of the open questions in this respect.

In terms of sociolinguistics and social psychology, one aspect worthy of further research is to what extent the "good feelings" and "hospitality" evident in the key words of Polish business discourse, which is after all a public discourse, are truly linked to the kind of genuine, "spontaneously shown feelings" that Wierzbicka (1994) is concerned with in private interpersonal relations in Polish culture. After all, seen from this perspective, the "good feelings" and "hospitality" in business texts, frequently expressed to people with whom the writer/speaker is not on close terms, may seem false and insincere, calculated and utterly non-spontaneous – can these phenomena actually be traced to the same cultural scripts Wierzbicka posits for interpersonal relations, or are they similar but distinct? Moreover, this analysis has considered the phenomena of "good feelings"" and "hospitality" in Polish business from a purely linguistic standpoint, but it would be interesting to consider to what extent they reflect real differences in behavior and in the psychology of business in the Polish-speaking and English-speaking business worlds.

In terms of translation studies, the observations made herein could be productively looked at in a comparative light. For instance, they may in particular be largely applicable to translation into English from other Eastern European, particularly Slavic languages (Russian, Ukrainian, etc.), where the elements of "good feelings" and "hospitality" also figure prominently in interpersonal relations and where the respective concepts corresponding to *cooperation* and *offer* presumably pose similar problems in business translations into English.

Lastly, in terms of the history of the Polish language, it would be interesting to trace the history of the euphemistic aspect of these key words of Polish business, examining to what extent it arose/became amplified during communist times or is rooted in interwar or even earlier Polish business language, and to what extent it represents an indigenous development or is a product of foreign (Russian, German) linguistic and cultural influence.

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CHAPTER TWO

EU TRANSLATION AS AN INSTITUTIONAL TRANSLATION: AN ADVANCED COURSE WITH FOCUS ON INFORMATION MINING COMPETENCE

ŁUCJA BIEL

Introduction

The European Union (EU) institutions are the largest translator employer and client in the EU, which employ in-house translators and work with independent contractors. In-house translation departments are available at the European Commission, the Council, the European Parliament, the Court of Justice, the Economic and Social Committee, and the Court of Auditors; additionally, EU agencies are serviced by a Luxembourg-based translation centre. The largest translation service, the European Commission's Directorate-General for Translation (DGT), employs 1750 full-time translators and 600 support staff (European Commission 2009: 5). The DGT translated 1.86 million pages in 2010. In-house translators work in particular on legislation, confidential and politically sensitive texts, but also function as a "translation hotline" for urgent texts and prepare summaries and edits[1]. To cope with the growing stream of translation after the recent accessions, the institutions also work with external translators as contractual agents who are selected through tenders[2]. External translators include both translation agencies and freelance translators. The external stream has been on the increase; according to the DGT's website, it accounted for c. 28% of the output in 2010. In addition to translation commissioned by EU institutions, there is a

[1] http://ec.europa.eu/dgs/translation/faq/index_en.htm#6
[2] cf. Calls for tenders and expression of interest: ec.europa.eu/dgs/translation/workwithus/calls/open/index_en.htm.

stream of translation related to the EU but commissioned by other bodies, notably at the national or local level. For example, this group includes translation of EU documents ordered by Member States' governments, reports and other deliverables under EU-funded projects, applications under EU-level activities, texts which include references to EU instruments, as well as other types of multilingual pan-European translation, such as opinion polls. This stream is perhaps not so visible and not so readily classified as "EU translation"; yet it seems to have a similar if not a greater size and is to a certain degree affected by institutional and multilingual constraints pervasive in the prototypical EU translation.

Despite the large scale of EU translation and related market requirements, the training of translators for EU institutions or, more broadly, in the area of EU translation, is often neglected at Polish universities; in fact, very few of them offer dedicated EU translation courses. Moreover, this topic is hardly ever discussed in the translator training literature. The aim of this paper is to fill this gap by presenting a design of a practical translation course which accounts for the institutional and versatile nature of EU translation. It will be argued that since EU translation requires the integration of multiple competences and special focus on information mining competence, it is well suited for an advanced course facilitating transition to the professional world.

The Hybridity of EU Translation

The institutional nature of certain types of translation seems to be neglected not only at the training level but also at the theoretical level. As aptly noted by Mason:

> It is at least plausible to suggest that large institutions may develop translational cultures of their own. This might happen because guidelines are issued to all translators working for the institution, in the form of glossaries, style guides, codes of practice and so on; or it might simply be a development which grows over a period of years out of shared experience, the need to find common approaches to recurring problems or through advice and training offered to new employees. Relatively little has been written about such phenomena and the issue of institutional approaches to translating might be considered to be a neglected factor within the field of translation studies. (2003/2004: 470)

EU translation is a classic example of institutional translation which takes place in institutional settings and develops a distinct culture of translating. The translator becomes part of "a situated institutional practice that has become routinized and habituated over time" (Kang 2011: 144).

The EU culture of translating is promoted through style guides, terminological databases and other resources that facilitate standardisation of translation in line with institutional policies.

One of the main factors impacting EU translation is the EU's multilingualism policy whereby all 23 official languages are treated equally to ensure that EU citizens have access to information in their native languages. As a result, EU-wide legislation is adopted in all the official languages of the EU and, more importantly, all language versions are equally valid and authentic, forming a single legal instrument presumed to have the same meaning. Translated EU legislation has an authoritative status. This policy is known as the principle of equal authenticity (Šarčević 1997: 64).

In order to make EU multilingualism feasible, it is necessary to adjust the language of source texts at the drafting stage to make them translatable into other languages and keep translation problems and inaccuracies to the minimum (Biel 2007: 149-151). Such interventions may include syntactic and semantic simplification and avoidance of system-specific terms of national law that do not have direct equivalents in other languages. The result of such adjustments is deculturalisation, i.e. reduced cultural embedding typical of *lingua francas* (van Els 2001: 329), which is combined with a distinct *intraculture* developed by the EU: "the Commission, or the EU institutions in general, constitute a culture of their own, an institutional and supranational culture that has its own history, shared knowledge, norms and values – and its own idiom" (2004: 145).

Consequently, EU law uses a distinct supranational conceptual network; as emphasised by the European Court of Justice, the terminology of EU legislation is "peculiar" to it and in consequence "legal concepts do not necessarily have the same meaning in Community law and in the law of the various member states" (Case 282/81 *Srl CLIFIT and Lanificio di Gavardo SpA* v *Ministry of Health*). To ensure uniform interpretation, drafters create terms which are "reasonably transparent and can be easily translated. Since the terms must be easily recognizable in all languages, literal equivalents have clearly had priority in the formation of Community terminology" (Šarčević 1997: 261). Wagner *et al.* note that since national terms may be misleading, it is better to use supranational terms without any "immediate" national connotations (2002: 65). On the other hand, the avoidance of national terms and the Community-level conceptual structure and terminology increase reception of EU translation as alien, which is further intensified by "unfamiliar and undomesticated eurorhetoric" (Koskinen 2000: 61). This poses additional challenges to translators and trainees.

EU texts, in particular legislative texts, are embedded in complex interdependecies and intertextual networks due to their systemic nature. Their intertextuality is considered to be even higher than that of literary texts: "EU texts are in fact intertextually more tightly knit than most literary texts" (Gibová 2009: 148). Each EU legislative instrument has a bibliographical note in EUR-Lex which shows its interdependencies, *inter alia*, under the following headings: *legal basis, amendment to (repeal, adoption), amended by, consolidated versions, instruments cited*. As may be seen, EU texts are not fully autonomous; they enter in dynamic relations with other texts which function as their interpretative frames. Intertextuality is preserved in translation through standardisation of terminology and explicit and implicit references to other documents, which may sometimes be difficult for translators to identify and preserve. In addition, translated EU legislation, being drafted in languages whose legal terms already have fixed connotations (Heutger 2005: 209), develop additional indirect intertextual chains with domestic law.

All in all, these features contribute to the hybridity of EU translation. As noted by Kang, "[h]ybridity in EU translations, in particular, has been associated less with 'translationese,' or lack of translational competence, and more with a convergence between cultures or institutional patterns of behaviour" (2011: 144).

The Thematic and Textual Range of EU Translation

The foregoing discussion particularly concerns EU legislation and case law, which are the most prototypical genres within EU translation. It should however be borne in mind that the category of EU translation covers a diverse range of text types. One of the well-known classifications of EU documents is based on a functional criterion, which is how they are used by EU institutions: (1) documents going out or for external use; (2) documents coming in or for internal use; (3) documents going nowhere (cf. Schäffner in Sosoni 2011: 89). This classification is useful in making students aware of gradable qualitative requirements imposed on translations depending on their function and status (i.e. risk of institutional face loss). However, classification according to text types seems to be more suitable for training purposes. The core text types of EU translation (the prototype) are, as noted above, legislation and case law. Other types of expert-to-expert communication in official contexts include institutional reports, recommendations, official communications, deliverables under EU projects, applications, international agreements, letters addressed to national governments or members of the European Parliament, European

Arrest Warrants and other mutual legal assistance requests (this list is by no means exhaustive). It is also important to account for communication with the general public where institutions communicate with citizens, organisations and enterprises, e.g. institutional websites, booklets, letters to citizens and undertakings, press releases, guides. These text types usually have a promotional or informative function and are written in a less specialised language, being subject to higher clarity requirements and less stringent institutional constraints. For example, *Vademecum tłumacza,* the DGT's style guide for Polish translators, requires the use of official country names, such as *Królestwo Niderlandów/Niderlandy* (the Netherlands) or *Zjednoczone Królestwo* (the United Kingdom), in certain types of official documents, in particular in legislation and reports, but recommends colloquial (and easily recognisable) variants in texts addressed to the general public, i.e. *Holandia* (Holland) and *Wielka Brytania* (Great Britain) respectively (2011: 51-52). Conformity to the institutional style guides, which may differ depending on whether a text is addressed to public authorities or the general public, is an excellent training tool at an advanced level as it requires integration of several skills to adjust translation to the *skopos* and the recipients. It is therefore important to include examples of both groups of texts in content design.

Another feature of EU translation which is vital from the trainer's perspective is that it is not typical *legal* translation but covers a broad thematic range. DGT departments are organised around three thematic units[3]:

Unit 01: Law, citizenship, administration and external relations
Unit 02: Technology, research, economics and natural resources
Unit 03: Culture, multilingualism, social affairs and enterprise policy

In each unit translators specialise in even narrower areas. In the case of EU legislation, its range covers all areas subject to regulation at the supranational level, i.e. finance, economics, customs, agriculture, industry and social policy, to name but a few. The thematic range is well demonstrated though EUR-Lex's classification headings shown in Figure 2-1.

[3] Except for the German and French departments which are divided into 6 units: Unit 01: Political and legal affairs, administration; Unit 02: External relations and competition; Unit 03: Agriculture and environment, taxation and customs union; Unit 04: Technology, research and economics; Unit 05: Culture and multilingualism, employment and health; Unit 06: Enterprise, trade and statistics (cf. http://ec.europa.eu/dgs/translation/whoweare/organisation_chart_en.pdf).

Figure 2-1. Classification headings in EUR-Lex

01. General, financial and institutional matters
02. Customs Union and free movement of goods
03. Agriculture
04. Fisheries
05. Freedom of movement for workers and social policy
06. Right of establishment and freedom to provide services
07. Transport policy
08. Competition policy
09. Taxation
10. Economic and monetary policy and free movement of capital
11. External relations
12. Energy
13. Industrial policy and internal market
14. Regional policy and coordination of structural instruments
15. Environment, consumers and health protection
16. Science, information, education and culture
17. Law relating to undertakings
18. Common Foreign and Security Policy
19. Area of freedom, security and justice
20. People's Europe

The thematic versatility of EU translation poses a question about how many fields should be covered by the trainer. Obviously, it will not be possible to cover all the fields in a single course, nor is there such a need; it is more practicable to focus on a few fields with distinct concept systems. However, it is important to make the trainees aware of the thematic breadth and the need to specialise in order to meet the high qualitative requirements set by the EU institutions.

Course Design

Having discussed the constraints placed on EU translation, I will now go on to describe the course which has been offered in the practically-oriented BA and MA Translation Programmes at the University of Gdańsk for a few years and which was designed to raise the trainees' awareness of institutional translation. The course has been offered as an advanced elective for 3rd-year BA students and 1st- and 2nd-year MA students. Since it is an elective, students who enrol are usually well motivated. The course lasts one semester and covers 15 meetings of 2 hours each, a total of 30 contact hours. In the case of MA students, it is accompanied (preceded or followed) by a 15-hour lecture course on EU law. Classes take place in a computer laboratory, which is critical for ensuring adequate access to online translation resources.

The overall objective of the course is to enable the trainees to learn how to translate multilingual texts and how to standardise them in line with institutional guidelines, depending on the recipient. During the content design phase, attention was paid to account for the versatility of EU texts, both in terms of their thematic and generic range. The course programme consists of five modules which are shown in the figure below.

Figure 2-2. EU course programme

EU COURSE PROGRAMME

MODULE 1: Introduction to EU translation and resources for translators

MODULE 2: Terminology work
- Self-study and test

MODULE 3: Institutional communication with the general public
- Institutional website
- Informative and popularising booklet
- Guide for entrepreneurs

MODULE 4: Institutional communication with public authorities
- Institutional report
- Legislation
  - primary legislation (treaty) and secondary legislation (regulation, directive, decision)
  - draft legislation: amendments for the European Parliament
  - domestic legislation (UK) referring to EU legislation
- Case law:
  - ECJ judgments
  - UK judgment referring to EU regulation

MODULE 5: Non-institutional communication related to EU matters
- training session on European Works Council
- Multilingual opinion poll
- feasibility study (PL>EN)
- project progress report (PL>EN)

Module 1 is a short introduction to EU translation, multilingualism and the institutional setting in the form of an interactive lecture. The trainees also learn about the work of translators in and for the EU institutions, in-house translation service, calls for expression of interest, tenders and other professional aspects necessary for translator competence (cf. Biel 2011). Next the trainees visit the DGT's website and discover translation and drafting resources[4]:

- **Guidelines and style guides**: *How to use Polish linguistic resources, Guide for contractors translating for the European Commission, Translation checklist, Common translation problems, Vademecum tłumacza* (DGT's style guide for Polish translators), *Interinstitutional Style Guide for Polish, Joint practical guide for EU legislative drafting for Polish.*
- **Terminology and glossaries**: *The IATE* (*Inter Active Terminology for Europe*, an inter-institutional terminological database), *DG Translation in-house glossary*, *Europa Glossary* (glossary on European integration and institutions), *Eurovoc* (multilingual thesaurus).
- **EU law databases**: *EUR-Lex, PreLex*.
- **Templates**: *Frequently used EU document templates, LegisWrite models.*

To ensure learner autonomy, an e-learning Moodle platform was created with links, academic papers and professional resources for self-study.

Module 2 is designed to enable the trainees to study basic EU terminology. This module is delivered on a self-study basis: the trainees are asked to read a chapter on the terminology of European Union law from Helen Gubby's *English legal terminology. Legal concepts in language* and are tested on it.

Module 3 is the first translation module. It covers communication with the general public through institutional websites[5], popularising booklets and guides. This group of texts is introduced at the beginning as it is not

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[4] http://ec.europa.eu/translation/index_en.htm.

[5] It is worth noting that due to "the need for the Commission to communicate effectively with people via the web", the European Commission set up a specialist Web Unit dedicated to translating and editing web texts: "The unit can help with the top-level content on Commission websites, using the different registers, drafting approach, formats and processing tools required for web content" (European Commission 2009: 10).

very demanding in terms of content and concepts; the texts are selected to ensure that the trainees will not have major problems with understanding them and information transfer in translation. Thanks to this, it is possible to practise the implementation of style guides and other resources until the trainees use them confidently and efficiently. Another component which is taught at this stage is cultural differences in institutional discourse, that is culturally appropriate ways in which an institution communicates with the general public. Polish institutions tend to use a more impersonal and formal style, which may require a register shift during translation.

Module 4 is the main translation component devoted to the core text types. It starts with a report and is followed by various types of legislation, both primary legislation (a treaty excerpt) and secondary legislation (regulation, directive, decision), ranging across a few prominent subjects, e.g. competition policy, taxation, agriculture and safety. In order to enhance the trainees' understanding of how the European Parliament's legislative process works, one of the texts is draft legislation prepared for a second reading in the European Parliament (see Figure 3). The English draft contains the Council common position (left) and amendments by the Parliament (right) and the trainees are asked to implement changes in the existing Polish text.

Figure 2-3. Excerpt from draft legislation with the Council common position (left) and amendment by Parliament (right).

Recital 5

(4) It is essential to protect plants and plant products against such organisms, ***not only*** to prevent a reduction in yield or damage to them ***but also in order*** to ensure ***the quality of the products harvested, to increase*** agricultural productivity***, and to protect the natural environment by limiting the surface area needed for agricultural production*** .	(4) It is essential to protect plants and plant products against such organisms, to prevent a reduction in yield or damage to them ***and*** to ensure ***high*** agricultural productivity. ***To this end, different methods are available: non-chemical methods, practices such as using resistant varieties, crop rotation, mechanical weeding, biological control and chemical methods such as the use of plant protection products or pesticides.***

Choosing the right legislative instrument to translate may represent a challenge to a trainer. In the case of Polish, post-accession documents which are directly applicable or have a direct effect (e.g. regulations, directives) as well as the pre-accession *acquis* have already been translated and published in the Official Journal. Ideally, text selection should be dictated by training needs and professional realism, but in reality it is a compromise between a “professionally real” text and what has not been translated into Polish in EUR-Lex.

The next group of texts in this module is case law. To learn how to deal with cross-systemic intertextual references, the trainees are asked to translate an ECJ judgment and an opinion of the advocate general, as well as a UK High Court judgment referring to an EC regulation on animal waste.

Module 5 contains a varied group of texts which are not a typical institutional discourse (institutions are involved indirectly) but, nevertheless, evolve around EU matters. They are translated by translation agencies rather than the institutions themselves. The first text is a Power Point presentation from a training session explaining to employees how the European Works Council regulation applies to their transnational company, which requires the trainees to identify hidden quotes from, and references to, the regulation. Another text is an EU-wide multilingual opinion poll, such as a Eurobarometer. The trainees are expected to select appropriate strategies and techniques to ensure that the client obtains comparable results in various countries. For example, it might require solutions where accuracy takes precedence over stylistic considerations. Translations next undergo proofreading to check against the ST for accuracy as well as back translation to check for any shifts in meaning and identify critical areas. The last two texts are connected with EU funding – a feasibility study and a project progress report. These are the only texts which are translated from Polish (language A) into English (language B), which is the trainees’ non-native language.

Teaching Approach (Delivery)

The course was designed to ensure smooth progression towards learner autonomy and a student-centred approach. The trainees start with individual pre-class and in-class assignments, next they work in pairs (translator – proofreader) and later on collaborative group projects which train professional roles on a rotating basis (project manager, terminologist, translators, proofreaders). As a result, activities are not limited to translation only and may also include proofreading, back translation, redrafting, terminology management, project management. This may be illustrated with a group assignment to translate the decision on measures applying to the processing of certain animal waste to protect against transmissible spongiform encephalopathies (c. 2600 words). The trainees work in groups of four and organise their work themselves by scheduling it, coordinating the project, managing the terminology, providing background materials, translating and proofreading to ensure consistency of style and terminology. My observations show that it is terminological consistency that is most problematic to the students, who are accustomed to working on 300-word text excerpts. This problem area clearly requires more attention in translator training literature.

Competences

The course addresses core translation competences: the trainees should understand constraints operating in supranational translation and their own place in the translation process which may involve multiple stakeholders. It also allows for the integration of competences listed by the EMT expert group (cf. Gambier 2009), including in particular information mining competence, technological competence, as well as terminological competence[6].

Technical competence involves working with various file formats, such as .doc, .ppt, .xls, document templates and the Eurolook and LegisWrite software. It is also possible to integrate CAT tools and the DGT's Translation Memory of the *acquis*, which was published by the European Commission's Joint Research Centre[7]. Another idea is to apply corpora which allow for an inductive teaching methodology by facilitating discovery learning. The trainees may study peculiarities of EU language by utilising JRC-Acquis[8], an aligned multilingual parallel corpus available in 22 languages, with an overall size of 1 billion words.

Institutional translation is perfectly suited to developing **information mining competence**, since the students need to consult various resources in the right order, quickly research topics in the source and target languages, find background and reference documents and their existing translations in EUR-Lex, check terminology in the IATE, the DGT's in-house glossary and existing translations, learn how to read reliability measures in the IATE, develop criteria for evaluation of resources and learn how to deal with inconsistencies between the resources. Being a product of human activity, the institutional resources are not perfect; for

[6] Terminological competence is not singled out in the EMT grid of competences, which seems to be a curious omission.
[7] http://langtech.jrc.it/DGT-TM.html
[8] http://langtech.jrc.it/JRC-Acquis.html

example, the EUR-Lex may contain three different equivalents of the same term in related documents and the trainees have to learn how to select the right one. Interestingly, consistency of terminology and verification of references to already published documents are one of the quality assessment criteria applied by the DGT to external translators (cf. Sosoni 2011: 84). For these reasons, information mining competence is critical to producing a high-quality translation. Another component of this competence is consistency with the style guides which tends to be neglected in the translation classroom. For example, such consistency may require an application of standardised textual frames as requested by the DGT's *Vademecum Tłumacza* as well as linguistic recommendations concerning punctuation, capitalisation or avoidance of passives. As Washbourne convincingly argues:

> Style guides (style sheets or stylebooks) can constitute a key heuristic tool and pedagogical scaffolding in translator training environments in that they require the negotiation of situated meaning with multiple stakeholders, potentially across multiple tasks and cohorts of trainees. (2012)

Increased focus on information mining competence turned out to be empowering for the students. The feedback reported anonymously after the course was largely positive. The trainees especially enjoyed working with online resources. What is worth noting is one recurrent comment from the trainees that, compared to standard legal translation, they feel more confident when translating EU texts. They noted that it was thanks to access to a multitude of translation resources and, in particular, to the ability to study professional (and authoritative) translations in EUR-Lex and finding solutions in the existing translations. At first, the trainees tend to be overwhelmed with the plethora of resources and conflicting information therein, but they learn with time how to confidently make informed decisions, which results in increased fluency and efficiency.

Follow-up Projects

In order to facilitate transition to the professional world, real-life projects were offered to the trainees on a voluntary basis after completion of the course. One of the projects was launched in collaboration with the Polish Ministry of Foreign Affairs and lasted nine months (October 2010 – June 2011). It involved virtual internships in the Ministry during which 12 students translated the news for the *Polish Preparations for the Presidency* website (http://prezydencjaue.gov.pl/en/) on a weekly basis (cf. Figure 4). The students worked in pairs (translator – proofreader); their work was coordinated and managed by a fellow student; the translations were verified and proofread in-house by the Ministry. Another project was also connected with the Polish Presidency of the EC Council and started in July 2011 as part of our partnership agreement with Wasco SA, which was engaged by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs to run accreditation points for Presidency meetings and conferences. The company employed 14 students to work in the accreditation point in Sopot, three of which were employed as managers and had their contracts extended to work in other cities, such as Wrocław, Poznań and Kraków. Such projects allow novice translators to test their skills in real life and are an indispensable component of translator training.

Figure 2-4. A screenshot of the website translated by the students in collaboration with the Ministry of Foreign Affairs.

There are also useful training initiatives at EU level. One of them is the DGT's Visiting Translator Scheme which sends DGT in-house translators to universities for a few weeks where they teach students; however, it is not easy to obtain such a placement. Another initiative is the EMT (European Master's in Translation) network of universities which recognises high quality translation programmes and was launched to improve the standard of translator training in the EU. Furthermore, direct professional experience may be obtained by novice translators during paid and unpaid internships at EU institutions. Two of my students won 3-month internships in the European Central Bank in Frankfurt in 2010 and 2011, where they were offered ample training opportunities and participated in real-life projects.

Conclusions

Considering its scale and importance in the European translation market, EU translation should be a mandatory component of specialised translator training in the European Union. Because of its complexity and versatile nature, it should be introduced at an advanced level of training, where it offers the opportunity for integrating the multiple skills necessary both for translation competence and translator competence, including an efficient and confident use of diverse IT resources, proofreading, project management, etc. Above all, it was argued that a sharp focus on information mining competence (in particular, conformity with style guides, work with terminological databases and reconstructing intertextual links in the target text) is critical for professional realism of training. Such skills require not only a thorough understanding of the institutional nature of EU translation, but above all learner's autonomy ensured through a student-centred approach. If combined with real-life projects involving EU institutions, this type of translation may facilitate transition to the professional world.

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Chapter Three

Consultation of Sources in the Course of Legal Translation: An Empirical Study

Joanna Sycz

Introduction

What sources can nowadays be perceived as translators' best friends? That role was traditionally assigned to dictionaries and encyclopaedias. Yet, recent technological innovations have altered translators' working environment significantly. Today, translators have, among others, computer software, electronic dictionaries and the Internet at their disposal. The World Wide Web in particular constitutes an interesting alternative to traditional sources, as it provides immediate access to an enormous repository of information. Yet, a few Google searches may not necessarily lead to the desired information if one does not know where to look for it. Moreover, the quantity of data available on the Internet does not go hand in hand with their quality. Most of what is published online does not undergo any editing or verification process. Are translators then able to make use of the new sources effectively?

The present study attempts to answer the above question through close observation of the search strategies applied in the process of legal translation. Besides this general goal, the experiment was designed with a range of more specific questions in mind:

- What sources are consulted (in what order and with what result)?
- What information is sought (an equivalent, a definition, a collocation, grammatical properties, etc.)?
- What factors contribute to the popularity of some sources and rejection of others?

- Do sources provide translators with satisfactory information or leave them with doubts? Can they be misleading?

The study focuses exclusively on translation of legal texts, due to their unique character as compared with other types of discourse. Legal translation requires a great deal of law-related research for several reasons. First, as Mellinkoff (1963: 399) pointed out, “precision is the loudest virtue of the language of law”. A slight change of meaning may have dire consequences for persons affected by a particular document. Secondly, in order to translate a text, one needs to interpret it within the bounds of a particular legal context, and that requires expert knowledge, often obtained from numerous sources. One may argue that if legal translators were educated in law, they would not need the assistance of reference books to decode the original meaning. But which legal system particularly should they specialise in? The English language is used to describe numerous legal realities: English, American, Australian, Canadian, to name just a few, and as Šarčević (2000: 231) put it:

> Each national or municipal law, as it is called, constitutes an independent legal system with its own terminological apparatus and underlying conceptual structure, its own rules of classification, sources of law.

Expertise in so many legal systems is hardly attainable. Thirdly, due to the incongruency of legal systems, many SL legal terms do not have their direct counterparts in TL. Pieńkos (1999: 124) singled out three types of terms that appear in legal texts:

- those that have a semantic equivalent[1],
- those that do not have a precise equivalent, but it is possible to find a functional equivalent, e.g. mortgage (English) and hypotheque (French),
- those that are truly untranslatable (e.g., common law, equity, etc.).

The latter group poses a real problem for lexicographers since, as Bergenholtz and Tarp (1995: 62) put it, “on account of the cross-cultural differences, it may be extremely difficult or downright impossible to find an equivalent with the same meaning as the lemma”. When faced with a culture-bound term, lexicographers often resort to one of the translation

[1] It should be stressed that perfect equivalence of terms does not exist. Therefore, following Pieńkos, the equivalence of legal terms should be understood as ‘approximate semantic value’, not as ‘equal semantic value’. In this sense, the term *equivalence* is used in this paper.

techniques (paraphrase, descriptive equivalent, literal translation, etc.) to render the meaning of the SL term, hence so many discrepancies between bilingual legal dictionaries. Finally, legal vocabulary is internally heterogeneous. Terms of art constitute only a small percentage of the legal lexicon. Many lexical items are deliberately indeterminate – for instance, *good faith, due diligence* (Hart 1994). Different areas of law use different terminological apparatus, thus many legal terms acquire different meanings when used in different legal contexts, e.g. *tort*. Moreover, the same concept may be expressed by different linguistic signs, depending on the field of law. For instance, in the Polish legal discourse both *nieletni* and *małoletni* refer to an underage person, yet *nieletni* is used in the context of penal law while *małoletni* – in the context of civil law (Jopek-Bosiacka 2006).

Methodology

First of all, it should be stressed that the paper presents the results of a pilot study. The study adopts research tools previously used by Atkins and Varantola (2008), with certain modifications. The experiment conditions resembled, as much as it was practically feasible, the natural work environment of a translator. Participants were divided into pairs. One participant assumed the role of the Translator, while the other took on the role of the Recorder.

- The Translator was to translate the text with the assistance of available sources. He was also expected to "think aloud" – explain his choices and decisions, comment on the quality of consulted sources, etc.
- The Recorder's task was to record every move of the Translator, related to the consultation process, as well as his comments. He was also expected to record the search results and the Translator's level of satisfaction. The Recorder elicited comments from the Translator and was free to form his own conclusions, based on observations.

The distribution of tasks among two participants guarantees that the reporting process does not interfere with the look-up process (cf. Tono 1984: 54). The Translator performs translation as usual, with the exception that he is expected to express his comments aloud. Since he is not distracted by the recording process, he can focus entirely on his task. The presence of the Recorder enables observation of the consultation process on the spot and provides a certain degree of objectivity. Moreover, it could be expected that the unengaged observer would do his reporting more conscientiously than the Translator who is preoccupied with a different job.

Observation Protocols

The process of consulting sources was recorded on special Observation Protocols (see: Appendix 1) according to the following instructions. Each individual search[2] was to be recorded on a separate Observation Protocol. Participants were asked to write the name of the team and the item being searched for at the top of each Observation Protocol. Then, they were expected to record particular look-ups in chronological order. Prior to the experiment, Recorders had been instructed about what information should be recorded in the comments section: the source being consulted, the type of information searched for, the reasons for choosing a particular source, the level of satisfaction with the look-up result, etc.

Assessment of Translations

Participants' satisfaction may not reflect the actual translation success, as they may not realise that they have arrived at the wrong rendition of an original term. Therefore, the accuracy of translation was also taken into account in the study. The protocols and the submitted translations were analysed together to establish the link between the consultation method applied by a participant and the outcome.

Participants

As participants were selected, lexical pre-knowledge had to be taken into account. It is defined by Lew (2004: 52) as "the knowledge about lexical items which participants bring with them into the experimental setting and which they draw upon during the conduct of the experiment". To avoid this problem, it was decided that professional legal translators should not participate in the experiment. It is highly probable that they have come across similar legal texts in their professional life. Thus, during the experiment they may rely more on their experience and knowledge

[2] Following Atkins and Varantola, I distinguish between a *search* and a *look-up*. I define the *search* as a whole process of obtaining information related to a particular lexical item, while the *look-up* is understood as a single consultation event. Therefore, several look-ups may constitute a single search.

than available sources. The group taking part in the experiment consisted of fourth-year English philology students (advanced language users, yet unfamiliar with legal discourse).

Translation Task

The translation task consisted of varied genres of legal language, such as an agreement, a power of attorney, a statute, and educational materials (see: Appendix 2). The participants were asked to translate fragments of the text marked in bold from their native language (Polish) into English and vice versa. The rest of the text served as the context. The paragraphs to be translated had been carefully selected in order to prevent the problem of the so-called dictionary underuse, defined by Lew (2004: 49) as follows:

> The problem of dictionary underuse is partially related to the problem of the use of vocabulary items that are either known, or just believed to be known, by subjects. In such a situation, subjects are less likely to want to invest their time and effort in consulting a dictionary.

Available Sources

During the experiment Translators had unlimited access to varied sources, such as:

- General monolingual dictionaries:
  - *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English.*
  - *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary.*
  - *Macmillan English Dictionary.*
- General bilingual dictionaries:
  - *Wielki multimedialny słownik angielsko-polski, polsko-angielski PWN Oxford.*
  - *Nowy Słownik Fundacji Kościuszkowskiej polsko-angielski, angielsko-polski.*
  - Fisiak, Jacek. *Collins: słownik angielsko-polski.*
- Encyclopaedias of Polish law:
  - *Encyklopedia. Prawo nie tylko dla prawników.*
  - Kalina-Prasznic, Urszula. *Encyklopedia prawa.*
- Legal monolingual dictionaries
  - Curzon, Leslie. B. *Dictionary of Law.*
  - Garner, Brian. A. *Dictionary of Modern Legal Usage.*
  - Garner, Brian. *Black's Law Dictionary.*

- Bilingual legal dictionaries:
    - Jaślan, Janina and Henryk Jaślan. *Słownik terminologii prawniczej i ekonomicznej angielsko-polski.*
    - Małkiewicz, Ewa and Joanna Małkiewicz. *Polsko-angielski słownik terminologii prawniczej.*
    - Małkiewicz, Ewa and Joanna Małkiewicz. *Angielsko-polski słownik terminologii prawniczej.*
    - Myrczek, Ewa. *Dictionary of Law Terms.*
    - Ożga, Ewa. *The Great Dictionary of Law and Economics.*
- Bilingual business dictionaries:
    - Kozierkiewicz, Roman. *Dictionary of Business Terms. Polish-English, English-Polish.*
    - Pallister, John and Alan Isaacs. *A Dictionary of Business.*
    - Black, John. *A Dictionary of Economics.*
- Parallel texts:
    - Łozińska-Małkiewicz, Ewa. *The Penal Code.*
    - TEPIS Translator's Board. *The Polish Civil Code.*
    - Grątkowska, Irena and Tomasz Rakk. *The Polish Commercial Code.*
    - Wyrozumska, Anna. *Introduction to Polish Law.*
    - Frankowski, Stanisław. *Introduction to Polish Law.*

Naturally, participants also had access to an unlimited number of sources available on the Internet.

Experiment Results

Results of a pilot study can hardly be perceived as the basis for any final judgment. Yet, even at such an early stage certain trends can already be observed. Twelve teams (each consisting of the Translator and the Recorder) participated in the experiment. The total number of searches amounted to 175 and the total number of look-ups was 288, which means that the participants consulted sources 288 times trying to solve 175 linguistic problems.

Firstly, let us look at the type of sources being consulted (Table 3-1). Not surprisingly, bilingual legal dictionaries were most popular among the participants.

Table 3-1. Consulted sources

Type of source	No. of look-ups
bilingual legal dictionary	142
bilingual general dictionary	89
Wikipedia	14
other Internet sources	13
monolingual general dictionary	12
monolingual legal dictionary	5
bilingual business dictionary	5
online translator	3
parallel texts	1
not specified or impossible to classify	4

What information did the participants look for (Table 3-2)? As was to be expected, the most desired information was the equivalent of the term as well as its meaning.

Table 3-2. Type of information sought

Type of information sought	No. of look-ups
an equivalent	109
meaning	31
the equivalent of a collocation	14
confirmation of a search result	16
meaning of a collocation	8
example sentences	4
information related to a particular term	3
grammatical properties	2
checking whether the collocation exists	1
the meaning of an equivalent found in a bilingual dictionary	1
the meaning in a particular legal system (Scottish)	1
similar terms (because a required term has not been found)	1
not specified	97

However, it should be stressed that during the analysis of comments one could have an impression that participants did not really distinguish between the meaning and the equivalent, since bilingual dictionaries were often consulted to find the meaning of a term. That is the search strategy acquired at the early stage of linguistic education. It indeed proves to be very efficient when it comes to basic concepts. The moment we see a native linguistic sign, we automatically understand its meaning. In the legal context such a method may be inefficient (the equivalent provided in a bilingual dictionary is as mysterious as the headword) as well as misleading (the microstructure of a bilingual dictionary creates a false impression that SL and TL terms are fully equivalent, which they are not).

Thus, were the participants successful in their search? Table 3-3 shows that 71 out of 175 searches (41%) involved consultation of more than one source, which means that in 41% of situations the Translator was not satisfied with the result of the search in the first source.

Table 3-3. No. of multiple look-ups

No. of look-ups in a single search	No. of searches
1 look-up	104
multiple look-ups	71
2 look-ups	41
3 look-ups	21
4 look-ups	6
5 look-ups	1
6 look-ups	2

I looked closely at the comments provided in the Observation Protocols to find the reasons for consulting more than one source (Table 3-4).

Table 3-4. Reasons for consulting more than one source

Reasons for consulting more than one source	No. of answers
information not found	31
to make sure, confirm	16
checking both the equivalent and meaning	9
too many equivalents within a dictionary entry, the Translator doesn't know which one to choose	6
to find examples of use	6
equivalent provided does not fit in the context	6
information provided not understood	3
no context of use provided	2
the grammatical form of an equivalent provided does not fit a sentence	1
to find synonyms	3
result of the search not satisfactory	5
not specified or impossible to classify	27

In order to analyse these results we need to know what sources the above comments refer to. Table 3-5 presents the sources of first choice.

Table 3-5. Sources of the first choice

The sources of first choice	No. of look-ups
bilingual legal dictionary	97
bilingual general dictionary	59
bilingual business dictionary	2
webpages (e.g., lectlaw.com, desktoplawyer.com, Google/Firefox)	5
monolingual general dictionary	2
monolingual legal dictionary	1
Wikipedia	4
online translator	1
not specified or impossible to classify	4

A significant number of participants simply failed to find what they were looking for in the source of their first choice. If we combine this result with the high rate of consultation of general dictionaries (Table 5), it could be concluded that the poor search result is the consequence of a wrong search strategy. One could hardly expect to find comprehensive information related to a legal term in a general dictionary.

In 16 cases participants reached for another source to confirm the first result. Such figures contradict the popular opinion that dictionary users copy out equivalents from bilingual dictionaries without much consideration. Participants displayed high distrust towards the contents of dictionaries. The reason for that is probably the lack of expertise and experience. Since the participants are not equipped with the necessary knowledge, they have no means of verifying a dictionary entry, other than checking the information in another source.

The remaining figures present information that most bilingual legal dictionaries lack: definitions, examples of use, context of use, grammatical properties and collocability. When it comes to monolingual dictionaries, the definitions proved to be unclear and difficult to understand for some participants.

What motivated participants to consult these particular sources? The study revealed that the speed and convenience of search are valued much higher than the source's credibility (see: Table 3-6). In most cases, printed bilingual dictionaries were consulted only when no information could be found in computer dictionaries. The study confirms the opinion expressed by many professional translators that the form of a dictionary is as important as its contents (if not more) because in the hectic business environment the speed of translation is as important as its quality.

Table 3-6. Reasons for choosing particular sources.

Reasons for choosing particular sources	No. of answers
fast	49
convenient (clear microstructure, easily-readable font)	15
this is a computer dictionary	13
reliable source	11
source is at hand	5
this is a basic, main source	4
no particular reason	4
this is a specialist dictionary	3
this is a well-known source	1
I presume this source has that information	1
no entry in consulted dictionaries	1
many sources in one place (ling.pl)	1
presentation of a term in context	1
extensive entry (a lot of information provided)	1
not specified or impossible to classify	178

Finally, it should be emphasized that many participants did not follow any particular strategy in their research. Many of them foraged the sources focusing mostly on the search for the equivalent of a given term. The Translators did not know how to handle the situation when they could not find an answer to their linguistic problem in the first source (which was usually a bilingual dictionary). The experiment also revealed a tendency to consult first the sources that are easily-accessible or well-known. Translators often expressed dissatisfaction with the sources and uncertainty about how to apply the information found in a given source to their translation. Only 56% of equivalents inserted into the translated text were correct.

Concluding Remarks

The results of this pilot study are just a sketch of the final picture, thus they need to be treated with a dose of caution. The pilot study highlighted some aspects of the experiment that need to be redesigned. Participants in the study followed the course of work of an average translator without any restrictions imposed on them. Also, Recorders were given considerable freedom in formulating their comments. On the one hand, such a formula guarantees that the information recorded in the Observation Protocols reflects the reality. On the other hand, it makes the analysis of results a laborious task. The Recorders were provided with general guidance as to what kind of information they should record. Yet, each Recorder focused on different aspects of the consultation process, while many other aspects were not recorded at all (for instance, some Recorders wrote down several reasons for choosing a particular source but provided no information as to the type of information sought by the Translator). Moreover, the notes were made in a rush and often consisted of short phrases or single words, which made them difficult to interpret and classify (some of the sources were indicated imprecisely, e.g. Oxford Dictionary or System TL+). Hence, I see the need for a guided questionnaire in the main study. The answers provided by the participants in the pilot experiment could be used to formulate ready-made answers to be included in the questionnaire. Moreover, during the analysis of comments it appeared that some Recorders had felt obliged to fill in Observation Protocols with varied remarks, even by expressing the same phenomenon in different ways. To prevent such a situation in the main experiment, an abbreviation system for marking repetitions should be introduced. That would expedite the recording process as well as the analysis of comments. The videotaping of the experiment is also being considered. Then, the role of the Recorder would include both recording the consultation process on the protocols and interviewing the Translator.

Appendix No. 1

Team's name:			
Lexical item searched:			
	SOURCE	COMMENTS	SEARCH RESULT
1			
2			
3			
4			
5			
6			

Appendix No. 2

[an excerpt from the statute – English law]
Family Law Reform Act 1969 section 8
(1)The consent of a minor who has attained the age of sixteen years to any surgical, medical or dental treatment which, in the absence of consent, would constitute a trespass to his person, shall be as effective as it would be if he were of full age; and where a minor has by virtue of this section given an effective consent to any treatment it shall not be necessary to obtain any consent for it from his parent or guardian.(2)In this section "surgical, medical or dental treatment " includes any procedure undertaken for the purposes of diagnosis, and this section applies to any procedure (including, in particular, the administration of an anaesthetic) which is ancillary to any treatment as it applies to that treatment.(3)Nothing in this section shall be construed as making ineffective any consent which would have been effective if this section had not been enacted.

[an excerpt from the statute – English law]
Torts (Interference with Goods) Act 1977
Definition of "wrongful interference with goods".
In this Act "wrongful interference", or "wrongful interference with goods", means – (a) conversion of goods (also called trover), (b) trespass to goods, (c) negligence so far at it results in damage to goods or to an interest in goods, (d) subject to section 2, any other tort so far as it results in damage to goods or to an interest in goods.

[a definition of the term ‘trespass’ – Scots law]
Trespass may be committed by persons, by animals or (if temporary) by things. As in England, trespass is a civil wrong in Scotland, and can sometimes also constitute a criminal offence, e.g. trespass which breaches poaching laws. **The defences to trespass are:**

- Consent
- Judicial Warrant
- Emergency
- **Exercise of a right. For example, this could be a servitude, a public right of way, or an access right under part 1 of the Land Reform (Scotland) Act 2003.**

[an excerpt from the agreement – English law]
No Indemnified Party will be entitled to indemnification pursuant to this Agreement for general or special damages, consequential, punitive, vindictive damages or damages for lost profits, diminution in value, hedonic damages or any other type of compensation.

[an excerpt from the document drafted by the notary public – Polish law]
PEŁNOMOCNICTWO
Ja, niżej podpisany FF, zamieszkały w Sosnowcu przy ul. Złotej 10, legitymujący się dowodem osobistym AB123, jedyny spadkobierca śp. Bożydara B, zmarłego 27 listopada 2010 w Sosnowcu, niniejszym ustanawiam swoim pełnomocnikiem pana MM (…), którego upoważniam w ramach niniejszego pełnomocnictwa do wykonania następujących czynności prawnych w związku z nabyciem spadku po ww. spadkodawcy, a mianowicie do:
- sprawowania zarządu i administrowania całym moim majątkiem;
- podejmowania wszelkich działań niezbędnych do uzyskania odszkodowań, wynagrodzeń (…)

[an excerpt from the agreement – Polish law]
UMOWA SPÓŁKI JAWNEJ
Zawarta w poznaniu dnia 11 kwietnia 2000 roku pomiędzy KK zamieszkałym w Poznaniu przy ul. Kwiecistej 12 oraz EE (…) o następującej treści:
KK i EE zawierają spółkę jawną zgodnie z art. 75 i nast. Kodeksu handlowego (Dz. U. nr 57 poz. 502 z 1934 z późn. zm.)
Firma spółki będzie brzmiała “Zakład przetwórstwa owoców”
Siedzibą spółki jest miasto Poznań

Przedmiotem przedsiębiorstwa spółki jest wyrób i sprzedaż przetworów z owoców.

Prawo reprezentowania spółki przysługuje obojgu wspólnikom. Do zastępowania spółki upoważniony jest KK, a w razie ustanowienia prokurenta, KK łącznie z prokurentem.

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CHAPTER FOUR

SELECTED ASPECTS OF (TEACHING) MEDICAL TRANSLATION

JANUSZ WRÓBLEWSKI

Medical translation has a long history and a bright future. Henry Fischbach (1988) is absolutely right when he calls it "the Great Pollinator of Early Medicine". If it had not been for translation, medicine as we know it would not exist. Can anyone imagine modern medicine without the works of Hippocrates, Galen, or Avicenna, or, to focus on some more recent key figures in the history of medicine, those of Louis Pasteur, Robert Koch, Wilhelm Röntgen, Ivan Pavlov, Sigmund Freud, and Alexander Fleming, being translated and made available to other doctors and researchers? Obviously not, and of course this short list of a few world-famous names does not even pretend to be representative of the whole vast body of medical literature popularized through translation.

The beginnings of medical translation can be traced back to Ancient Mesopotamia, where medical knowledge (along with chemical, mathematical, and astrological knowledge) was recorded in several languages of the area – Ugaritic, Akkadian, Sumerian, Hittite and Hurrian (Montalt and González Davies 2007: 15), but medical translation significant for Europe began in Ancient Rome, with the rendering into Latin of – among other things – the Greek writings of Hippocrates (460?-377? BC), known as "the Father of Medicine", and of Galen of Pergamon (AD 129-199/217). Later, in the 9th century in the Middle East, Greek medical texts got translated into Arabic, but the area produced its own medical writings, notably by the Persian-born Rhazes, author of more than 140 volumes on medicine, and by Ibn-Sina or Avicenna (980-1037), called the "Galen of Islam", who wrote an encyclopedia of medical knowledge known in Latin as the *Canon Medicinae*, which was used in Europe well into the 18th century (Fischbach 1988: 366, Montalt and González Davies 2007: 15-16).

Starting from the 15th century, medical scholars began to go back to the Greek originals to produce new, better, more accurate translations into Latin – one of the most renowned physicians and medical translators of that period was Thomas Linacre (1460?-1524) – and later, as Latin gradually began to lose its status as the language of science, also into other European languages. It might be mentioned here in passing that a seminal book on drugs produced from plants from the New World – *Historia medicinal de las cosas que se traen de nuestras Indias occidentales* by Nicolas Monardes (1493-1588) – was written not in Latin but in Spanish; in 1577, John Frampton translated it into English as *Joyfull Newes out of the Newe Founde Worlde* (Fischbach 1988: 367).

As Fischbach (1988: 363-364) points out, there are three major reasons why medical texts started to be translated so early and were translated so often: (1) the universal nature of the subject, i.e., the human body and its functions (by contrast, legal translators usually deal with different – often incompatible – legal systems), (2) the extent of lexical equivalence in the language of medicine (traditional medical vocabulary is mainly based on Greek and Latin, and even today, with English having replaced Latin as the medical *lingua franca*, new medical terms are mostly coined on the basis of Greek and Latin affixes), and (3) the ubiquity and general accessibility of medical literature and informants (a translator asked to render a text on, for example, aerospace might find it difficult to find documentation or consultants in the field in question, a medical translator should not).

On one hand, medical translation is similar to other types of translation (literary, audiovisual, legal, technical): "it is a professional activity determined by the assignment" (Montalt and González Davies 2007: 19), and it involves the same cognitive and translational processes. Medical translators, just like any other translators, use dictionaries – both paper and electronic – and translation memories; their general purpose is the same: to render a text written in one language from that language into another language. On the other hand, it is evidently different. The main difference between medical and non-medical translation is of course medical terminology. Although, according to Newmark (1988: 151), usually terminology accounts for only 5-10% of a scientific or technical text, still – it is there, and a medical translator must deal with it (and I have translated texts in which medical terminology constituted far more than just 10%).[1]

[1] Needless to say, every now and then a translator may encounter texts which are some way between audiovisual or literary and medical; for example, the dialogue

This, naturally, raises the question about the competencies of a medical translator. Speaking very generally, we can say that medical translators must know the two languages involved (an obvious prerequisite of any translating) and something of the subject matter – medicine, i.e. they should understand some basic medical notions and know terms for various anatomical parts, illnesses, medicines, medical equipment, etc., but in reality their competencies are far more complex.

Montalt and González Davies suggest that the specific competencies which a medical translator should possess can be analysed at several levels – of language and writing, of communication and culture, of medical notions, transference, information resources, professional practice, and attitude. Thus at the level of language and writing, medical translators must know the basic medical genres (research and review articles, clinical guides for physicians, textbooks for students, leaflets and brochures for patients, drug advertisements, and press releases, to list a few examples), be familiar with the chemical, generic and trade names of drugs, with Greek and Latin roots, prefixes and suffixes, with medical acronyms, etc., and they must be able to understand and write texts belonging to the appropriate genres, to apply in-house style norms, to recognize registers as well as register mismatches (in order to avoid them in their translations), to pronounce medical terms correctly, etc. (Montalt and González Davies 2007: 36-37).

Frankly speaking, some of these requirements seem to me to be a bit too high – for example, can a translator really be expected to know all the chemical, generic and trade names of drugs? If need be, they can be checked in a lexicon or an encyclopaedia. Moreover, it seems to me that a translator, who, after all, works with written documents, does not need to be able to pronounce medical terms correctly, unlike an interpreter, but presumably Montalt and González Davies write about the competencies of an ideal translator.

To continue, at the level of communication and culture, medical translators must be familiar with different types of target readers and with their expectations and with the purpose(s) of a given medical communication, with different cultural norms pertaining to such groups of people or communities as patients, doctors, nurses, etc., with various types of authors, and with the legal and ethical norms pertaining to the source and target text, while the level of medical notions concerns, according to Montalt and González Davies, Greek and Latin roots, prefixes and suffixes

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from the well-known TV series *House M.D.* is sometimes more complicated – in terms of medical terminology – than a standard medical article.

(the authors repeat this competence or requirement here; it was previously mentioned at the level of language and writing), the anatomy, physiology, etc. of human beings, the mechanisms of illnesses, but also basic statistics (unavoidable in research papers) as well as instruments and tests used in medicine (cf. Montalt and González Davies 2007: 37-40).

At the level of transference, medical translators must make certain that the actual translation process does not change any facts and that the resultant information is true and coherent; moreover, they must be able to translate across genres and to introduce target conventions into the translation. As far as translating across genres is concerned, sometimes a translator may be commissioned, for instance, to turn a research paper into a press release for the general public. Consequently, he/she has to de-terminologize it. This can be done in a number of ways: the translator can keep the original terms and explain them in parenthesis, he/she can start with a more understandable paraphrase but then provide the medical terms, or he/she can replace the medical terms by popular terms, getting rid of the scientific medical terminology altogether (Montalt and González Davies 2007: 37-40 and 251-253; see also Albin 1998: 119, who talks about simplifying instructional texts for patients).

At the level of information resources, it goes without saying that medical translators need to be able to find all sorts of medical information; they must know how to use dictionaries and encyclopedias (both paper and electronic) as well as databases, and they must be able to evaluate the quality of the sources of information which they consult (I have often found that students tend to accept uncritically whatever equivalents they find on the Internet); also, they need to be willing and able to obtain the collaboration of an expert in the field which they are dealing with (Montalt and González Davies 2007: 40-41). Finally, the level of professional practice involves such issues as carrying out market research, using CAT tools, cooperating with clients,[2] keeping to deadlines, being familiar with basic legal issues concerning translation, knowing sensible fees which one can charge for one's work, etc. (Montalt and González Davies 2007: 42; a more detailed analysis of the competencies of a medical translator is beyond the scope of this paper).

In view of the fact that the requirements for a medical translator are so high, the question arises whether medical translation is best handled by a linguist with a rudimentary knowledge of medicine or a doctor or a medical professional acquainted with the relevant foreign language. As

[2] The need for full cooperation with clients is also stressed by Reeves-Ellington, who calls it "cooperative advantage", because it helps to establish the wider context and the purpose of the translation (1998: 106).

can be predicted, a linguist non-physician may not understand important medical details (O'Neill 1998: 70) and may have serious problems with the proper terminology, while a doctor is likely to have problems with the linguistic aspects of the texts (when they translate from a foreign into their native language, doctors may misunderstand some words and phrases, may not understand some nuances of the original syntax, and may have a few problems producing a fully correct and coherent target-language text, whereas when they work into a foreign language, they will probably understand the original correctly, and they might be able to provide most of the necessary medical terminology, but they are quite likely to have serious problems producing a fully grammatical, understandable, and coherent translation).

Ideally, translations done by a doctor or a medical professional should be checked and edited by a linguist and vice versa, and quite often this is the case (I myself almost always work in very close cooperation with the doctors I do the translations or proofreading for – we sort of cross-edit our texts), but obviously not always. As to the question who does more medical translation in real life – linguists or doctors – it is of course difficult to say for sure, but in all probability the answer is linguists. At least, when Marla O'Neill prepared a survey and sent it to individual medical translators and posted it on the Internet (she sent out another one to translation agencies), she received 38 usable responses from individual translators: 5 of those were by medical professionals, and 33 by linguists (O'Neill 1998: 71), which suggests, albeit loosely, that medical translation is more often done by the latter group. And they, or we non-physicians, should not get discouraged. In the words of Judy Wakabayashi:

> "[...] a lack of formal medical training is not necessarily an insurmountable obstacle to the budding medical translator. What is essential is not a medical degree, but a broad understanding of the fundamentals and knowledge of how to acquire, in the most efficient manner, an understanding of other elements as and when necessary".
> (Wakabayashi 1996: 357[3], quoted after Montalt Resurrecció and González Davies 2007: 93).

Therefore it makes perfect sense to teach medical translation to prospective translators who are not medical professionals, and I taught it to second-year students of the M.A. programme in translation at the Institute of English of the University of Łódź in the summer semester of the academic year 2010-2011. The course covered 30 (academic) hours

[3] Originally, this quotation comes from the article "Teaching Medical Translation", 1996, Meta 41(3): 356-365.

altogether, and I focused on inverse translation (Polish to English) of research papers and review articles, mostly because of my background and the market available to me. When I started doing medical translation some thirty years ago, it was mostly research papers from English into Polish – and the doctors I worked for often wanted abstracting rather than full translation; later, as my doctors obtained further qualifications, the direction gradually changed, and these days I either translate their articles into English or only proofread and correct texts written in English (with occasional bits left in Polish; these can range from single words like *przecież* or *natomiast* to whole paragraphs with relatively complicated syntax).

One of the first things prospective medical translators must realise (and I tell it to my students at the very beginning) is that medical professionals are often not skilled in writing and that many medical texts are simply badly written.

On the micro scale, some texts contain misspelled or generally corrupted words or bad grammar. For example, Marla O'Neill reports that she once looked for the phrase "propyl anesthesia", which turned out to be a typographical error for "pulpal anesthesia" (O'Neill 1998: 78). I myself wasted some time searching in vain for the English equivalent of *sfingomanometr* before I discovered that it was a misspelled *sfigmomanometr* (English: *sphygmomanometer*). Also, I had some problems trying to understand the phrase "moc widma" (literally, "the power of the spectrum", as in the sentence "Oznaczono całkowitą moc widma"), but an extensive Google search revealed that the phrase in question is simply a stupid mistranslation of "power spectrum".

On the macro scale, it sometimes happens that a text is simply not fully coherent. For instance, I was once asked to translate an article about hypertrophic cardiomyopathy (HCM), in which it was stated that it is extremely important to assess the risk of Sudden Cardiac Death (SCD) in patients with HCM. The article continued along the following lines: Researchers have identified seven major risk factors of SCD (and a few minor ones), among which are ventricular fibrillation (VF), and ventricular tachycardia, both sustained and non-sustained (abbreviated as VT and nVT, respectively). Part of the problem was that the authors then talked about the two types of tachycardia as if it was the same phenomenon (i.e., they used the two different abbreviations more or less interchangeably), which it clearly is not, but that was a minor issue. Then we learn that VT and nVT are associated with the presence of a variation in the shape of the T-wave of an electrocardiogram, known as T-wave alternans (TWA), occasionally referred to in the text as microvolt T-wave alternans (mTWA)

– again, rather confusing, but that was again a minor issue. The major problem was that some paragraphs talked about nVT being a predictor of mTWA, whereas others seemed to discuss mTWA as a predictor of nVT – without any logical transitions. The article was a joint effort, and it looked as if each contributor wrote his or her part without looking at the remaining sections, so that in the end it was impossible to decide what the article was really about. (I tactfully pointed this out to the authors and the text was substantially rewritten).

Naturally, students (and translators) must not render badly written texts as badly written texts. This is stressed, for example, by Newmark (1982: 127), who talks about any translation (see also Wróblewski 2002: 139-140), and by Barbara Reeves-Ellington, who talks specifically about medical translation: "it is simply unthinkable that a medical translator should not also improve the organization of a medical text in translation if it is to be published. It is simply inappropriate for a translator to justify a sloppy English text on the basis of a sloppy German text"[4] (1998: 109-110).

As was to be expected, when it came to the actual translation, one of the basic problems my students had was lack of medical knowledge, or, in the case of some students, lack of basic general knowledge. I was actually shocked when it turned out that some of my students did not know or understand the difference between blood pressure and the heart rate. To wit – one of the passages which they had to translate contained the following sentence (the text was about Ambulatory Blood Pressure Monitoring): "Wynosiły one dla **ciśnienia** odpowiednio 148 (holter) versus 188 mmHg (ergometr rowerowy), a dla **częstości tętna** 93 versus 120/min". [In my translation: "They were 148 (Holter) vs. 188 mmHg (ergometer) for the **pressure**, and 120/min vs. 93 for the **heart rate**, respectively".] While I thought that the contrast between the first two values – blood pressure – and the second two – the heart rate – was obvious, four students out of fifteen present during that class produced translations in which the second phrase was rendered as "the frequency of blood pressure" (or words to that effect), and, when questioned about their versions, explained that they thought that blood pressure and the heart rate were one and the same thing and admitted that they did not really understand this passage.[5]

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[4] She makes one proviso, though: sometimes a client may request a literal translation which reproduces all the mistakes of the original, perhaps for legal reasons, perhaps to prove something (Reeves-Ellington 1998: 110).

[5] One other student, who translated this fragment more or less correctly, displayed similar lack of understanding of medical notions in another passage; when the text

Admittedly, some of the problems of my students resulted from ambiguity in Polish. For example, another sentence from the article about the Ambulatory Blood Pressure Monitoring device contained the word *czuwanie*, which has several meanings in Polish; when it refers to human beings, it can mean “vigil, watch, or wakefulness”, and when it refers to machines, it is usually translated as *standby*. The text said: “Aparat do monitorowania ciśnienia tętniczego wykonuje – przy ustawieniu go na interwały 15-minutowe w czasie czuwania i 30-minutowe w czasie snu – około 100 pomiarów w czasie jednej sesji badania”. While I thought that the context (the contrast between *czuwanie* and *sen*) made it fully clear that the reference was to the state of a human being, five out of thirteen students who did this translation opted for the wrong equivalent *standby*.[6] Some of my students had similar problems with the ambiguity or polysemy of such words as *badanie* or *badania*: in various contexts, they confused and misused such equivalents as *test(s)*, *study/studies*, *research*, *examination*, etc.

As far as using resources to find equivalents of specific medical terms is concerned, I told my students about the paper dictionaries by Słomski (1986, 1987) – Badziński (2011) was not yet available – and the handbook for medical students which I sometimes consult to gain a better understanding of medical notions (Ciecierska, Jenike and Tudruj 1989), and I recommended the website Medland (www.bioling.com), which is an online medical dictionary. I also explained to my students how I use Wikipedia to find some English terms: I search for the word in the Polish Wikipedia and then I look for the corresponding article in English (this is how I located the English word for *wenflon*,[7] among other things – not to be found in Słomski 1986, or even Badziński 2011, for that matter). It is also useful to consult the bibliography of the article one is translating; for one thing, some of the terms we need can be found already in the titles of the studies referred to in the article, for another, most of the papers referred to by the authors (or at least their abstracts) can be found on the Internet and they are very likely to contain all the required terms.

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spoke about the phenomenon of non-dipping, and then referred to it as “zaburzenie dobowego rytmu ciśnienia tętniczego” (literally, “disorder of the circadian rhythm of arterial blood pressure”), the student wrote “twenty-four-hour arterial blood pressure arrhythmia”.

[6] My translation of this sentence was: “When it is set to 15-minute intervals during the day and to 30-minute intervals in the night-time, the device for ambulatory blood pressure monitoring takes about 100 measurements in one test session.”

[7] A peripheral venous catheter (PVC), also known as Venflon.

As was hinted earlier, doctors who commission a translation will sometimes provide the necessary terminology, but we have to be careful with this help. Not only can the words be corrupted (for example, my cardiologists regularly misspell *apnea/hypopnea index* as *apnoe/hypopnoe index* in their papers, and, on another occasion, it took me some time to discover that the word *caterer* which they provided in one article – there was no Polish word for this in the text – was in reality a *catheter*), but also a lot of this terminology is simply copied from other articles, often written or translated by non-native speakers, and is often unreliable or disputable. Admittedly, some of this bad English has by now entered the language and cannot be questioned (for example, I find it absurd to read that "the prevalence of the illness was 1%", because to me the word *prevalence* is related to the verb *prevail* and implies that something is dominant somewhere, but I know that in medical English the word means roughly the ratio of the number of patients to the total population and, absurd as it sounds, it is by now a legitimate medical term), but some is still absurdly foreign and has to be avoided (one text which I was asked partly to translate and partly to proofread contained the phrase "high score of alpha Cronbach ratio"; I corrected it immediately to "high values of Cronbach's alpha", but, out of curiosity, I copied the original phrase and pasted it into Google; it turned out that the "alpha Cronbach ratio" appeared three times on the Net: twice in articles by the same writer and once in a paper which quoted one of those articles).

Predictably, since the course involved inverse translation, my students had some problems with producing good, grammatical, and elegant English. Some of the typical mistakes involved articles (there were numerous instances of singular countable nouns without any article and, on the other hand, students would put the definite article where it did not belong: the Figure 1, in the Picture 2, in the Table 3), word order (the Polish structure Object-Verb-Subject was sometimes copied literally into English), tenses (my students often confused the Present Perfect with the Simple Past), overuse and improper use of the Saxon Genitive ("technically sufficient measurement's result"). Another popular mistake was the use of "It appeared" (and, more surprisingly, "It occurred") in the meaning of "It turned out". Moreover, many students wrote "As it is known..." instead of the correct form "As is known...". Not surprisingly, most of my students had a strong predilection for multiple nominal premodification, some of which was definitely awkward, as when "pogorszenie ostrości wzroku" ("impairment of vision acuity") got rendered as "acuity of vision impairment", and some definitely wrong, as when instead of "a non-dipper profile in 24-hour ambulatory blood pressure monitoring” a student wrote “24-hour nondipper blood pressure monitoring profile”. I also tried to oppose the abuse of the structure “based on” in the sense of “on the basis of” (as in “the largest category established based on the initial and final eAHI[8] values”), because I believe in fighting illogical writing and in the promoting of good usage (see Bellquist 1993: 31).

Somewhat more surprisingly, it also turned out that my students needed comments and advice on punctuation. Most of them did not know the difference between defining and non-defining relative clauses and, consequently, they put commas where no commas should be used and vice versa; most students would also place a comma before object noun clauses beginning with *that*, which is an obvious influence of Polish. Less obviously, the students’ printed translations displayed a lot of simple carelessness; spaces were often missing (“in a single session. The results”) or they were in the wrong places (“in Table 1 . The researchers”); hyphens were used instead of dashes with the result that sometimes separate words in separate phrases or clauses looked like hyphenated compounds (“the values of blood pressure measured both in a traditional way-in a doctor’s office, and by using ABPM”). Needless to say, from time to time, the translations contained other errors as well (wrong vocabulary items, convoluted, clumsy, or downright wrong syntax, etc.), but to list the mistakes of individual students would be totally pointless here.

Of course, a thirty-hour course in medical translation is not enough. Lee-Jahnke recommends that

> “Classroom teaching should be supplemented by scheduling internships in pharmaceutical companies or hospitals, working in teams with experts in order to go over a text before and after translation, and organizing workshops at an interdisciplinary level to improve subject knowledge” (1998: 89)

and there is no doubt that this kind of translational practice would be very helpful, but I as a lecturer cannot organize this. I can only hope that I gave my students the necessary foundations for further learning, and that, should they decide to become professional medical translators, they will remember what I have taught them and will not stop at that.

[8] Estimated Apnea/Hypopnea Index.

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CHAPTER FIVE

TRANSLATION STUDENTS' ATTITUDES AND BELIEFS ABOUT TRANSLATION

URSZULA PARADOWSKA

Introduction

Translation programmes are increasingly popular among Polish high school graduates. In response to market demand the Higher Vocational State School (PWSZ) in Gorzów Wielkopolski introduced a translation/interpreting programme in 2009. There are now two career paths available to second-year English philology students: an English language teaching (ELT)/early education programme and a translation/interpreting programme. The curriculum of the latter includes the following obligatory subjects: Theory of Translation (45 hours, 1 semester), Translation (90 hours, 3 semesters), Interpreting (90 hours, 3 semesters), Note-taking (30 hours, 1 semester), and Reading Specialised Texts (30 hours, 1 semester).

The objective of the research project was to explore the beliefs of undergraduate translation students about translation. The study was not limited to second-year translation students. First-year students were asked which programme they were going to choose the following year, and third-year students were asked about their motivations for having selected (or not) the translation/interpreting programme.

Specific research questions to be addressed are as follows:

- What are the reasons for choosing the translation programme?
- What attitudes and beliefs do students hold of the translation profession?

With these questions in mind, the research results may help raise students' awareness and better understand their future profession.

Method

Participants

The data of the study were collected from 90 English philology students enrolled in either the ELT or the translation/interpreting programme at a three-year junior college in western Poland. The participants, who were 26 males and 64 females, included first-, second- and third-year students from day and weekend groups; 74% of them are aged 18-21.

As shown in Table 5-1, half of the respondents come from villages and towns with up to 20,000 inhabitants whereas nearly 40% live in a city with up to 150,000 inhabitants, i.e. in Gorzów Wielkopolski.

Table 5-1. Place of residence by population

up to 1,000	up to 5,000	up to 10,000	up to 20,000	up to 50,000	up to 100,000	up to 150,000	150,000+
15%	6%	14%	15%	8%	1%	38%	2%

The subjects' mothers are better educated than their fathers. As displayed in Table 5-2, nearly 30% of the mothers hold a higher education degree and more than half of them completed secondary education. Basic vocational training was completed by 50% of the fathers and only 6% of them hold a higher education degree.

Table 5-2. Parents' educational background

	Primary	Basic vocational	Secondary	Bachelor's	Master's
Mother	1%	16%	55%	6%	23%
Father	1%	50%	31%	3%	3%

Knowledge of the target language (TL) culture is an indispensible component of translation competence (Hejwowski 2004). Visits to English-speaking countries help an individual learn about the TL culture. However, 58% of the subjects have never visited an English-speaking country.

Table 5-3. Percentage of translation students who have never been to an English-speaking country

Year	Number of students	Percentage
Translation students Year 2	8 out of 11	73%
Translation students Year 3	4 out of 7	57%
Year 1 students who want to specialize in translation	14 out of 25	56%
Total	43	58%

Instrumentation

The measuring instrument is a questionnaire developed by the author. The questionnaire is written in Polish so that students with different English proficiency levels could adequately understand the questions.

The questionnaire consists of four parts. The first part includes 13 Likert-type items (where 4 corresponds to "strongly associate" and 1 to "do not associate at all") relating to students' associations with the translation profession. The second part consists of 12 Likert-type items related to skills and abilities that are necessary to succeed as a translator. The third part includes four open-ended questions: "Why did you choose the translation programme?" (translation students, Year 2-3), "Why didn't you choose the translation programme?" (ELT students, Year 2), "Are you going to choose the translation programme?" (Year 1) "How much time outside of class are you willing to spend on improving your skills?" (all respondents), and "Have you been to an English-speaking country?" (all respondents). Those items and questions were developed in order to measure students' attitudes and beliefs about translating and the translation profession. The fourth part is related to the demographic information such as gender, age, parents' educational background, and place of residence.

The Likert-type items related to students' associations, and the necessary skills and abilities were developed on the basis of (among other factors) the ingredients of translation competence and common misconceptions about translation:

> "Translation competence includes a good command of the two languages in question but apart from that it consists of numerous other skills, abilities, qualities, dispositions and knowledge structures which distinguish a professional translator from an average bilingual person". (Hejwowski 2004: 236-7)

Translation competence	**Common misconceptions about translation**
Knowledge of L1 and L2 Knowledge of both cultures Ability to match structures of two languages/cultures General and specialist knowledge Communicative skills Effort after meaning Knowledge of translation theory Dispositions, traits of character (Hejwowski 2004: 240-253)	If you know a foreign language, you can be a translator. I was raised bilingually, so that makes me a translator. A good translator doesn't need a dictionary. Advanced dictionary and search tools are enough to create my own translations. Translation business is easy money. Your cousin told me that translating is making you rich. I don't need to understand what I translate. Translation is easy.

Data collection

The researcher administered the questionnaire at a prearranged time. She first briefly explained to the participants the nature and purpose of this study and provided instructions. The time for answering the questionnaire was about 20 minutes.

Results and Discussion

Quantitative Findings

In the first part of the questionnaire the participants responded to thirteen items on a Likert scale of 1 to 4, indicating the degree to which they associated a set of statements with the translation profession.

Most subjects endorsed the concept that translation means language development (90% of students associate it strongly), a need for constant learning (86% of students associate it strongly), and spending long hours at the computer (53% of students associate it strongly and 42% associate it a little).

On the other hand, the least common beliefs held by the participants include the opinion that translation is a form of art, connected with a high adrenaline level and permanent employment rather than working freelance.

Table 5-4. Characteristics most associated with the translation profession

	Associate a little	Associate strongly
language development	10%	90%
need for constant learning	10%	86%
long hours at the computer	42%	53%
working from home	38%	52%
solving language problems	43%	51%
flexible working hours	45%	46%

Table 5-5. Characteristics least associated with the translation profession

	Do not associate at all	Associate marginally
form of art	52%	26%
high adrenaline level	32%	44%
employment contract (8 hrs a day, office)	32%	40%

The researcher also asked the respondents about any other associations they might have. These mainly included comments which add to the concept that translation means constant learning: [I associate translation with] "pleasure", "personal development in many areas", "learning new things about the world", "learning vocabulary from many disciplines". One respondent considers translation to be "time-consuming".

In the second part of the questionnaire the participants responded to twelve items on a Likert scale of 1 to 4, indicating the degree to which they agreed with statements concerning skills and abilities necessary to be a translator.

In their opinion, writing skills are the most important requirement to succeed as a translator (100% of respondents agree or strongly agree). A thorough and in-depth understanding of two languages is ranked second with 97% of respondents who agree or agree strongly. The third most important feature is the knowledge of CAT tools (Table 5-6a). Interestingly, 67% of the students do not consider the knowledge of the source language and target language cultures to be an indispensible component of translation competence.

Table 5-6a. Skills and abilities necessary to succeed as a translator

Statement	Agree	Strongly agree
A translator must be a good writer in the target language.	22%	78%
A translator must have a thorough in-depth understanding of two languages – a mother language and a foreign language.	21%	76%
A translator must know how to use computers to support the translation process (computer literacy, Internet, CAT tools)	33%	63%
A translator must be after the meaning.	47%	48%
A translator must be a strong communicator.	39%	43%
A translator must have specific experience in the subject matter of the text.	47%	37%
A translator must know the theory of translation.	56%	36%

Table 5-6b. Skills and abilities not necessary to succeed as a translator

Statement	Strongly disagree	Disagree
If you know a foreign language, you can be a translator.	43%	48%
A translator must be bicultural.	21%	46%
Bilingual people always make good translators.	17%	42%

Qualitative Findings

In the third part of the questionnaire the participants responded to four open-ended questions related to their motivation to enrol (or not) in the translation/interpreting programme and their expectations. In this section the researcher also investigated how much time the students were willing to spend on self-study and inquired about their trips to English-speaking countries.

Year 2-3 translation students were asked why they chose to major in translation. One third of the respondents explained that their reason for enrolling in the translation/interpreting programme was to avoid English language teaching. Thus, they opted for the lesser evil, explaining that "[I chose translation] because I don't want to be an English teacher" or "There are too many subjects taught in Polish in the ELT/early education programme", or "Because being a translator is less stressful than teaching", or "The translator's life is easier". One third of the respondents were motivated by language development opportunities offered by the translation/interpreting programme. Their reasons were as follows: "To study the English language more thoroughly" and "To develop my language skills". A relatively small number of students (10%) pointed out that translation was their preferred profession ("[I chose translation] because I'd like to be a translator"). Individual respondents indicated their reasons were personal development ("Because translators learn a lot new things") and pleasure.

Year 2 ELT students and Year 1 students were asked why they did not want to major in translation. As many as 35% of the respondents thought that teachers had better job opportunities. For a fifth of them teaching is their preferred profession. These include mainly in-service teachers. Extramural students, who have no other choice but to major in ELT/early education, explained that they had no choice. Other respondents answered that they did not want to be translators because they "want to work with people", "translation is too difficult" and "teaching is less stressful". One student said that "having majored in ELT [the student] can work as a teacher and a translator", which implies that no special abilities or skills are required to work as a translator.

Finally, 28 out of 48 Year 1 students (58%) answered affirmatively the question whether they wanted to major in translation the following year. Their motivation was the same as that of Year 2-3 translation students. 40% of them are going to practice to be translators because they do not want to teach English. 22% of them claim translating is their preferred profession. Other reasons include personal development, language development and pleasure.

One student said that "translation is better paid. Still, I'd rather teach but nobody respects teachers". The last open-ended question aimed at checking how much time outside of class the respondents were willing to spend on improving their skills (Table 7). The author believes this question should have been more precise as a third of responses are too vague to be analysed – for instance, "As much as I can" or "Quite a lot". Still, it may be concluded that on average students devote between 1 to 4 hours a day to improving their skills.

Table 5-7. Time spent on self-study

vague responses	33%
6 hours a day	1 person
1-2 hours a day	17%
2-3 hours a day	17%
3-4 hours a day	13%
3-4 hours a week	8%
0.5 hour a day	1 person

Conclusions

Several research questions were addressed in this study, and the principal findings suggested that most participants hold the belief that translation means spending long hours at the home computer, learning new things and developing language skills. On the other hand, translation is not considered to be a form of art, nor is it seen as connected with high adrenaline level or employment contracts. Surprisingly, students believe that translators need not be bicultural, which runs against the definition of translation competence as presented by Hejwowski (2004). Given the fact that as many as 58% of the questioned translation students have never been to an English-speaking country, one can suspect that the subjects will never succeed as translators because they fail to satisfy one of the crucial requirements.

Another major finding of this study is that certain students chose the translation/interpreting programme to avoid the other programme available at the college. The author views this finding as exceptionally worrying because translation is a complex process and negative motivation may not be sufficient to develop translation competence. The other two reasons motivating students to major in translation are language development and the fact that translation is their preferred job.

Limitations of the Study

There are some limitations of survey research. First, although the results of descriptive analysis have shown the overall patterns of student attitudes and beliefs about translation, there was little we could know about the sources of these beliefs. Second, the results of this study were based on a population of English philology students at a junior college in western Poland. Therefore, the generalization of findings may be limited to similar populations and may not be fully applicable to other learner groups with different native languages, educational settings, or cultural backgrounds.

Suggestions for Future Research

This study has tried to answer what associations translation students and other English philology students have regarding the translation profession and examine their opinions about the required skills and abilities. This study constitutes a part of a bigger research project investigating whether teaching translation to undergraduate (PWSZ) students may be successful. To do so, the author is monitoring the development of translation competence in Year 2 translation students for 3 semesters from October 2011 to January 2013.

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CHAPTER SIX

STUDENTS' VIEWS AND EXPECTATIONS REGARDING THE CONTENT AND FORM OF PRACTICAL TRANSLATION CLASSES: THE RESULTS OF A QUESTIONNAIRE

MAGDALENA KIZEWETER

Introduction

The art or craft (or skill, or whatever else we might choose to call the phenomenon) of translation obviously seems extremely hard to define, describe, classify or put into some sort of frame to make its comprehension more accessible. Hence, establishing any set of guidelines for teaching translation, such that could be used by translation trainers in their everyday work with translation students seems a task almost impossible to achieve to an extent which would secure the most promising results of the training. A question that may be posed here relates to the very possibility of teaching someone how to translate. One may quote Newmark (1988: 4, emphasis mine) who states: "I cannot make you into a good translator; I cannot cause you to write well. The best I can do is to *suggest* to you some general guidelines for translating", or adopt the idea that translating, being a skill, should rather be learned than taught (cf. Płusa 2000: 37). On the other hand, indulging oneself in reflections on the potential non-teachability of the skill, no matter how involving from the theoretical point of view, is of no considerable value as far as the practical aspect of the issue is concerned. Translation classes will continue to exist and to keep realizing their main aim which is exposing their participants to as much practice as possible, thus making them learn from their own mistakes and suggesting, one way or another, possible strategies of solving translation problems. It is true, of course, that realizing that the full teachability of the skill is questionable may lead to creating a more learner-centered classroom environment, which seems positive in the context of handling any skill. On the other hand, it might be said that learning and gaining experience on the part of the students will take place anyway, regardless of the attitude of the teacher – a translation course always leaves the participants with something to think about.

Another interesting problem is what exactly a translation course is supposed to achieve, and the answer is: to develop the skills and attitudes necessary to build on the more general translation skill. Here, the issue of translation competence comes to the foreground: Piotrowska (2003: 22) writes about the translator being “an explorer”, “a reader”, “a critic” and “a second author”; Hejwowski (2004: 153-160) enumerates a whole array of aspects, starting with the knowledge of both languages involved, through general, specialist and cultural knowledge, to appropriate personality traits, to quote only a few; as early as in 1950, and not really theoretically, Julian Tuwim talks about very good knowledge of the source and target language, mastering of literary styles, some general knowledge, and basic writing skills (1950/2007: 151). This calls for a course design which would make it possible to work on all the elements mentioned above and probably something more, which is difficult but not impossible.

There remains the question of *how* a potentially successful translation course may be carried out, and here it appears a good idea to ask the very participants – it may be interesting to see whether their opinions match those which we, course teachers, hold, and to investigate if their answers are such as one could expect them to be. The feasibility of using students’ opinions as the basis for improving the content and form of translation courses is a subject for a separate discussion; for now, learning about them, however, might provide a fresh perspective on the complex subject of translation teaching.

A Description of the Questionnaire

The questionnaire[1] was designed in order to find out about the views that beginner students of practical translation classes (devoted to English-Polish and Polish-English translation of LGP texts) hold on the issues connected with the ways in which those classes may be organized and with the materials that may be used in the teaching process. The focus was on what the students expect of classes that have just started, not on how they evaluate what they have already experienced – thus, the idea to ask beginner translation students. The aim was to gather a sample of opinions,

[1] The complete questionnaire is presented in the Appendix.

a selection of voices, rather than to work towards isolating quantitative data that could later be used to draw far-reaching quantitative conclusions – hence, the presence of quite many open-ended questions and a relatively small sample of participants.

The questions asked touched upon the participants' translation-related background in connection with both their learning experience and potential professional experience, with their future plans regarding translating as a hypothetical professional career, followed by the question whether they expected university translation courses to give them the skills necessary to start such a career. The questions that followed referred to their expectations as regards the characteristics of texts to be translated in class and at home, and the ways of working in class. The participants were also asked whether they considered grading translation tasks a good idea, if translation was a teachable skill in the first place, and if theoretical knowledge was useful to do practical translation. The last question, which is actually a request for a definition of the process of translation, appeared in the questionnaire additionally, but no interesting or unusual answers appeared, so it is not given any attention in the present paper.

The Respondents, Their Translation Experience So Far, and Their Translation-Related Future Plans

The questionnaire was carried out at the very beginning of the winter semester 2011/2012, and the respondents were students of the 2nd year of B.A. studies, aged between 19 and 23 (with one person of 27), at the University of Warsaw, where practical translation classes are part of the Practical English curriculum, and at Warsaw School of Social Sciences and Humanities, where practical translation workshops are part of the curriculum for the students doing the translation specialization. There were forty one respondents altogether out of whom thirty seven admitted they had never done any courses in practical translation or interpreting (Question 1). Additionally, thirty seven people stated that they had never done translation professionally, and the experience of the other four people was rather short-term or occasional (Question 2). When it comes to non-professional experience, however, twenty five people admitted that they had done translation for pleasure, and as many as thirty two confessed that they had translated to help their family or friends (Questions 3 and 4). The former were mainly cases of non-pragmatic texts, such as films or literary texts; eleven people mentioned songs, three – poems, although a CV, business letters, web sites and "interpreting at church meetings" also appeared as answers here. The family/friends translation help, in turn, seems to encompass more pragmatic writings: for instance, “fragments of an MA thesis”, “invitation to a concert”, “instructions”, “press texts for student organizations”, “business contracts”, “letters” and “e-mails”. Two people mentioned “help in English homework”, which reminds the questionnaire author that survey questions may not always be interpreted in the way we would like them to be interpreted. Anyhow, it definitely appears worth pointing out that the answers to the question about translating “for pleasure” and “to help friends or family” without doubt show the tendency towards mentioning non-pragmatic material in the case of the former and rather pragmatic texts in the case of the latter.

When asked whether they would like to do translation for a living (Question 5), the respondents were mostly in favour of the idea, as only two of them gave definitely negative answers, only three chose to say “rather not”, six people ticked the “don’t know” answer and as many as eighteen survey participants said “yes”. The arguments given against translation being an interesting profession to follow (Question 5c) do not really seem to explain why the job of the translator is not that appealing: only two answers clarify the matter in question, namely “too many translators on the market, it doesn’t fascinate me” and “I would like to work with people, communicate, the work of the translator is rather single work”. The other respondents, in turn, tend to say that they would rather do something else instead: “I’d rather do something else, like diplomacy”, “I would rather be a teacher” or “I want to concentrate on theoretical linguistics”.

On the other hand, the reasons why students found the perspective of becoming a professional translator appealing (Question 5a) and the texts that they specified as their preferred source material (Question 5b) appear to show some tendencies towards idealizing the profession. The students state that a translator has “constant contact with literature”, the job is “unpredictable”, “satisfying” as well as “creative and fulfilling”. They also mention the possibility of working at home and the opportunity to constantly improve one’s knowledge and language skills as advantages. Additionally, they see the role of the translator as a bridge between the source and the target context, bringing some kind of enlightenment to those who do not know the source language themselves: “a translator can provide people who don’t know any foreign languages with access to information all over the world”. The “knowledge that you made a book/movie etc. available to Polish speakers (or English)” and the “possibility of reading and understanding texts in a foreign language and sharing our language (translation) with other people who read it in Polish” are also mentioned among the positive features of the profession. Only one statement – "a lot of different, interesting potential workplaces" – could be interpreted as pertaining to the financial aspect of working as a translator, and only one person says that they "personally don't know" what is appealing about being a translator.

As regards the texts that the students would like to translate to earn their living, quite a few answers again show the preference for non-pragmatic texts – literature, films and computer games appear in several questionnaires. One person writes that they would like to translate "something romantic", someone else says they would go for "American fiction and crime novels" and one respondent overtly states: "I think rather literature than some formal/specified stuff". On the other hand, there are also a few preferences that would seem easier to put into practice: "every kind of translations", texts "connected with law or with computers", "perhaps books about architecture or Information Technology", "dialogues in films or formal documents", "documents, especially those connected with law and engineering" – I would call these more practical or realistic than the rather sophisticated literary aspirations, as it seems that they match the demands of the market more easily.

The Content and Form of Translation Classes

In the context of practical translation classes, it is obvious that every instructor has their own preferences regarding the texts that are the object of instruction and the ways in which the teaching is performed. It appears that when it comes to selecting the texts to be translated in class and at home, they should cover a variety of topics, styles and registers. The same might be said of the ways in which student work in class may be organized: not only individual work ought to be favoured, but also pair work and group work, which involve the exchange of ideas and negotiation of final decisions, should find their place in a practical translation classroom. Even though the above claims seem convincing enough, it may be interesting to find out about the expectations, beliefs and convictions of the subjects of translation instruction, namely the students themselves. The questions asked in the survey related to: (1) the issue of the teachability of translation and the potential usefulness of university translation training background in developing a career as a professional translator, (2) the kinds of texts that the students think will/should be dealt with in a translation course, (3) the place of translation theory in practical translation training and (4) the ways of working in the practical translation classroom.

Expectations as Regards the Relation between University Translation Courses and Reality

Designing a questionnaire devoted to students' opinions on what and how they are/should be taught during a translation course it appeared interesting to investigate their views on the question whether the skill of translation is teachable and on the issue of the relevances of practical translation university training for the potential future professional translation tasks. All the while knowing that presenting students with questions relating to subjects which probably had better stay universal truths in their eyes, I was incredibly curious about what they would say to the following: "Do you think that it is possible to teach someone how to translate?" (Question 17) and "Do you expect the university translation courses to give you the necessary skills to become a professional translator?" (Question 6).

There were no "no" or "rather not" answers to the first of those questions, and they were not really expected. Four respondents chose to say "don't know" and one of them commented that "you have to 'feel' it somehow". Nevertheless, out of the twenty two people who say that it is possible and the fifteen who claim that it probably is, some admit that "everyone should learn it individually", "you can train a good translator, but not a great one", "individual practising is most important", it "requires lots of individual practice", "translating is a talent", "talent is half of success". Such answers seem reasonable: the students attend translation courses and what would be the reason for doing it if they did not believe that they could actually improve their skills or gain new ones. This is best illustrated by one comment: "I hope so" – there seems to be nothing more natural to say: I hope translation is teachable, as after all that is why I am here, in a translation class. On the other hand, it might be said that leaving some margin for the importance of individual practice and talent shows a certain degree of maturity and traces of realism in the attitude to the problem.

As far as the other inquiry mentioned here is concerned, four respondents chose the "don't know" answer to this question, and one of them, quite realistically, commented with "after I attend them, probably I'll be able to give an answer". One person states that they do not expect the courses in question to give them the skills necessary to translate professionally, and the accompanying comment reads "there are not as many lecturers and practice in class to help us achieve a professional level". The only person who answers "rather not" says they think they "will need much more practice than [they] can get during these courses".

While neither of these opinions seems to be much detached from reality, the pessimistic undertone presented *a priori* may prove discouraging for a translation trainer. On the other hand, being overoptimistic in this respect seems slightly unrealistic, and as many as twenty five people out of the forty one respondents chose the "yes" answer, the only two comments being "that's why I am here". Here, even though I do believe that completing translation courses in the academic context is definitely helpful in pursuing a career as a translator, I would not risk saying that it is *enough* and *all* that is needed to become successful in the translation job market.

Expectations as Regards the Source Texts

The students were presented with two questions regarding the selection of texts to be translated during practical translation courses: they were asked what kinds of texts they expect (Question 7) and what kinds of texts they think should be the object of those courses (Question 8). The idea behind "splitting" what in fact could be one question into two separate inquiries was to verify the intuition that the students might expect something different from what they consider should be done. The answers, however, do not show any considerable differences in this respect, and it seems that the respondents may have even deemed the second question redundant, especially that quite many of them gave exactly the same answers to both questions or just ignored one of them. Basically, the selection of material that the respondents opt for includes a variety of texts – quite a few students directly write about "different types of texts". What might be seen as surprising, though, is that the answers do not show any considerable preference towards pragmatic texts, which could be expected given the fact that the students believe that the courses in question are supposed to equip them with necessary skills to start translating professionally. On the other hand, it might be stated that the inclination towards non-pragmatic material is very much in line with the students' preferences as regards what they translate "for pleasure" and what they would like to translate professionally in the future. It is also worth mentioning that films and commercials appear among the answers – types of texts that are not usually covered during general practical translation courses. One person also stated that the texts that should be translated ought to come "from different sources that include a lot of useful vocabulary for future translators or just to expand the knowledge of people who don't want to be translators", which suggests that practical translation courses may also be treated as vocabulary classes – a statement that is controversial on the one hand and not devoid of sense on the other, and as such deserves a separate discussion.

The next question inquired about the length of texts to be translated (Question 9), and only five students said a definite "yes" to the idea that they should be more than one page long, while as many as thirteen students decided on "no" and eight on "rather not". Of course, depending on the font used, one page can accommodate varying lengths of text, but I believe that "more than one page long" suggests a passage that is rather lengthy in the context of translation classes.

The aim of the next two questions was to find out whether the students expect difficult texts (Question 11), and what features they think characterize a text that is difficult to translate (Question 10). As regards Question 10, the criteria that appeared among the answers several times were cultural and structural differences, style, idioms, phrasal verbs and specialist vocabulary, and only ten people stated that they did expect such difficult texts to be translated during the classes, while as many as twenty six respondents chose the "sometimes" answer. In this case it is rather difficult to decide if the answers given to Question 11 were influenced by the students' preferences (identifying "expect" with "would like to") or were, possibly, the result of their previous experiences with courses they had deemed too easy.

Views on the Role of Translation Theory in Translation Practice

As far as the relation between the theory and practice of translation is concerned (Question 18), the majority of students taking part in the questionnaire admit that some knowledge of translation theory is needed to do practical translation – as many as thirty four respondents answered "yes" to Question 18, there were six "probably" answers, one "don't know" answer and no negative answers. The above may seem surprising when one takes into account the fact that when it comes to the actual theoretical training, students tend to appear rather reluctant towards the idea. Still, this may be explained by certain flaws exhibited by particular theoretical courses, such as no clear connection between theory and practice. Generally, it appears positive that the students do not diminish the role of theory in practical translation – the fact that theoretical translational knowledge should not be neglected in translator training is emphasized, for instance, by Hejwowski (2004: 159-160) or Brzozowski (2000).

The questionnaire respondents state they do expect practical translation classes to give them some theoretical knowledge about translation (Question 19) – twenty nine students answered "yes" to Question 19 and twelve of them chose the "probably" answer, which could be a signal that practical training may indeed be more profitable when complemented with a dash of theoretical explanation, and also might confirm the conviction that whenever the focus is on theoretical aspects, referring to translation practice appears a must. However, the reasons why those particular students opted for the importance of theory remain rather unclear as the comments given were scarce and are not really worth mentioning.

Expectations as Regards the Ways of Working in the Classroom

Here, the students were asked to choose among individual work, pair work, group work and whole class work as the expected (Question 12) and preferred (Question 13) forms of translation work in class, and it was possible to choose more than one option. The answers to the question "Which forms of work do you expect when translating a text in class?" were the following: twenty two for individual work, twenty one for pair work, twenty four for group work, and twenty two for whole class work, where four people chose all the four options. As regards the question "Which of the above would seem to be most effective with you?", nineteen respondents chose individual work, twelve – pair work, fourteen – group work, and four – whole class work. In this case, some of the answers fully correspond with those given to the "expect" question, in two cases the answers to the two questions are completely different – the respondents prefer individual work, which they do not expect. My expectations as regards this pair of questions, in turn, were that the students would be visibly in favour of individual work – naturally associated with the job of the translator. The arguments supporting the usefulness of forms of work other than individual were that when working with someone else one finds solutions more easily and that it is possible to compare ways of solving problems with other people. Similar opinions were given in the case of the question about the usefulness of whole class discussion of the translated material (Question 14), with thirty people in favour of the idea, and only one respondent chose the "rather not" answer, stating that "there's too much people in the group to make everyone involved".

As regards the question about the language that should be used when talking about translations from English into Polish (Question 15), only five people chose English as the sole means of communication, arguing, for instance, that "we have to learn it more" and "we are learning English, we want to be fluent speakers". The other choices were divided between "both languages" and, surprisingly, "Polish". The reasons given here were either that Polish would make the discussion content more understandable (rather controversial when it comes to working with English department students) or that the translation direction is into Polish (rather logical). Still, even though I believe that discussing translation solutions not in the source but in the target language seems more natural and more profitable, I was quite surprised that a considerable number of students shared the view – after all they are where they are to study English.

The last question in this group related to the problem of giving marks for translation assignments (Question 16), and here only ten respondents chose the "yes" answer, some of them overtly deeming the idea positive from the motivation point of view. One person from the "yes" group, however, commented that marks should be used "only for making progress, not judging the quality of the work", which may be considered disputable as the quality of one's work is the illustration of the progress made. There were six "no" and seven "rather not" answers, with some interesting comments like "some people may focus on different aspects of translation, for me it seems not fair to grade them for that" and "the style preference may affect the perception and assessment", which might be said to mirror very well any translation instructor's doubts about the subject. It may also be interesting to mention that one of the respondents who chose the "probably" answer suggested that "maybe those grades should not affect our final grade badly". The proposal that "written feedback, advice would be better" given by one of the "rather not" answer followers, in turn, indeed appears appealing but may be very difficult to follow in university course conditions.

Conclusion: A Draft of a Beginner Translation Student Profile

Ignoring any flaws of the survey questions, those more and less obvious, it is possible to see the questionnaire as a basis for establishing a very draft profile of the practical translation student, which naturally may be extended with the use of more detailed studies embracing a bigger sample of respondents. Such a "working" description of the beginner translation student, resulting from the present questionnaire, might characterize him/her as a person who:

- has little or no professional experience but does possess some "amateur" experience as is taken advantage of by family and friends whenever they have problems with pragmatic texts, and also indulges in translation for pleasure – here literature and movies come to the foreground;
- is planning to become a professional translator because the job seems challenging, satisfactory and creative; would like to translate literature and films;
- expects the translation courses offered as part of university education to turn him/her into a professional translator, and seems to trust the instructor;
- thinks that translation classes ought to concentrate on all kinds of texts, but those texts should not be too long and not very difficult;
- favours individual work in class, chooses group work over pair work and expects in-class discussions of the translated material;
- does not insist that English-Polish translation classes should be conducted in English;
- is not an advocate of grading translation assignments;
- believes that translation is teachable, theory is needed and some theoretical aspects of translation should be provided during practical translation classes.

While the results of the survey are not groundbreaking (and they were not really expected to be), it still may be interesting to note whether some of the opinions voiced by respondents could possibly be slightly reshaped as part of the training, and others strongly taken into consideration when designing general translation courses. The profile outlined above definitely needs verification in the form of a more detailed study that could provide more data allowing for firmer general conclusions. Also, one should not underestimate the fact that analyzing translation students' views on translation training may bring valuable results pertaining to the ways in which the society perceives the phenomenon of translation and the status of translators.

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Appendix

The Questionnaire Given to the Students

This questionnaire is anonymous, and is going to be used for research purposes. Please answer all the questions unless they do not apply to your situation (this may refer only to the questions which are marked with number+letter). If you are not sure as to the meaning of any of the questions, please interpret it in the way which you think is the right one and provide your answer accordingly. The term "translation" used throughout refers to written translation of written texts only. I do appreciate your help and thank you very much for cooperation in filling out this questionnaire.
Magdalena Kizeweter

Please give one answer to multiple choice questions unless specified otherwise.

STUDENTS' EXPECTATIONS AS REGARDS THE CONTENT AND FORM OF PRACTICAL TRANSLATION CLASSES: A QUESTIONNAIRE

YOUR AGE: ....

(A) TRANSLATION BACKGROUND AND TRANSLATION-RELATED/ UNRELATED☺ FUTURE PLANS:

(1) Have you attended any classes/ courses in practical translation or interpreting (oral translation)?

□ YES □ NO

(1a) If you answered YES to question (1), please specify what they were:
....

(2) Do you do or have you ever done translation professionally (to earn your living)?

□ YES □ NO

(2a) If you answered YES to question (2), please specify for how long you have been doing/ were doing it and what you translate/ translated:
....

(3) Have you ever done translation for pleasure?

□ YES □ NO

(3a) If you answered YES to question (3), please specify what you translate/ translated:
……………………………………………………………………………………………

(4) Have you ever done translation to help your friends/ family, etc?

□ YES □ NO

(4a) If you answered YES to question (4), please specify what you translate/ translated: …………………………………………………………………………………………

(5) Are you planning to become a translator as your career?

 YES NO DON'T KNOW PROBABLY RATHER NOT

If your answer to question (5) is YES or PROBABLY:

(5a) What is appealing in becoming a professional translator? ....

(5b) What texts would you like to translate? ....

If your answer to question (5) is NO or RATHER NOT:

(5c) Why not? ....

(6) Do you expect the university translation courses to give you the necessary skills to become a professional translator?

 YES NO DON'T KNOW PROBABLY RATHER NOT

ANY COMMENT?..

(B) CLASS AND HOMEWORK CONTENT:

(7) What kind of texts do you <u>expect</u> practical translation classes to concentrate on? ....

(8) What kind of texts do you think practical translation classes *should* concentrate on? ....

ANY COMMENT?..

(9) Do you think the texts to translate should be more than one page long?

 YES NO DON'T KNOW PROBABLY RATHER NOT

(10) What makes a text difficult to translate? ....

(11) Do you expect such difficult texts?

YES NO SOMETIMES DON'T KNOW

(C) CLASS ORGANIZATION:

(12) Which forms of work do you expect when translating a text in class? (you may choose more than one answer)

 INDIVIDUAL WORK PAIR WORK GROUP WORK WHOLE CLASS WORK

(13) Which of the above would seem to be most effective with you?

....

(14) Do you think whole-class discussions would be useful?

□ YES □ NO □ DON'T KNOW □ PROBABLY □ RATHER NOT

ANY COMMENT?...

(15) Which language should be used in class when talking about translations from English into Polish: English or Polish, and why?

....

(16) Do you think it is a good idea to give marks for translation tasks?

□ YES □ NO □ DON'T KNOW □ PROBABLY □ RATHER NOT

ANY COMMENT?...

(D) VIEWS:

(17) Do you think that it is possible to teach someone how to translate?

□ YES □ NO □ DON'T KNOW □ PROBABLY □ RATHER NOT

ANY COMMENT?...

(18) Do you think that some knowledge of translation theory is needed to do practical translation?

□ YES □ NO □ DON'T KNOW □ PROBABLY □ RATHER NOT

ANY COMMENT?...

(19) Do you expect practical translation classes to give you some theoretical knowledge on translation as well?

□ YES □ NO □ DON'T KNOW □ PROBABLY □ RATHER NOT

(20) What is translation about? What do you do when you translate?

....

THANKS AGAIN ☺

CHAPTER SEVEN

TRANSLATION PROFESSIONALISM AND TRANSLATION QUALITY IN INTERPRETER TRAINING: A SURVEY

EWA KOŚCIAŁKOWSKA-OKOŃSKA

Introduction

The article focuses on professionalism and quality in translation seen from the perspective of implications for translator and interpreter training. It aims at finding features in trainee interpreters that would support them in their professional development. In the article the term translation refers to the transfer of source language message into the target language, irrespective of the mode of communication; along the same lines, the term translator used also encompasses the interpreter.

Professionalism as a Concept

Translation professionalism refers to a variety of aspects related not only to the linguistic domain, but also to the entire sphere beyond language that surrounds the translator and interpreter. The concept itself is broad and it encompasses a plethora of denotations. Professionalism of the translator is expressed in his/her education, experience acquired and accumulated, as well as effective utilisation of such auxiliary 'equipment' as computer technologies, CAT tools or dictionaries.

Gouadec (2007) aptly claims that a professional translator, or a person who considers himself/herself to be one, should have a perfect command of both the foreign language and the mother tongue, writing skills and the ability to use state-of-the-art technologies and specialist knowledge from the field in which he/she specialises. An interesting contribution has been also made by Englund Dimitrowa (2005) who distinguishes between translation competence and translator competence. The former is an inherent feature of everyone who knows a foreign language and is capable of performing basic translation operations, the result of which is a text that is not always correct from the linguistic point of view. Translation competence can lead to the development of translator competence provided that translations already done are verified, analysed and the feedback is offered by assessors (either institutions, or persons commissioning the translation, etc.). However, if translation aims at the conveyance of the source language message, then the communicative intention ascribed to the translator's role also requires the knowledge of both cultures related to two language realities (including pragmatic, stylistic or textual aspects).

Therefore, we might venture a question: is there an optimal way in which we could possibly evaluate degrees, or stages, of professionalism? The answer is not that explicit, as translation professionalism has been perceived by translation scholars from the angle of translation quality. Quality is, due to a variety of criteria used for its assessment, difficult to measure; this criteria diversity results in comparative analyses of experienced (thus professional) and inexperienced translators (see Englund Dimitrowa 2005, Jakobsen 2002, Kussmaul 1995, Tirkkonen-Condit 1996, Tirkkonen-Condit 1992).

In this article we are following the line of division of translators into professionals and non-professionals (experts vs. non-experts or novices are also terms quite frequent in the research, see Tirkkonen-Condit 1992, Kussmaul 1995, Risku 1998, Moser-Mercer 2000). The former, experienced translators, have become the focus of research only recently, and such research aimed at the analysis of using the knowledge accumulated in the processes of problem-solving and decision-taking. The latter are, in most cases, students of translation (or students of foreign languages), although the proliferation of various interpreting courses and training opportunities has slightly altered the situation in the last few years.

Professional translation is associated with producing an acceptable, well-constructed text or, in other words, a high-quality text. The translator is entirely responsible for the quality of the text produced, therefore this text might be treated as the final product of the translation process; this product is further verified from the linguistic and extralinguistic perspective. Yet, one more aspect deserves our attention, i.e., the perception of text quality obviously varies among different user groups due to their varying expectations concerning the translation. These expectations hinder the attempts aimed at specifying relatively objective (if any degree of objectivity exists with performance assessment) criteria for evaluating professionalism and quality. We might assume that these criteria encompass linguistic, communicative (pragmatic and professional behaviour-related such as external standards imposed by professional organisations) and cognitive aspects.

The Role of Cognitive Factors

Professional translators manifest their competence in three domains, namely, linguistic, cultural and cognitive. The linguistic domain embraces the knowledge of the foreign language and the mother tongue, whereas the cultural domain refers to the knowledge of both cultures, the ability to use context-relevant style as well as rhetorical and pragmatic principles in a given communicative situation. Finally, the cognitive domain is a set of various factors among which one can distinguish general knowledge, experience, intelligence and motivation.

In empirical research mentioned above, the focus of analysis shifted towards the processes of problem-solving and decision-making, capitalising on accumulated knowledge, creativity, motivation, self-confidence and the interaction of all these factors. In high-quality (thus professional, if we follow that relation) translation, general (extralinguistic) knowledge (absolutely indispensable in intercultural communication) and linguistic knowledge are intensively utilised as contextual knowledge is heavily made use of, whereas in texts of lower quality linguistic knowledge dominates over extralinguistic knowledge, and the context-relevant knowledge is not used that much. This might stem from the dual nature of decisions taken by translators (see global and local decisions, Tirkkonen-Condit 1992; macro- and microcontextual plans, Moser-Mercer 1997).

Effective utilisation of accumulated knowledge is a process enhanced by experience which enables the translator to benefit from the entire body of previously performed tasks (and thus to justify any decision taken) as well as the activation of and search for information in memory resources. Experience is typical of professional translators and its accrual is conditioned by motivation (see Amabile 1996) for constant learning and development manifested in broadening and mastering general knowledge (including specialist knowledge in a given field) as well as having contact with two cultural worlds. Openness to experience has to do with the capability of perceiving various types of information (cf. Rogers, 1976; Sternberg 1999), and the translator's awareness referring to subsequent stages of experience accrual allows for the construction of creative texts and unconventional equivalents. A high-quality, and therefore professional, product of the translation process results from the interaction of knowledge and experience.

The aforementioned constant translator development aims at mastering intellectual skills and their transformation into professional translator behaviours; these behaviours enable the translator to function in various, quite frequently new, situations (communicative or textual). Cognitive factors such as knowledge and experience, intelligence or motivation resulting in effective decision-taking and problem-solving strategies are indispensable for the realisation of the translator's competence. This competence is manifested in a variety of translation tasks performed. At this point it is reasonable to refer to Kiraly (2000) who categorised this competence into *translation competence* which denotes the capability of constructing acceptable texts and *translator competence* which assumes that texts constructed by the translator are accepted in a given community due to their quality that results from the translator's skills.

Thus, in line with Tirkkonen-Condit (1996), professionalism in translation may be treated as the ability to take decisions concerning effective and strategic translation task performance which is based on the accumulated knowledge (both linguistic and extralinguistic) and experience (see also Lörscher 1991). The number of potential factors vital for the 'operation' or manifestation of professionalism in translation may differ; a 'temptation' might be even observed in research to increase the number of terms and definitions referring to the nature of the concept, which may lead to its conceptual vagueness. Professionalism is useful as it might be applied to a variety of translation-related and text production-related contexts. Therefore, the problem that we are facing is to limit the endless lists of factors crucial for professionalism, and instead to specify criteria on the basis of which we could consider some of those factors as vital and relevant. We may thus propose to realise translator professionalism in the following areas:

1. language competence (assumed a priori and including text production skills),
2. deep and constantly expanded general knowledge (embracing the knowledge of both cultures, the knowledge of translation strategies and techniques, or specialist knowledge),
3. effective text and information processing skills,
4. effective application of strategies (utilisation of procedures for effective decision-making and problem-solving),
5. cognitive resources available in-process and translation experience.

Those domains of professionalism manifestation may be synergistically joined to propose a definition of professionalism, which for the purposes of this article would be as follows: professionalism of the translator is an explicit result of effective functioning of cognitive factors allowing text processing and production in order to convey the meaning in a given social and cultural context in a generally acceptable manner.

Professionalism and Quality

As it was already propounded, the professional translator has a variety of competences, not only of linguistic, but also of cultural or strategic nature; this professionalism is frequently compared with the notion of quality, therefore, a potential feasibility of equivalence between translation professionalism and translation quality should be considered. Within both professionalism and quality we can distinguish a number of cognitive factors (such as knowledge, experience, motivation or intelligence) that affect the overall perception of the translator's/interpreter's performance and its positive assessment – as professional translation – among recipients (translation users). The priority of (professional) translation is effective communication which derives from the functioning of cognitive factors. Quality is related to professionalism in the sense that it derives from the translator's competence, thus forming a cycle the elements of which are intertwined and mutually dependent, with quality determining professionalism and vice versa.

In the light of this article a question might be asked: is there an optimal method of translation professionalism assessment and is professionalism "trainable"? The answer is not straightforward as in research studies translation professionalism has been perceived in the context of translation quality which per se is difficult to measure because it tends to be subjective. Thus, achievements of experienced and non-experienced translators have been empirically compared (see Englund Dimitrowa 2005; Jakobsen 2002; Kussmaul 1995; Tirkkonen-Condit 1992, 1996), and the didactic context has been strongly emphasised (with a whole spectrum of results). As mentioned previously, professional translation is associated with producing a text on an acceptable, i.e., high-quality level. Since the text is the resultant of all skills and competences of the translator being developed in the process, the role of a translator trainer and the awareness of a trainee to comply with all the requirements necessary for the translation task performance seem to be vital.

Training-relevant Factors

> "The purpose of teaching language in translator training is to give future professional translators one of the tools they will need as providers of a professional service" (Mackenzie 1998: 15).

Empirical research (see e.g. Jakobsen 2002, Moser-Mercer 2000, Kussmaul 1995, Lörscher 1991) gave grounds for attempts aimed at defining or explaining the nature of translation competence. The focus of research was the development of translation competence in translators; this obviously had to result in more attention paid to translator training in which generally psychologically-based models were to be applied that per se were relying on both theoretical considerations and research.

In training language is the priority; it is used as a tool in a variety of communication- and context-variable (cultural) situations. On the other hand, language is only one of the tools necessary for competent translation and for effective application of strategies and techniques. It is quite a recent trend to view translation as a professional activity that is supported by a theoretical framework. Therefore, the entire concept of translator training is constantly improving and developing. Due to space limitations, we are not going to discuss approaches to translator training (see Gile 1994, Lörscher 1991, Wilss 1996a, 1996b), but instead we would like to venture certain proposals concerning the role of the trainer.

The focus of training is the product of the translation process, or the final version of the translated text. In line with the almost classical approach (see Dollerup 1995, Sainz 1995, Adab 1996, Kussmaul 1995) the trainee, the trainer and the subject matter form a triad; this triad has been approached differently although certain major headings can be observed for the trainer perceived as the master, the partner and the editor-reviser, which will be briefly covered below.

Due to the fact that the trainer is the end user of translations, he may act as a reviser correcting errors encountered in texts produced by trainees; at the same time, as a trainer he strives for effective communication strategies to be applied applied by them since the main goal of the training process is the development of translation skills. The trainer may also select the optimal method of quality assessment. This attitude might, to a certain extent, resemble real-life translation tasks and thus it may prepare trainees for prospective contacts with professional revisers on the market and improve the ability to cooperate (cf. Risku 1998). Peer- and self-assessment is postulated by Fowler (2007).

The role of the master and partner views the trainer as the model, or an expert, to be followed by trainees. Trainees should realise the significance of the knowledge acquired for their further development in translation performance. The partner-focused attitude consists in the active participation and experience exchange both on the part of the trainer and trainees in the training process, or, in other words, it is "the energy flowing in both directions" (Sainz 1995: 138).

Trainees should obviously comprehend, analyse and, ultimately, translate texts which are becoming increasingly more complicated (and the complexity of problems encountered should also be on the increase). Therefore, the trainer's role is to convince trainees that referring to their prior experiences while taking in-process decisions is beneficial for the task performance.

While considering interpreter training it is vital to remember that trainees should ideally possess those psychological features that are inherent in professionals in order for the training process to be effective and to fulfil the expectations of both trainers and trainees, additionally providing the latter with confidence in the skills that they develop and improve to reach the desired goal, i.e., to enter the professional path. These features encompass good memory, stress resistance, motivation for constant development, knowledge expansion and experience accrual, yet they are still in the process of development in trainees.

In interpreter training yet another aspect should be considered, i.e., the role of theory in the curriculum. We could agree with Kaiser-Cooke that practice and theory in training are "not only compatible, but mutually necessary" (Kaiser-Cooke 2000: 68), thus practical results may give origin to new theories, or at least attempts aimed at forming new approaches based on empirical background. Training thus includes such elements as the awareness of strategies of effective decision-making and problem-solving on which trainees may rely in their skills development process.

The requirements that trainees are to face as well as training-related expectations embrace a variety of aspects. Trainees must be aware that they should have extensive linguistic training in both languages, vast body of knowledge concerning both native and foreign cultures, motivation to develop their skills throughout their training and especially further on in their professional (or prospectively professional) life and the ability of taking advantage of all potential sources of information that might prove helpful and useful. Nevertheless, expectations and theoretical assumptions are only one aspect of the training; the other one is the reality, i.e., the awareness of one's competences and skills. Trainees frequently feel what their performance is, or rather should be; they also tend to be aware of the deficits in either cognitive resources or performance (or both).

In order to verify those assumptions, a survey was carried out which was aimed at finding answers to questions on the very essence of professionalism as perceived by trainees. The survey and its participants shall be discussed below.

The Survey

The surveyed group consisted of 38 persons, all of them being trainees of the post-graduate course in legal and business translation and interpreting at the Nicolaus Copernicus University in Toruń. The course lasts one year and includes over 150 hours. One of the course elements is consecutive interpreting training. The surveyed are mostly graduates of English studies (both on the BA and MA level); only a few persons have graduated from other faculties (law or economics and marketing). The survey was carried out mid-term after students had had introductory classes in interpreting followed by several hours of in-class practice.

The survey attempted to specify a list of features that trainees considered important in the interpreter's job as well as expectations they had as to professional interpreting and professionalism in translation generally. They were not to rate the features, as the survey was not focused on statistical occurrence of specific features but on the trainees' awareness of what skills would enable them to perform translation tasks in a professional way. It must be borne in mind that trainees cannot be treated as (practicing) interpreters because for almost all of them (36 persons) classes in consecutive interpreting were the first occasion to interpret. Nevertheless, it should also not be forgotten that as persons working actively in their own profession-related areas they can be treated as users (listeners) of interpreting performed by professionals since they might participate in conferences. This dual interpreter-user perspective might yield interesting and thought-provoking results.

The survey consisted of five open questions to which the surveyed were to add question-related features. The questions were the following:

1. Who is a professional translator?
2. Which cognitive features are most important for his/her performance?
3. Which skills are vital?
4. What should he/she never do in their work?
5. What is quality?

The answer to the first question included an entire list of desired features of a professional translator who should be well-prepared and possess the knowledge of both languages (encompassing culture and history), should improve constantly and use a variety of sources (these also embrace consultations with experts). Professional translators do not ever pretend that they know everything and do not hesitate to seek help and to support other translators. They are capable of facing any unexpected situation, but on the other hand they know their own limitations and are aware of users' expectations. Their experience accumulated over years of work bears fruit – they are focused and poised, always reliable, with high self-esteem yet without the patronising attitude towards others.

The survey subjects are aware of the significance of knowledge and experience. They also see the necessity of being self-confident, but additionally, they value self-criticism and analytical skills oriented towards their own performance.

As far as most desired cognitive features that professionals should have are concerned, the survey subjects listed such features as creativity, motivation to learn, good memory, self-assurance, broad extralinguistic knowledge, knowledge of both languages, intelligence, and a very intriguing concept of "brilliant mind" that remained unexplained. They included psychological features in this category; these are diligence, accuracy, ambition, ability to make contacts with others, patience and strong nerves.

In Question 3, the survey subjects were to list skills vital for professionals. These skills included the ability to learn fast and face various situations and challenges (which echoes the capability of facing unexpected situations mentioned in Question 1). Knowledge of languages appeared once again (similarly as in answers to Questions 1 and 2). Stress management is considered important; fluency and divided attention are perceived as vital by the subjects. Other skills include media competence, interpersonal skills and data management.

Question 4 referred to things that professionals should never feel tempted to do, namely, to overinterpret, change the content, show nervousness or irritation, translate everything, simplify, be subjective or even biased, gesticulate, speak silently, lie, give up while translating, be late, dress inappropriately and, finally, shout at the speaker.

The last question was an attempt aimed at a (tentative) definition of quality, or at least outlining the concept as such. The subjects listed only a few factors which in their opinion comprise quality; these are accuracy, reliability, message and sense transfer, and knowledge of specialist vocabulary. For them, quality is, rather vaguely, perceived as a key element of translation.

The dual interpreter-user perspective, referred to above, is manifested in the subjects' slightly imbalanced, and even distanced, attitude towards features indispensable for interpreters: the subjects tend to adopt the position of assessors rather than co-participants – as interpreters – in the interpreting event. They even seem to ignore the fact of their own (potential) involvement in translation performance. This might probably be due to their general rather pessimistic approach towards their own success in professional development and professional career.

The inability to define quality, or rather problems with even a tentative definition of this concept, reflect the general attitude of the subjects that might be inferred from answers to survey questions. The subjects perceive the professional translator/interpreter as an unattainable ideal, a theoretical construct for which they should be striving their entire professional life. Surprising as it may seem in this context, they tend to have a "double perception" of the professional: on the one hand they want to be professionals, but on the other they are convinced that they will never be able to fulfil all the requirements to face all prospective challenges of the job. They even tend to discuss the concept of a professional translator as if they were not involved in their own professional development, lacking self-confidence in their own skills and competence. This attitude substantially affects training: if the subjects (trainees) are not convinced of their potential, if they do not believe in their capabilities and skills, the success in training is not possible. Obviously, as there are always exceptions to the rule, a minor group of trainees is very determined and intent on becoming professionals; this might be a premise for claiming that individual variation in terms of personality features determines training success.

Conclusions

Attempts at defining professionalism are bound to face difficulties due to problems related to assessment criteria governed by translation priorities or effectiveness of communication in a given translation task. Professionalism may be manifested as a final result of (multilateral) relations between the translator and translation users, between cultures in interaction and culture-related contexts, between the message and its transfer. In this view a prospective professional translator – a trainee and a survey subject – is a person who during the process of individual development, of acquiring knowledge and accumulating experience is to become a professional, and not a talented or skilled graduate of translator/interpreter training course. Naturally, the focus of training is laid on the education and preparation of professional translators to function in a professional environment. Yet, it is an obvious fact that the above is only a theoretical premise: due to its gradual character, competence (manifested in professional and high-quality translation) needs time. Thus, in reality the training graduates are not professionals, but would-be professionals. This 'would-be-professionalism' is a feature that the aforementioned survey's subjects are cognisant of. The priorities of training seem to be the techniques and strategies deemed vital for successful translation performance, and the significance of knowledge is stressed as well. A new trend worth highlighting in this place would be attempts aimed at shaping the trainees' awareness of pragmatic aspects (see Viaggio 2002) without which interpreting can be perceived as a service provided "in thin air" (Viaggio 2002: 229).

The objective for the future in interpreter training should be to establish a psychologically-grounded and cognitively oriented model of training that would incorporate the advances and developments of research, capitalise on the experience of experts and trainers and be adjusted to the needs as well as challenges of contemporary globalised world.

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CHAPTER EIGHT

PRACTICAL ASPECTS OF THE INTERPRETERS' JOB AS AN ELEMENT OF THE CURRICULUM: "MEET THE C[K]..."

ZUZANNA ŁOPACIŃSKA-PIĘDEL

Introduction

One of the facets of the interpreters' profession is its variety. Throughout their professional lives interpreters come across numerous types of assignments, they work with and for various clients, and the element of uniqueness, or an unrepeatable, and often unforeseeable, combination of factors, seems to be an inherent part of the job.

Young graduates of interpretation schools, however, when entering professional life, often feel overwhelmed by this very variety, and by the challenges they encounter, not only related to the difficulty of topics they have to deal with, but also to the broadly understood client (in particular if they decide to pursue the career of a freelance interpreter), or an untypical interpretation assignment they are being offered.

It is felt that interpretation curricula are frequently very theoretical in nature; they do not include any practicalities of the profession – elements or guidelines of remuneration, types of assignments, untypical jobs, etiquette, etc. – and young graduates often fall prey to unfair market practices or, when faced with a dilemma related to some practical aspects of the job, take a random decision leading to grave dissatisfaction with the job or resulting in a failure.

Without the wish to run the risk of turning universities and higher education centres into enterprises, or being accused of collusion and promoting "interpreters' cartels", it is proposed to introduce into interpretation curricula a handful of exercises of a purely practical (legal, commercial, business and etiquette-oriented) character.

Interpreter training – general remarks

Let us start by reiterating a statement by Hartzell that "the education environment itself is rapidly undergoing change" (Hartzell, in: Rybińska 1997: 182). Factors influencing that change range from those more "extensive" in scope, such as globalization or cultural and political events, to economic conditions and market demands. Therefore, it is difficult to make very general statements about curricula and education environments, and shaping thereof, which would be universal or at least long-term in nature. At the same time, proposals to include any elements of "practical aspects" into university curricula are by nature short-term, or even ad hoc, as they are directly related to the current situation, meaningful for graduates of a given faculty and future professionals, yet by no means timeless.

Secondly, in terms of curricula of interpreter and translator training, it needs to be remembered that interpreter training brings some inherent difficulties and obstacles, resulting mostly from the character of the job. Interpreter and translator training courses are growing in popularity, and are offered at a variety of levels of education (cf. e.g. Gillies 2004). A multitude of profiles of interpreter trainings and courses reflects the multifaceted character of the profession but at the same time renders only certain elements of the curriculum universal.

Handbooks and references for students of interpretation so far have mostly been focusing on theoretical frameworks as well as practical exercises related to the very act of interpretation, stress management, note-taking, memory, décalage and reformulation (cf. e.g. Jones 1998, Gillies 2004, Tryuk 2006). It can be argued that not enough attention has been given to some more pragmatic, or rather down-to-earth aspects of the interpreter's job, such as the broadly understood client and market. These matter in particular if the interpreter pursues the career of a freelancer.

Including certain additional elements into interpreter training curricula might enhance the "practical preparation" component of interpreter education.

Distinction: Freelancer vs. Employed Interpreter

The fundamental distinction between two basic forms of interpreter employment – namely working on a permanent basis for one company or institution, i.e. employment contract, and freelancing – has a great impact on the characteristics of the profession. In the case of the latter, there are many more aspects which can vary, potentially be influenced by the interpreter him- or herself, and thus be valuable as part of the curriculum.

Therefore, in the subsequent part of the present paper, the focus of interest will be the profession of a freelance interpreter. Such a caveat does not, however, automatically exclude all facets of the trade of interpreters employed on a permanent basis, but merely emphasizes the difference in character. What is more, the brief characterisation of interpreters' clients in the subsequent paragraph includes institutions employing them in order to present the variety of entities interpreters may work for.

Defining the Client

The growing intensity of international contacts constantly increases the number of institutions employing interpreters – such as the European Union, the United Nations, the World Trade Organization, to name just a few (cf. e.g. Phelan 2001, Wagner et al. 2002) – and using interpreters' services on a permanent basis. It is felt that in such a case there is not much variation due to the fact that conditions of employment as well as the rights and obligations of the interpreter are defined in her or his employment contract, as emphasized in the previous paragraph.

At the same time, Ozolins (2007) points out that "an increasing trend is for interpreters to be free-lancers who work in many different institutions, and largely obtain work through interpreting agencies" (2007: 121). Interpreting agencies have been little studied, and undoubtedly they do play a crucial role in changing the field's employment practices. They act as an intermediary between the service provider, that is the interpreter, and the customer, and this constellation gives interpreting agencies certain rights and puts certain responsibilities on their shoulders. They operate on a commercial basis and may seek compromise and concessions both from the client, as well as from the interpreter, which in turn will sometimes require the interpreter to be able to defend her or his position, as well as to negotiate.

Thirdly, freelance interpreters work for a vast array of institutions, organizations, companies and other entities which are not agencies, and which simply require the services of an interpreter. In such a case, there is usually no intermediary and the interpreter acts independently. In such a context, the interpreter is often required to provide information about the trade, characteristics of the job as well as its requirements and constraints (Ferreira Ramos 2000).

In many instances, however, especially in the case of bigger conferences, with a team of interpreters, contacts between the client and the latter are the responsibility of the coordinating interpreter (Monacelli 2009:11), also known as *chef d'équipe*. According to Phelan (2001) "a chef d'équipe liaises between the interpreters and the conference organizers and delegates" (2001: 6). It may be stipulated that in a situation where the contact between the client and the interpreters is the responsibility of another interpreter (often a member of the interpreting team), certain issues will be dealt with differently than in the case of interpreting agencies being involved.

To sum up, interpreters work for various clients, which may impact certain organizational aspects of their assignments and work: they are employed on a permanent basis, they work as freelancers through interpreting agencies as well as directly with their clients, sometimes with the assistance of an intermediary colleague.

Practical Aspects of the Interpreters' Profession

At the beginning of the present paper "practical aspects" of the interpreters' profession were mentioned in a postulate for them to be included in interpreter training curricula. For the purpose of clarity, a working classification and a brief description of such aspects will be presented. The description provided below is by no means exhaustive and is of orientation character only.

The elements mentioned above may be divided into five categories:

- legal aspects,
- commercial aspects,
- ethical aspects,
- health-related aspects,
- broadly understood etiquette.

Legal aspects of the interpreters' profession that are worth incorporating into the curriculum include matters related to copyright and protection thereof (which even in the case of many practising interpreters is a matter not widely known). Furthermore, they cover types of contracts used for interpretation assignments in the case of freelancers, as well as third party liability insurance which is quite popular among translators and is becoming more and more so among interpreters.

In terms of commercial aspects that could be covered in the process of interpreter training, the main question that arises is whether to talk about such "mercantile" issues at all. A growing majority of tutors of interpreting (who are often practising interpreters) come to the conclusion that some knowledge about the market is useful for future practitioners of interpretation, and decide to include elements such as rates and rules of remuneration into their teaching content. Moreover, in the context of commercial aspects of interpreting miscellaneous issues related to it (e.g. accommodation for interpreters during a conference away from their domicile, travel expenses, etc.) can be touched. Furthermore, information about professional associations and their role (as well as help, e.g. when seeking professional advice) can be useful for future interpreters.

Ethical aspects of interpretation constitute the subject of numerous papers and dissertations (cf. e.g. Schlesinger 1999, Phelan 2001, Kaufert et al. 2009). Many scholars have already emphasized the role of the interpreter's code of ethics during work in legal settings and medical settings (cf. e.g. Schweda-Nicholson 1994, Gonzáles et al. 2009). In a more recent publication, Baker and Maier (2011: 3) point out that:

> one major development in the professional world at large that must be taken on board in designing translator and interpreter training syllabuses is the increased emphasis on 'accountability' (...). In order to address the question of accountability, educators need to engage far more directly and explicitly with the issue of ethics and build it into the curriculum.

In line with that view it is postulated that such aspects of interpreter ethics as rules of confidentiality, impartiality, loyalty, as well as codes of conduct and codes of ethics should be included into curricula.

Health-related aspects of the profession are to a certain extent connected to ethical aspects. Factors such as working hours and working conditions are often included in various codes of conduct or guidelines offered by professional associations. In addition to including these aspects, it is thought that elements of voice coaching could add value to the curriculum. Furthermore, trainee interpreters could benefit from incorporating into curricula certain health-related topics such as stress during interpretation. This matter has been the subject of a number of studies and research projects (cf. e.g. "Interpreter Workload Study" by AIIC 2002 available at: http://aiic.net/ViewPage.cfm/page657.htm, Kurz 2002).

The last of the practical aspects mentioned above was described as broadly understood etiquette since there is a growing need for certain elements related to behaviour to be included in training programmes for future interpreters.

The relation between "nature and nurture" has been researched thoroughly by scholars from numerous disciplines and has proven to be a complex one. While it is impossible to generalize about the type of students enrolling on interpretation courses, it may be worthwhile to ensure that during the training process certain contents are provided that create a common foundation or shared understanding of some factors related to the profession.

As interpreters work in a variety of situations, of which some are more and some less formalized, devoting attention in the training process to norms of etiquette and rules of diplomatic protocol can be a valuable addition. Jones (1998) describes the delicate situations that can arise at international conferences, requiring that interpreters thoroughly understand their role and exercise good judgment. A similar concept is put forward by Kučerova (2008) who calls for "situational analysis" to be included in the process of interpreter training, and her notion coincides in many aspects with the notion of etiquette. It encompasses not only correct forms of address, dress codes and punctuality but also savoir vivre.

Furthermore, since – as was stated at the beginning of the present paper – the majority of interpreters work as freelancers, it may prove useful to add some market- or business-related elements to the curriculum. The range of such elements is very wide, and stretches from business cards or resumes to negotiations with clients and intricacies of VAT rules applying to interpretation services.

To summarize, interpreter training would benefit from certain practical inputs related both to legal, ethical and commercial aspects of the profession, as well as health and professional etiquette. The content presented to trainees is not limited to any particular aspects, and the selection and presentation of material depend to a large extent on the person of the teacher. Moreover, since most teachers of interpretation are practising interpreters, their personal experiences may be an invaluable addition to the teaching content.

Practical Applications

The practical aspects of interpreter training described above can be incorporated into the curriculum in a plethora of manners. Below a selection of proposed activities is given together with brief comments about their implementation, constraints and benefits. At the very beginning, however, it needs to be reiterated that interpretation is mostly taught by interpreters themselves. Thus, the methods of presentation, as well as the scope of presented content will be influenced by their experiences and attitudes.

Undoubtedly, the most common method of providing students with the previously described content is a presentation delivered by the teacher. To make the matter more interesting, this presentation can be an input for interpretation. Alternatively, it can be delivered by guest speakers: fellow interpreters, representatives of professional associations (who as a rule are more than glad to be given the opportunity to speak to the "next generation"), representatives of agencies, and companies hiring interpreters. One serious constraint of such a solution is the willingness of such individuals to participate (often on a non-profit basis) in interpretation classes – experience shows, however, that this is seldom an obstacle, and both trainee interpreters as well as professionals from the groups mentioned above find such encounters very rewarding.

Secondly, various forms of discussions, brainstorming exercises and student research projects (which again may be the source of material for interpretation exercises, e.g. an interview or a press conference) can be conducted. Students themselves can embark on an analysis of the market, for example by examining entries from Internet portals for job-hunting interpreters (where, to their surprise, they will find assignments as untypical as a position of an interpreter-welder). Such analyses are also a chance to juxtapose students' assumptions and impressions with practice, and to draw their attention to practices which may be harmful.

Moreover, sight translation may be practiced – for instance with contracts for interpretation services or legal texts related to interpreters' copyright as the source material. Apart from training the skills, such a solution is a source of useful knowledge for students.

Furthermore, many of the described practical aspects of interpreter training can be incorporated in "scenario-based" classes. The array of interpreter assignments to become the topic of such scenario-based classes is virtually endless, and may span from a visit of an ambassador, to a meeting with trade unions, to an asylum interview. Students should be given thorough background information about the assignment (for that purpose, if confidentiality rules are not breached, it will not be uncommon for the teachers to refer to their own past assignments), so that they can conduct a "situation analysis" or "sense the situation" (Kučerova 2008) and discuss their doubts with the teacher as well as fellow trainees. Such scenario-based classes constitute an opportunity to familiarize students with different types of interpretation (and different interpreter roles; cf. e.g. Phelan 2001, Niska 2002, Tryuk 2004, Kučerova 2008), and to sensitize them to challenges such assignments may bring.

The extent of realism of such scenario-based classes can vary from discussing the factors to be taken into account to role-playing or even (if possible) classes taking place outside the classroom (which, undoubtedly, is much more feasible in the case of consecutive interpreting). It is also important to debrief students and share lessons learnt after such projects.

Meet the C[K]

The paper's title is at the same time a working title of an exercise aimed at providing trainee interpreters with some insights into encounters with their future clients. The prerequisite for the exercise is for students to be familiar with at least the most basic practical aspects described above, preferably from all categories.

The exercise is announced to students some time in advance as a meeting with an important guest. It is considered to be useful not to disclose the identity of the person. The guest can be a representative of a professional association or an agency as well as a fellow interpreter. The latter has in the past proved to be most successful as such participants are able to add their own experiences and insights to the construction of the exercise. As the meeting is announced as a formal one, students may be asked to dress accordingly; this option offers added value as it is a practical test of dress code deliberations.

Students meet the guest individually in the form of a mock meeting with a client. It is important to ensure that students who have already met the guest do not mix with those who have not, in order to ensure "equal chances" to everybody; for that purpose three rooms may be necessary, one to serve as the meeting room, one as a waiting room, and one to accommodate students who have already had the chance to meet the guest. The guest should be instructed beforehand about the planned course of the meetings, and should have some typical questions, tasks, assignment types, and challenges prepared. The characteristics of each mock-job should be different in order to encompass the widest range of variables – it is not adamant, however, that none of them is repeated.

As may be presumed, it is the client's task to present the student with some contentious issue contrary to the standards of ethics or rules of professional conduct, requiring great compromise from the interpreter or something contrary to professional practice: working alone in the booth, interpreting at a specialist conference without materials, working for 16 hours without a pause, dumping remuneration, providing insider information, working without a signed contract, or even matters as untypical as catering for the participants of the meeting, or staying in one hotel room with, for example, technicians during a conference taking place away from the interpreter's domicile. If the guest is a practising interpreter, she or he will undoubtedly be a rich source of more or less extreme cases and stunning offers of interpretation assignments.

For students this is a chance of putting their knowledge into practice, and the fact that the guest is a stranger adds realism (and usually stress) to the situation. It is also a chance to check one's ability to negotiate, resist pressure and prepare for the future.

Debrief after completion of the exercise is a chance to juxtapose opinions and share experiences. If the guest is a practising interpreter, the feedback can be even more valuable, especially if some of the mock jobs were the person's real experiences, and she or he may share their own solutions or lessons learnt and give first-hand advice.

Such an exercise is a very practical form of preparation for the future work of a freelancer, as well as a social test for future professionals. Not only does it give trainee interpreters some preliminary information about what to anticipate, but also for many of them this is the first chance to actually negotiate their job. This, in turn, might help future interpreters avoid a situation in which, as Poger-Guichot (2007) states, "we know how we do our job, but many of us are just unable to put this into words for our clients".

Summary

It is proposed to include into interpreter training curricula content related to purely practical features of the profession, such as legal and commercial aspects, ethical issues and matters connected with professional conduct, as well as etiquette and health-related factors. Teaching experience shows that such inputs are greatly appreciated by students, provide them with some reference points, knowledge and understanding of certain intricacies of the profession, and simply a wider picture.

It may be stipulated that including such elements into interpretation curricula can add a more practical (and needed) facet to the education of future interpreters and enable the latter to enter professional life more easily. As Kučerova (2008) points out, "teaching interpreting is more a matter of passing on know-how than knowledge, we must look at all the things that have become second nature to the successful professional" (2008: 43). Without any attempt at making interpreter training devoid of "knowledge" and focusing solely on practical "know-how", it is proposed that the described aspects of the profession should also constitute a part of interpretation curricula.

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CHAPTER NINE

EVALUATING DIFFICULTY OF TEACHING MATERIALS FOR INTERPRETING CLASSES

PRZEMYSŁAW JANIKOWSKI

Introduction

It could seem that at the intersection of highly complicated student performance profiles and the maze of interrelated features that every text is characterised by, any attempt to "foresee" the general level of difficulty of a text for a group of interpreting trainees is a game of guessing. The following article ventures to bring some order into the chaos of sequencing materials for classes.

It is certainly not the first such attempt (Patrie 2000, Hönig 2002), but it is exceptional in the particular perspective adopted for this task. Inasmuch as the previous endeavours have concentrated on evaluation, have taken in their scope all variety of materials and have not assumed any particular teaching methodology or curriculum design, this analysis is devoted, quite specifically, to evaluating the level of prospective difficulty of recorded multimedia for running CI class practice within the framework of "thematic progression" (see Janikowski 2011).

Obviously the criteria adopted may very well be expanded to other types of materials, such as guest in-class lectures, presentations by students or teacher read-outs of documents prepared in advance. Yet, such is the nature of the recorded audio or video files that they lend themselves way more easily to scrutiny and manipulation and therefore have certainly made obsolete Pöchhacker's discoveries from 1999 on the tendency of interpretation teachers to base class practice predominantly on read-out texts (159-160). The specific tendencies nowadays are of course begging for research, but it is safe to assume that with the current wealth of internet resources the majority of texts, at least for the combinations containing a dominant language, will be audio and video files.

The problem of suitability must thus be confronted anew for such materials and in this paper I am mainly interested in evaluating their level of difficulty based on a range of textual phenomena. Needless to say, when planning classroom activities and choosing materials we should also take into account other facets of suitability, such as those mentioned by Kelly for translation (2005: 117-127). Still, it is the level of difficulty that should be our primary guiding light, because even the most attractive and politically correct texts will not fulfil their goals if they are not adjusted to the students' level(s).

The usefulness of assessment of interpreting materials on the basis of a set of identifiable parameters was deemed by Griessner and Lamberger-Felber (2008) "not necessarily more objective" than a holistic, intuitive approach. However these scholars, as many others, concentrated on a course-final evaluation for which they suggested a Gestalt-based approach. On top of that, this criticism is to my best knowledge the only such reservation in literature.

Overview of Textual Features of Materials

To counterbalance these reservations, the wealth of studies where individual features of original texts **are** pointed to as sources of difficulties will be presented. These studies were not necessarily conducted with the clear view of documenting students' difficulties in the acquisition of interpreting skills, yet showing what is difficult for interpreters, they are certainly of great help in understanding what might be difficult to (the majority of) students even if the two categories do not always fully overlap (see e.g. Bartłomiejczyk 244).

At this stage the problem of differentiating between what is difficult to individual students and what is an "objective" difficulty of the ST calls for our attention. Actually Tryuk half-distinguishes these two types of difficulties as she starts a chapter of her book with listing the objective ones (2007: 99-121) and detailing some of them, namely speed of production, pronunciation, informational density (measured by level of redundancy), non-verbal elements of the act of communication. Yet she drops this division, only implicitly categorising mistakes in the TT and the lack of fluency as "non-objective" (99). Apart from the obvious shortcomings of Tryuk's presentation format, there is also an inherent difficulty in drawing straight lines between the objective and the subjective in the evaluation of ST difficulties. Yet the categories themselves are highly useful. Therefore, rather than organising our considerations along the lines of the objective-subjective opposition let us only occasionally tackle the question of differences between that which is subjectively perceived and that which is commonly experienced. Instead of that the material will be organised according to the level of complexity as evidenced by subcategorisation of particular features by researchers. In this way towards the end of our discussion we should probably reach the level of the simplest and most efficient criteria for evaluation. After all the aim of the present study is to serve the needs of teachers in organising their class material properly.

Mode of Delivery

The complexity of overarching categories probably has no better exemplification than in the case of mode of delivery. There is no doubt whatsoever that it affects the (perception of the) level of difficulty in interpreting. This is testified to both by scholars and interpreters themselves who rank it among the most stressful working conditions when the original speaker reads a ready-made speech. (It is actually the number one category when corrected for frequency; AIIC 2002: 30). It is doubtful, however, that we should demonise it to the extent Kopczyński does when he introduces a separate phase of intralingual (?) processing specifically designed to cater for the needs of switching between the two channels of delivery:

> (…) if an interpreter translates a text intended for a written medium, not only does he translate it into another language but also into the spoken subcode.[1]

Still, the real problem in the didactic use of Kopczyński's conclusions for the benefit of organising teaching materials lies not in their exaggeration, but in the complex nature of the phenomenon at hand and, as a result, in the lack of access to the reality behind the recordings to be assessed. For many a teacher it will be very often a daunting task to decide whether their file is an unprepared oral monologue or dialogue, a semi-prepared oral monologue with notes, a written monologue intended for the spoken medium – reading thereof or a written text intended for the written

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[1] Especially that Kopczyński's basis for this conclusion rests squarely on the qualitative analysis of "performance + correct form" errors encountered in the interpreting of political speeches by students. Many more sources of such errors are viable, such as the low processing speed or limited access to fossilised idiomatic expressions that could be better with more experienced interpreters etc.

medium that Kopczyński distinguishes elsewhere (1997: 291; for other taxonomies see Ardito 1999: 177-179).

That is probably why Kopczyński himself discusses these in terms of a more complicated set of more specific, underlying phenomena:

- fluency (hesitations, repetitions, false starts, stuttering),
- pragmatic particles or redundant sounds,
- syntax (length and division),
- exaphora,
- macrostructure (292-294).

A certain degree of simplification is achieved when we move to the orality-literality continuum that Shlesinger (1989) has used for describing basically the same reality, yet she too is forced to break it down to four specific categories and manifold subcategories to enable any effective application.[2] Thus even the sole mode presentation of this complex phenomenon points to the fact that it is beyond effective use in classroom reality. The thorough analysis for each and every recording that would take into account all the aforementioned factors is simply not worth it. The game of guessing that is the other option is not good enough – the results would simply be unsatisfactory because the preparation that goes into the speech production is too fine-grained: behind every speaker there are different "acting" skills, different vocabulary capacities, different knowledge of the subject enabling them to go impromptu, different levels of dependence on the notes; there might even be differences in the level of cooperation with a ghost-writer, if we assume this saddest scenario (cf. Hönig 2002: 44.)

Interpreting Direction

In terms of underlying complexity, interpreting direction has a similar status to mode of presentation, only with more interlingual (Lee 2002: 598-599) and interpersonal variation. The latter is tied to the prerequisites of individual interpreters (students) which inevitably shape their strong

[2] 1) Degree of planning: lexical density (i.e. type/token ratio), especially as achieved by nominalizations, modifiers, subordinating conjunctions and the like; fragmentation of syntax and use of coordinating conjunctions; use of cohesive ties; disfluencies and flow monitoring: redundancies, pauses, repetitions, and monitoring of information flow; 2) Shared content and knowledge; 3) Lexis: colloquiality; modality and hedging; lexicalized intensification; innovativeness; cohesion markers; 4) Degree of involvement (Pym 2007: 4-5).

emotional attitudes to directionality. Bartłomiejczyk's research (2004) into the perceptions of students is especially important here as – as has been noted on several occasions in the literature of the subject – the perceptions very often outweigh the objective influence of specific factors.

Thus in the majority (48%) of cases students were of the opinion that their active interpreting was better, 26% believed in the superiority of their retour and 26% did not have a clear preference (Bartłomiejczyk 2004: 242). Asked about specific difficulties that made the process demanding, they pointed to the source text delivery speed and their own vocabulary limitations in the case of both B-A and A-B (243). It is actually a pity that they have not been given more choice from the repertoire of ST-oriented difficulties. There were only two such features in the survey: "speed at which the source text is delivered" and "understanding the source text" and, with one of them ST-production oriented and the other TT-production oriented, they greatly overlapped.

Similarly to research on attitudes, the studies on quality do not consistently prove the detrimental effect of A-B interpreting (Donovan 2002: 39) as would be wished for by some representatives of the "no retour" policy. In view of the above and as a side note, it is all the more interesting how steadfast European Union institutions are in their insistence on the B-A mode of interpreting.

Technicality

In opposition to directionality, technicality of speeches is commonly assumed to cause comprehension problems with very little or no doubt aired by scholars as to the influence on translatability, and even less so on interpretability. Traditionally, it was brought down to terminological problems with high saturation of low-frequency vocabulary, thus predominantly lexical. In more recent years, however, the turn to grammatical specificity of the scientific discourse (e.g. Halliday and Martin 1993) has pushed considerations of LSP translation outside of glossary preparation and long-term vocabulary expansion (see Palumbo 2007).

The alarming claims of a special syntax with a high number of grammatical metaphors can, however, be counterbalanced with the translator's power of text analysis (Gile 1995: 86-93). Obviously, the provisions of Gile, prepared in the first place for the written medium, can only be applied to interpreters with great care. Yet, with a proper degree of automatisation, the grammatical demetaphorisation mechanism can work pretty fast and cater for skilful inferencing where primary recipients could rely on their extensive background knowledge (cf. Lenart 2006: 41). Needless to say, such a skill-based compensation is acquired gradually and relatively late in the didactic process and therefore a measurement of the technicality of speeches must be made and introduced into our working databases of materials.

Before we move on to another set of related features of source texts it is perhaps worth to note that one of the subcharacteristics of technical language is its reliance on numerical data. Due to special processing requirements that numbers make on our cognitive system (Dahaene 2000: 987-988), it turns out to be a stumbling block for large numbers of students and calls for special treatment of these texts that are particularly rich in numbers.

Novelty

The signalled partial overlap of technicality with novelty draws on the previously implied opinion that the disparagement between the cognitive luggage of regular conference participants and the interpreter is to the favour of the former, especially in the highly undesirable condition of lack of preparation, which, unnatural as it is in the case of professional conference interpreters, is considerably more common for students in class. Add to that the limited general world knowledge lamented upon by many teachers of interpreting (Palka 2011: 93-94) and pretty much anything beyond simple interviews with celebrities may cause problems to at least some of our (undergraduate) students.

This slightly exaggerated view nonetheless brings out the very important feature of high intersubjectivity of novelty. Unfortunately, apart from intuitive evaluations of what our students might possibly know (and forcing stronger interdependences of interpreting classes with theoretical courses in our teaching programmes), the only possibility of measuring novelty comes at the “objective”, short end of the spectrum, namely in relation to the repetitiveness of speeches and presentations in conferences.

Alexieva (1999) made some use of this opening with her familiarity coefficient computed as the ratio of reappearing notional words to the total number of notional words in a text/conference etc. On top of her calculations she also asked an interesting question, very much in line with recent neurolinguistic findings:

> […] the question arises as to whether the neatly organised knowledge stored in the LTM is the only resource we can use in text comprehension, that is, whether there aren’t any loose ends, any loose traces of prior experience, traces of what we have seen or heard, be they individual

> words, phrases, sentences, bigger segments, or elements of communicative situations, conducive to the accumulation of more information, which can give rise to a feeling of familiarity and increase the Sir's perceptual fluency. (1999: 53)

From this perspective it is unexpected that while calculating the familiarity coefficient the scholar could be so strictly lexical. If proposition packaging (to be discussed below) is the source of the main difficulty in understanding texts, then the alleviating nature of familiarity should be most visible in the propositional domain rather than the lexical (with the obvious reservation that the lexicon is the carrier of the propositions and with the due recognition that Alexieva speaks about 'notional words' all the time). The obvious difficulty, if we wanted to improve upon Alexieva's coefficient, would be the need to define repetition for predications which might explain her decision in the first place. Feasible for vocabulary items thanks to the notion synonymy, it would be incomparably more difficult with predications. In this way, left without a specific calculation we can only reinforce the notion of the importance of preparation as it certainly influences the propositional familiarity and not just lexical repetition/synonymy.

Lexical and Informational Density

Alexieva's considerations of novelty/familiarity were actually a corollary to her work in informational density for interpreting. That work produced in effect the notion and coefficient of listenability. Dissatisfied with the previously used measurements of readability, tailored – as they were – for the activity of reading, she suggested calculating the relative difficulty of listening to STs in terms of the sum of explicit predications to the total number of predications in a text (50). Although, as a big fan of mathematical equations, Alexieva does make it look intimidating, the formula is in fact approachable and usable, at least for research purposes. It is, however, a different question, whether it could be easily applied in didacticism. The necessity to spot all the propositions and then single out the explicit ones would be, even with the assumption that we do have a transcript for every file in our directory, an immensely time-consuming occupation.

Is there any simpler method, perhaps among those discarded by the researcher? The Flesch's Formula that Alexieva criticises combines the number of polysyllabic words per 100 lexical units and the average number of words per sentence. Alexieva bars the right to any representativeness to both of these in terms of interpreting, but she is perhaps too strict in judging that a higher number of polysyllabic words would "facilitate comprehension in SI and not hamper it" and that "interpreters are expected to know such words (unlike children, for whom Flesch's formula was originally created)" (48). For one, longer words – with their different stress pattern that the researcher so rightly points out – are usually still reflective of more sophistication and the higher cognitive processing load. In order to prove it is enough to look at the sample (every seventh entry) of the top 60,000 lemmas from the Corpus of Contemporary American English (Davies) ordered by frequency, where the top 14 entries are monosyllabic and the last ten positions have the average length of 3.2 syllables. With reference to the knowledge of interpreters let us not forget that we are dealing here with the education of the **prospective** interpreters and that their vocabulary span very often leaves a lot to wish for.

There being no doubt that Alexieva's calculations are considerably more precise than Flesh's and the latter formula still being complicated enough to discourage the teachers from regular use, we should continue in our search for another measurement tool of informational density or perhaps resign ourselves to the lexical density as indirectly reflective of the former. In the light of the univocally expressed persuasion of the direct influence of this feature on the level of interpreting difficulty expressed by researchers and interpreters alike, it certainly cannot be just discarded from the class material-related considerations.

Abstractness and Figurativeness of Language

Another feature of ST related to the technicality is the abstractness and figurativeness of language. The additional processing requirements that especially metaphors put on our cognitive processing have attracted a lot of attention from scholars of cognition, with the suggestions that this processing is placed (Caplan 2002: 668) and carried out (Gernsbacher et al. 2001) differently from literal language processing. In fact, the interest in metaphor processing at the cognitive level was so great that researchers started expanding the notion to encompass any kind of language with a multiple domain representation and arrived at the notion of grammatical metaphor.

The above-mentioned difficulties in processing are certainly reflected in practice with de Groot showing that "Concrete words are translated more quickly (and more accurately) than abstract words" (1997: 37) and Tryuk even claiming that: "(…) the majority of metaphors used in the original speech are lost as a result of the interpreters' tendency to omit these devices" (2007: 102; translation mine – P.J.). If such be the case, metaphoricity and abstract nature of some texts certainly deserve special treatment in class material preparation, with this reservation only that they perhaps should not be bundled together with the grammatical metaphors whose more abstract nature may be coming in the way of moderate accessibility of lexical metaphoricity[3].

The model suggested by Alexieva (1992: 223-224), who pinpoints differences between one and two-domain mappings, is once again very precise but hard to introduce didactically. Instead I would suggest a simple "unpredictable metaphors" count that is way more superficial and therefore faster. It is based on the assumption that conventionalised metaphors may be processed in a fully non-metaphorical way, as stock phrases, while within the category of "fresh" metaphors only those with a totally unconventional domain mapping are really problematic for interepreters[4].

Speaking Speed

Great speaking speed or "presentation rate", as Gerver (1969/2002) calls it in his oft-cited article, is proved to have detrimental effect on error rate (64-65) and is accordingly feared by practicing interpreters (AIIC 2002: 29)[5]. It seems to be equally commonly accepted that too low speaking speed is bad as well (Hönig 2002: 44). Yet this time only tentative explanations are offered suggesting the possibility of overloading short-term memory before closure. It is open to debate if that could really happen, as even with unnatural speeds of 50-60 wpm there is always the possibility of using the *salami technique* to a greater extent and enough time for the extra processing required for that. Thus the memory load is only as big as the original production speed allows. More in line with our current considerations, the decision has to be made individually as to whether the measurements should be made in syllables per minute (and thus more comparable across languages) or in words per minute (and thus easier).

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[3] On top of that there is very recent promising research showing the activation of texture-selective somatosensory cortex in the processing of metaphors whose domains are grounded in the sense of touch. It is hardly imaginable such conclusions could be reached for grammatical "metaphors" thus proving their disparate processing (see Lacey, Stilla and Sathian 2012).

[4] See Appendix 1.

[5] This survey featured "fast speaker" as number one category under 'Level of Stressfulness for Specific Job Characteristics' and corrected for frequency this category came second, straight after 'Speaker reading from notes.'

Naturalness of Presentation (Pronunciation)

Pronunciation-related problems open the last subcategory, that of sound-based problems in interpreting. For the first specimen in this category it is obligatory to notice what Kurz concluded in her research, namely that: "The more the speaker's pronunciation deviates **from what the interpreter is used to**, the more difficult the task for the interpreter…" (emphasis mine – P. J.) thus making the feature a greatly intersubjective one. On the other hand, as Hönig puts it:

> While an interpreter's personal background and experience is, by definition, subjective, the manageability of varieties can at least be described as a function of the interpreter's background/previous experience and the width of the deviations in a particular speech. (…) exposing students to speeches of this kind is an important part of professional training" (2002: 45).

In our efforts we should not be discouraged by students often pointing to this phenomenon as the main source of their interpreting difficulties. Their vision may be blurred by the relative conspicuousness of strong accents (unless, of course, the speaker struggles not only with pronunciation but with the grammar of his foreign language).

Availability of Nonverbal Elements

Statements such as that of Ahrens (2004: 227) that "verbal and nonverbal elements of texts that are interpreted are equally important" are certainly exaggerated, especially that, as Pöchhacker summarises: "(…) research on the role of visual information in SI has yielded an ambiguous pattern of findings" (2004: 127). Yet, even if it is just about the misplaced comfort of our students, whenever possible we should supply them with gestures, facial expressions, turn-taking signals and audience reactions and certainly, with a very low cost, it is worth listing these features in our material databases.

Sound Quality

It is not the times of Jean Herbert anymore when much of the equipment was still in the prototype phase, but the occasional breakdown in broadband transmission in teleconferencing or malfunctioning equipment in a low-budget conference may bring an interpreter up against the wall and he had better be well prepared for that. Including a file or two of poor quality into our classroom practice should, among other things, enhance students' coping skills.

Other

For a multifaceted analysis like this one the collective category of 'other' features is inevitable and in itself it could constitute a separate paper. Due to space constraints let me just briefly mention some additional ST characteristics that could affect the level of difficulty in the case of teaching materials for interpreting. Without getting into detailed explanations as to their relative value or internal composition these could include:

- complexity of grammatical structures (with a high level of overlap with most suggestions by Alexieva about explicitness of grammatical structures and grammatical metaphors);
- monotony;
- availability of visual aids (mostly slides) which constitute an additional channel of communication in the already complicated work of the conference interpreter (see Molska 2004: 50-56 for the analysis of cognitive load in such situations);
- length of material with its most obvious relation to levels of fatigue;
- thematic variability of presentations (putting extra demands on the students' knowledge base).

Discussion (Assessment and Networking)

Based on the discussions provided above, pertaining to specific textual features and their interrelations, and instead of further discussions, the following diagram (Fig. 1.) is given to spatially represent the complexity and interdependence of characteristics that the interpreting teacher has to consider before they venture into class with an AV material.

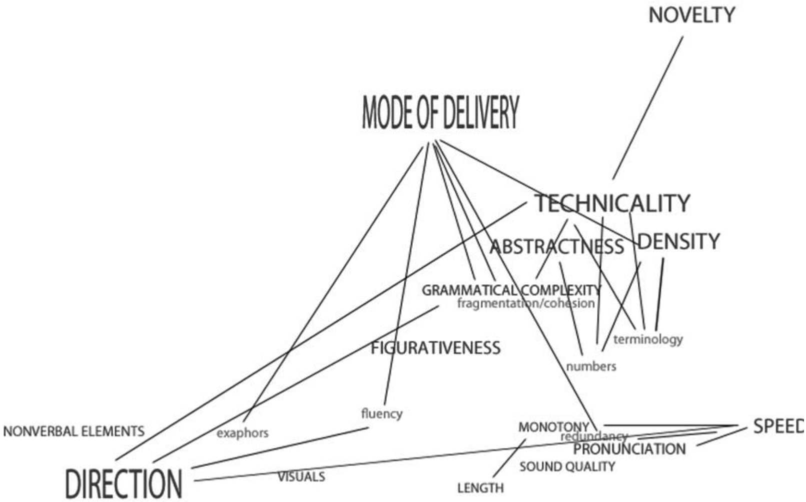

Figure 9-1. Complexity and interdependence of textual features relevant to material selection

A word of explanation is due at this stage. The two dimensions of the diagram account for the relative influence of the feature on the AV material's difficulty and thus its importance (horizontal placement) and the relative difficulty of spotting or calculating the value thereof (vertical placement from bottom to top). Apart from that, the size of entries reflects the complexity of the notions with secondary, complementary features presented in red small letters. Needless to say, the placement is only relative and even that with reservations as it was not and probably could not be calculated in any reliable way, based as it was on incompatible data from interpreting research literature.

From the perspective of teaching materials selection, the lower right corner of our diagram is then of utmost importance, as it represents selection criteria that are relatively easy to assess and have relatively high influence on the overall difficulty of the texts. It will depend on the teacher as to which criteria specifically they want to include in their pre-selection assessment, but some conclusions seem to be pretty apparent and can certainly be put forward for general consideration.

First of all, speed in this or another form is actually indispensable (even with the provision that we are speaking about consecutive rather than simultaneous interpreting tasks). Secondly, density would be very helpful in assessing the potential difficulty, preferably joined with terminology to cater for the technicality of the original speech. Thirdly, a look at the network of sound-based features should also precede any material-based work as these are very easy to assess and affect the feasibility of processing incoming speech to a substantial degree.

Finally, as was mentioned at the beginning of this discussion, assessing the potential difficulty of the AV material does not bring full assurance of its suitability for the classroom. Thus, apart from the above, the teacher has to think about the ethical reality of some speeches, student levels of interest and involvement or overlaps with content of other courses. To their aid they always have the wide range of possibilities of modifying the original materials, going beyond the simple slowing-down or pause insertion. Also, fortunately, many of these considerations take the form of intuitive decisions with quick holistic reflection on the networks of features and issues rather than long, meticulous internal debates and calculations.

Appendix 1

My preliminary analysis of a corpus of religious texts totalling 666 minutes and 58 seconds of monologic presentations for which I divided metaphors into these three groups (conventionalised, predictable and unpredictable) showed that speakers used the average of 0.83 metaphors of the first group per one minute of text, 0.46 for the second category and only 0.11 for the third. These values corrected for repetitions of the same metaphors in the text were respectively: 0.71, 0.36 and 0.09. In practice, this produces a metaphorical representation present in almost every minute of the texts, but only one "unpredictable" and unrepeated metaphor in over ten minutes of speech, thus two to three per text. Additionally, some of these are instantly explained. Keeping in mind that – by default – religious speeches are the most figurative text types, we should be satisfied with the conclusion that as long as we have catered for the "unpredictability" of metaphorical connections, our students' exposure should be controlled enough in this respect (see Janikowski, in print).

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CHAPTER TEN

TRANSLATION QUALITY: CONCEPTS, PROCEDURES AND TOOLS

MAREK PAWELEC

Introduction

Translation is a complex process in which the translator subjectively interprets the intentions of a source text writer, trying to recover the author's communicative aims. There are numerous concepts of translation quality, many of which are based upon subjective impressions. Although they might offer some rules and guidelines regarding assessment, in general they still fail to provide a quantitative way of evaluating translations. As far as the quality of translation is concerned, we usually still agree with the famous Justice Potter Stewart quote from 1964: "I know it, when I see it". Translation quality is also strongly connected with the type and quality of the source text. When dealing with a translation of a poem, a play or a novel, audience expectations are usually quite different than in the case of an instruction manual or a product catalogue. Since the subject of translation quality in the case of literature or poetry is still largely a matter of scholarly debate, it will not be discussed here. Instead, the paper will focus on a subject with strong practical and business implications – translation of technical texts.

Technical Texts

What is a technical text? In general, a text may have many functions: to entertain, to enlighten, to propagate ideas. A technical text is a kind of text whose main function is to instruct, but also to describe and to prove some postulates. Instructional texts tell the reader how something should be done, descriptive texts: how things are. As the reader probably knows from experience, such texts are usually found in all kinds of instructions, user manuals and reference guides. Since they serve certain functions, they usually are (or should be) written according to certain rules and – ideally – with controlled language which is a subset of natural language, obtained by restricting the grammar and vocabulary in order to reduce or eliminate ambiguity and complexity. Those features make it easier to develop methodologies for assessing translation quality in the case of such texts, since it is relatively easy to establish the equivalence of the target text (TT) with regard to the source text (ST). The TT should ensure similar efficiency with regard to the syntactic, semantic and pragmatic function of the ST within the cultural frame and expressive potentials of both the source and target language. If we accept the pragmatic textual approach in accordance with which translation operates not with sentences but with utterances, equivalence should be achieved at the pragmatic level. Even when we take into consideration all these factors, it is still hard to define translation quality (TQ) in a way which would enable us to assess it quantitatively.

Translation Quality Assessment

Why measure translation quality? On the current very competitive market of translation companies, quality is a very important factor for both clients and translation providers: offering higher quality of translation can lead to more jobs and higher income. However, it is very hard to improve something one cannot measure and express in numbers. Hence the need for a method of translation quality assessment. A metric provides a way to objectively quantify a process and to reduce costs of poor quality. Is it then possible to measure TQ? Yes, although indirectly, thanks to a fairly simple trick. While it is hard to agree on what a quality translation is, it is much easier to agree on what an error is, and by common definition an important element of quality is the absence of errors. Based on this simple idea a practical definition of high-quality translation was produced: a high-quality translation is a translation with very few or no errors at all. When measuring TQ we really measure the incidence of various types of errors and defects in the translated material:

- errors of form,
- errors of meaning,
- errors of compliance

Studies in this field led to the development of the LISA quality assurance (QA) model. LISA stands for Localization Industry Standards

Associations – the body which unfortunately shut down in 2011 due to insolvency which was the result of a lack of a clear view of its goals. However, during its functioning LISA mandated many standards important for the translation and localization industry and one of them is the LISA QA model which is a method of assessing translation quality widely used in the industry.

All this resulted in the development of the quality control system based on the Translation Quality Index (TQI) methodology. The TQI methodology is a quantitatively-based method of translation quality assessment. It measures the number and type of errors found in a text and calculates a score, or TQI, which is indicative of the quality of a given translation. TQI indicates the quality of a given translation sample, and is obtained by assessing a translation (usually a random sample with a word count greater than a minimal value, usually about 1000 words) by an evaluator with rigorous application of a quality assurance methodology. TQI attributes a numerical value to a translated text, with 100 being an "error-free" translation. The value of a text is based on the number of error points in a given text or sample.

What are the error points and how do they differ from errors? Not all errors are equal: for example, there is a difference between a typo on the front cover of a manual and the same typo in a footnote. This leads to assigning different weights to errors depending on their consequences. In the previous example a minor typo can be assigned the weight of "1" and major typos will be scored with some greater weight. Those weights are called "error points". There is a distinction between the error type and its severity – each error can be marked as critical, major or minor, depending on its consequences.

To maximize objectivity, the translation assessment procedure itself has to meet a set of criteria. The translation quality results should be:

- Repeatable – two assessments of the same text should yield similar results,
- Reproducible – assessment of the same text by two evaluators should give a similar result,
- Objective – void of bias (this requires rigorous selection criteria for evaluators).

Of course a lot depends on the evaluator – a good evaluator must be able to be as objective as possible, and be able to distinguish between factual and tangible errors as well as stylistic preferences. Differences in stylistic preferences are not errors and are ignored in the computation of the quality score, so it is necessary to establish clear rules that define what an error is and what it is not.

When assessing a sample text, the evaluator has to answer three questions:

- Is the translation accurate?
- Is it grammatically correct?
- Is the translation compliant with the glossary, style guide, guidelines and client instructions?

If the answer to these questions is "yes", it means that there is no error.

Clearly, the TQI methodology cannot measure everything. Since it is designed to measure tangible, factual errors only, it is ineffective when a high degree of creativity is expected on the translator's part, as in the case of literary, marketing and advertising texts, and is best suited to the assessment of technical texts.

The LISA standard defines several categories of QA errors:

- Mistranslation (incorrect understanding of the source),
- Accuracy (omissions, additions, cross-references),
- Terminology (glossary),
- Language:
  - Grammar,
  - Semantics,
  - Spelling,
  - Punctuation,
- Style (adherence to the style guide),
- Country (country standards like numbers separators, local suitability),
- Consistency.

Each error falling into one of these categories can be classified as minor, major or critical. In the standard LISA model minor errors have a point value of 1, major errors a value of 5 and critical is the maximum error points plus 1. When reviewing a translated text or translation sample of volume sufficient to avoid statistical bias, a reviewer enters each encountered error either into the specially prepared Excel sheet (Figure 1), or into special software for TQI calculation, like *aliquantum* or *LISA QA Model* (Figure 2). The sheet or software calculates the TQI value based on the number of errors in each category. Using these values and the number of words of evaluated text the software calculates the TQI value which is the basis for the overall classification of the translation. Usually to "pass" the evaluation the text does have to reach a score of at least 94 (out of 100), but scores in the range 94-98 points are considered inferior and – depending on the contract – might mean some financial penalty for the translator. If the text is scored below 94 TQI, the translation is rejected and the translator may not receive the payment.

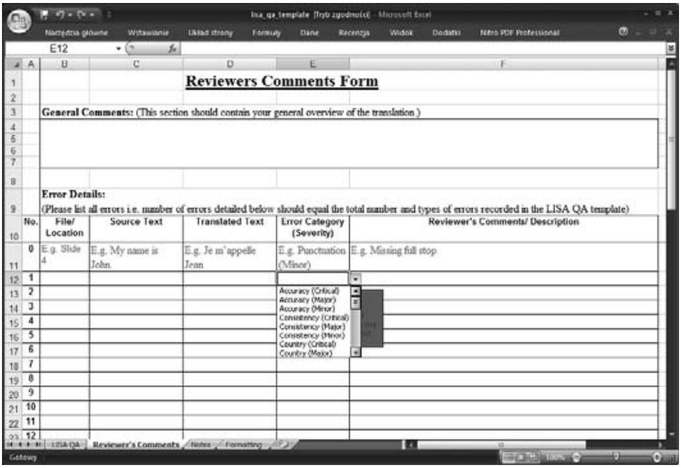

Figure 10-1. Example of the Quality Assurance form based on the LISA model prepared in Microsoft Excel – scoring sheet with an error example and a pick list for error category/severity

In practice different companies dealing with large quantities of translations, like some large software and hardware manufacturers and some global-scale translation companies, developed their own, individualized approaches. Some of them decided to assign fixed weights to certain error categories – for example, classifying all terminology errors as major and all punctuation errors as minor. Some versions of the LISA model classify all Mistranslation and Accuracy errors into one category, since the result is basically the same in both cases, and usually this type of errors is regarded as critical. Some implementations of this methodology also add a "formatting" category which in the LISA QA sheet is scored separately. Formatting errors can often be classified as major or critical since erroneous placement of formatting tags can lead to high costs of DTP troubleshooting. It is worth noting that in some cases the category "Critical" includes any type of error which may result in injuries, product recalls or other considerable costs, so in an extreme case even a misplaced comma can be classified as a critical error. And the presence of a critical error may – or, in the case of some companies, must – disqualify the translation, which means that it has to be returned to the translator/translation company for thorough review, and financial penalties apply.

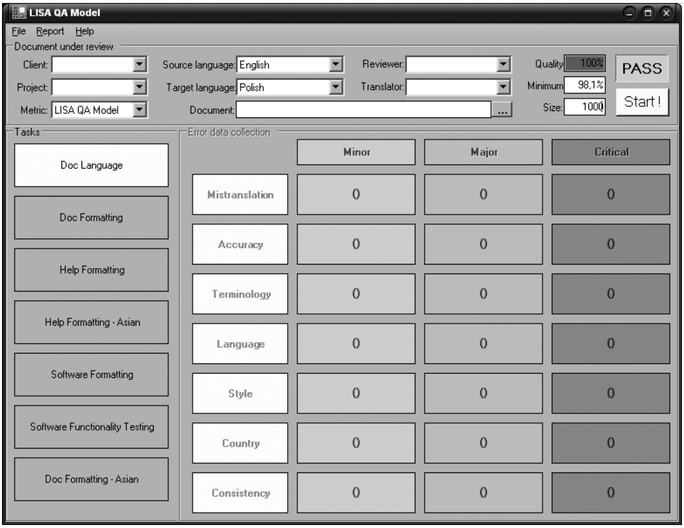

Figure 10-2. LISA QA Model application window

The translation market, in general, consists of three groups: end clients, translation companies acting as intermediaries, and actual translators. Thanks to the LISA QA model, translation buyers have tools for assessing the quality of technical translations. If a translator wants to deliver a product that will be accepted and classified as a high-quality target text, first of all he or she needs to know the criteria to be used for assessing his/her translation. This is the key message of this paper – to be able to succeed in the world of technical translation, one does need not only the knowledge of a language (especially the specialized, technical terminology of the field he or she is going to work in), but also the rules which are being applied in the industry.

Of course, it is not enough to know the rules – one has to follow them. Most technical translations are currently produced with the help of specialized software – Computer Aided Translation (CAT) tools which help to streamline the translation of repetitive text by utilizing a database – called translation memory (TM) – containing translation of all sentences (segments) translated previously.

In order to benefit their customers, companies offering CAT tools equip their software with functions which help clients arrive at error-free translations. Those are known as quality assurance (QA) functions, designed to help eliminate technical errors, the occurrence of which may lead to the disqualification of a translation. It has to be mentioned that the QA checks can only help with certain error categories – like terminology, consistency, formatting, spelling or country standards – and are powerless against others, like accuracy or style.

MemoQ is one of the "top tier" CAT tools used by translators and translation companies, and its QA functions are on par with similar software products. MemoQ offers a comprehensive list of checks in the following categories:

- Translation consistency: checking whether identical segments are translated the same way. The function can control source to target consistency (identical translation of the same source texts) and target to source consistency (identical translation of different source texts),
- Terminology use: (if a glossary is available) checking whether the correct terms were used; optionally, "forbidden" terms may be defined,
- Segment length: examining the target text length as compared to the source text length – length limitation may be critical in software localization,
- Completeness of translation: detecting untranslated segments or those with translation identical as source,
- Formatting: checking if the target segments contain the source formatting elements (bold, italic, underline),
- Numbers: checking whether the translated segments contain the same numerical values with proper, localized formatting,
- Punctuation: detecting non-standard punctuation marks, missing brackets, quotation marks and incorrect use of spaces after punctuation marks,
- Spaces and capitals: detecting double spaces as well as additional spaces at the end of segments and checking whether the target segments use the same capitalization as the source segments,
- Inline tags: checking whether all the tags (usually formatting elements) from the source segments were inserted into the target text.

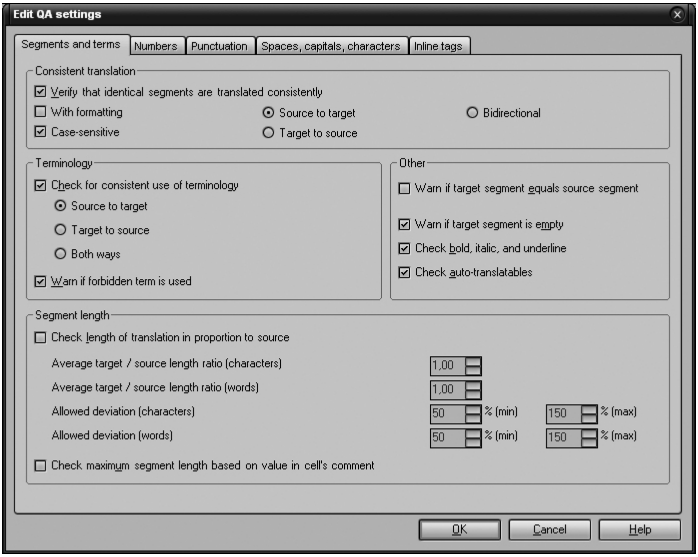

Figure 10-3. "Edit QA settings" window of the memoQ application with the available quality assurance options

Specialized Quality Assurance Software

Since the QA functions of CAT tools are relatively new and not all programs offer the same checks, there are independent software tools designed especially with this functionality in mind. Most of them are commercial, like ErrorSpy (D.O.G. GmbH), QA Distiller (Yamagata) or Verifika, but there is also a free desktop tool, ApSIC Xbench, and even some free online tools. ApSIC Xbench was developed by a Spanish translation company ApSIC Localization Solutions and serves two main purposes: it is a front-end for glossaries in many different formats and functions as a QA tool. To operate, the software needs bilingual files, i.e. files with both the source and target text for each segment in one of the many formats supported by the program – amongst the most popular ones there are Trados bilingual DOC files (see Figure 4) and XLIFF files (XML Localisation Interchange File Format).

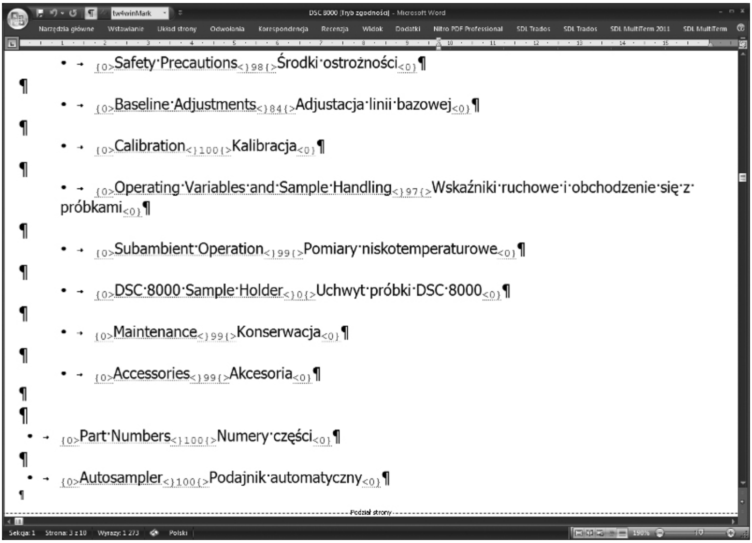

Figure 10-4. Example of a bilingual DOC file in Trados format. Source text and segmentation markers underscored with dotted lines are hidden with standard Microsoft Word settings.

There are several QA checks grouped into four categories:

- Spellcheck (spellchecking using an open-source engine Hunspell),
- Basic (untranslated segment, inconsistency in source, inconsistency in target, target same as source),
- Content (tag mismatch, numeric mismatch, double blank),
- Linguistic (key term mismatch, project checklist, personal checklist).

The main differences between CAT tool specific QA and a specialized program like Xbench is the ability of the latter to process and verify files from many different CAT tools, usually offering additional checks that are not available in some particular CAT tools. For example, the unique feature of Xbench is the ability to execute user-defined checks based on regular expressions, which enables the enforcement of some grammar or punctuation rules or identification of stylistic errors.

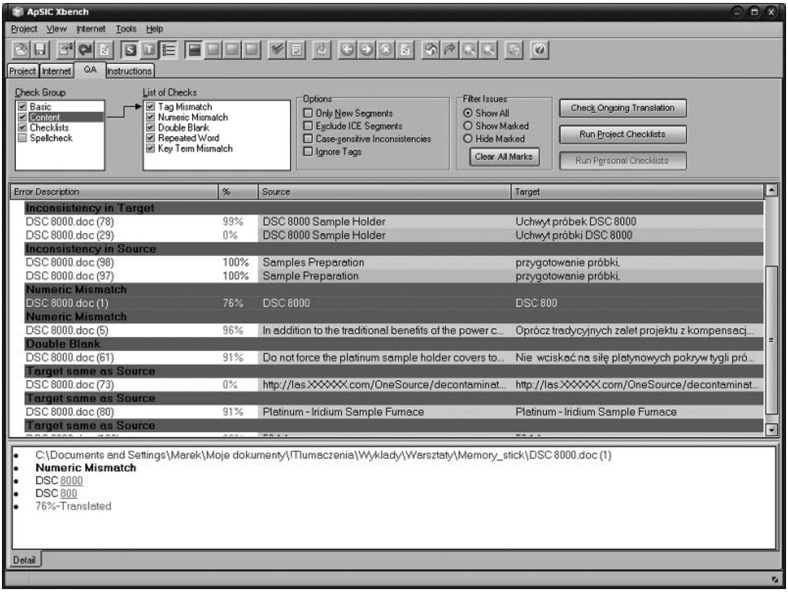

Figure 10-5. Example of the APSic Xbench QA report with errors in different categories.

Summary

To summarize, while the scholarly discussion about translation quality may continue in the years to come, the translation and localization industry has already developed tools for quantitative assessment of technical translation quality involving the relatively simple method of tracking and evaluating errors – all based on the assumption that a high-quality translation is one without errors. A goal of linguistic education is to prepare students for different careers they might take up, possibly including a technical translator position. To achieve these goals students must learn not only languages, but also at least the basics of the trade they might wish to develop. Since the knowledge of the QA methodology and criteria used in translation assessment procedures are important for the translator's success, I believe they should be incorporated as a part of translation curricula, together with tools and methods for verifying and improving the quality of technical translation.

CHAPTER ELEVEN

CAT PROGRAMS AND TRAINEE TRANSLATORS: IMPLEMENTATION OF HYBRID SYSTEMS AT UNIVERSITY LEVEL

IZABELA MROCHEN

Introduction

The computer is incredibly fast, accurate, and stupid.
Man is unbelievably slow, inaccurate, and brilliant.
The marriage of the two is a force beyond calculation.
—Leo Cherne

Much has changed in higher education in Europe over the past ten years. According to Jean-Marc Rapp[1] (2010: 4) "[g]raduates' employability is a vital concern (…) Europe is perceived around the world as having developed far-reaching policies for education and research". This is why, it should be emphasised that European universities have for centuries been viewed as knowledge-based institutions combining research, teaching and innovation. This state of flux may be pointing to the fact that European universities have been redesigning their curricula at the Bachelor's, Master's and Doctoral levels. The pace of changes continues to accelerate.

The environment of European higher education with regard to the teaching-learning tradition has been significantly altered and is a result of globalisation, on the one hand, and the competitive context of the modern labour market, on the other. The snowballing acceleration of available information has changed the profile of almost all professions and as a result computer literacy has become a necessity in the increasingly competitive labour market. The change encompassing the developments in

[1] EUA (European University Association) President.

international competition, the expansion of the Internet and the general digitisation of the global economy have affected the growing automation of translation, which is confirmed by the great number of translation programmes available at universities worldwide (Austermühl 2001).

This is why education at university level "should be able to respond better to a variety of needs and requirements" (Sursock and Smidt 2010: 15). The manifold possibilities offered by computer-assisted translation[2] can help trainee translators and, consequently, professional translators improve their work's efficiency and quality. This means that students' natural capacities need to be supported by electronic tools particularly at the level of higher education.

European Responses to International Trends in Higher Education

The overall objective of European higher education (EHE) is "a vital contribution to make in realising a Europe of knowledge that is highly creative and innovative" (Communiqué of the Conference of European Ministers Responsible for Higher Education[3] 2009: 1). The EHE is facing the opportunities of accelerated technological developments with new providers, new students and new types of learning. Furthermore, according to the UNESCO World Report 1998, universities are expected to respond to a wide spectrum of changes "to contribute to the new challenges that the new technologies bring up in conventional teaching and learning methods" (in Gultert and Romeu 2009: 3). In the context of the Bologna Process 2020, labour markets increasingly rely on higher skill levels and transversal competences.

It is for this reason that higher education plays a key role and should equip students with advanced knowledge, skills and competences that are

[2] It is important to make a distinction between machine translation (MT) tools and computer aided/assisted translation (CAT) tools. The purpose of a machine translation tool is to assume and perform many of the tasks normally completed by a translator; CAT tools are used to support the translator, by automating terminology lookup activities, eliminating repetitive work (Esselink 2000: 359). Computer-assisted translation is sometimes called machine-assisted translation or machine-aided translation (cf. Wikipedia http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Computer-assisted_translation).

[3] The Ministers responsible for higher education in the 46 countries of the Bologna Process convened in Leuven/Louvain-la-Neuve, Belgium on April 28 and 29, 2009 to present a range of the achievements of the Bologna Process and to establish the priorities for the European Higher Education Area (EHEA) up to 2020.

not only significant in a changing labour market but remain vital throughout students' professional lives.

The Bologna Process

In order to shed more light on opportunities in changing labour markets, it is necessary to discuss the political objectives which are set in the Bologna Declaration[4] of 1999 for the higher education sector. Michavila and Calvo (1998) point out three main challenges which universities face:

a) to qualify future professionals to fit in with the current new profile,
b) to train researchers-to-be,
c) to educate citizens for today's society (in Gultert and Romeu 2009: 3)

From its inception, quality assurance has played a significant role. Since 1999 the undergraduate/postgraduate degree structure has been modified highlighting the concept of qualifications frameworks as well as learning outcomes. Consequently, in *the Bologna Process 2020 – the European Higher Education Area*[5] *in the new decade*, the main emphasis is placed on employability which can be achieved by means of "raising initial qualifications as well as maintaining and renewing a skilled workforce" (2009: 3). Therefore, graduate and postgraduate education in particular should be treated as an initial stage and a vital step towards the implementation of curricular reform, which is perceived as an ongoing process leading to high-quality, individually-tailored education paths offering increased flexibility.

The European Higher Education Area

The European Higher Education Area (EHEA) was launched in 2010 as the main objective of the Bologna Process since its emergence in 1999. In many respects, the EHEA was meant to ensure more coherent systems

[4] The Bologna Declaration in 1999 was the first early sign of the need to organise and structure European higher education as a response to globalisation (Sursock and Smidt 2010: 15).
[5] The imperatives of the knowledge society and globalisation, affecting higher education, have been translated into two overarching European Policies: The Bologna Process and the Lisbon Strategy and its successor strategy titled 'EU 2020'; it was finalised in 2010.

of higher education in Europe to "equip students with skills and attributes that individuals need in the workplace and that employers require"; moreover, at the end of a course, students should have "an in-depth knowledge of their subject as well as generic employability skills" (Bologna Process Aims[6]). All these contributions have opened up new perspectives.

In this respect, Korzeniowska and Kuhiwczak (2010: 19) point out that

> "[g]enuine communication obviously depends equally on sending messages out and on receiving them. The current emphasis still seems to be placed on ensuring that we can all receive foreign messages, either directly or by means of translation".

This in turn necessitates skilful translation whose idea is included in many educational programmes in the field of foreign language (FL) study.

Translation and the European Union

The European Union (EU) policy of communicating is to "make the Union more open and more effective[7]" in terms of multilingualism (23 official languages). It should be emphasised that a multilingual organisation such as the EU is expected to support and strengthen communication in Europe and help Europeans understand EU policies and policy documents of major public importance, in particular. With this in mind, the European Commission (EC) has launched its in-house translation service, the Directorate-General for Translation (DGT). To cope with the spectrum of all 23 official languages, the European Union aims to harness Information and Communications Technologies (ICT) to develop innovative education and training practices. It is claimed that effective integration of ICT into education can enhance learning environments and accelerate current practices. As a result, a partnership project between the EC and higher-education institutions was launched by the European Master's in Translation[8] (EMT).

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[6] Bologna Process Aims are available at: http://ehea.eruopeunit.ac.uk/sites/ehea/bologna_process_aims/index.cfm.

[7] The Directorate-General for Translation (DG Translation) 2010.

[8] According to the EMT project, university programmes that are benchmarked to these standards become members of the EMT network. The increasing number of programmes is based on a valid, skills-oriented framework of competences; this is why the EMT translator competence profile was drawn up by a group of prominent European experts in 2009. The main aim of *the translator competence profile* is to enhance the status of the translation profession in the European Union as well as to

EMT Requirements

The main goal of the EMT project is to establish "a quality label for university translation programmes that meet agreed standards in education" (the EMT 2010). This has resulted in the European Master's in Translation (EMT) project being drawn up by the DGT. This reference framework of training objectives, expressed in terms of competences to be acquired, is "intended as a basis enabling the content of training sequences/modules/programmes/sessions to be established and the most appropriate teaching methods to be chosen" as it is "concerned with the end competences" (Pym 2009). According to Williams (2003) (in Gultert and Romeu 2009: 3), competence means "a set of skills, knowledge and attitudes needed to produce the desired outputs of the workplace". The translator's competence needs to cover several areas such as excellent linguistic qualifications in the Source Language (SL) and the Target Language (TL), transfer skills (the ability to make a transfer from one language to another), education (general knowledge), experience/methodology (the ability to collect data on file), technical skills (the ability to use suitable equipment and access information sources), motivation and mental predispositions as well as talent (personality, intellectual abilities, artistic skills) (Piotrowska 2011: 23). Piotrowska (2011: 22-23) distinguishes a set of prerequisites that are significant in the context of the translator`s role in the social, political and cultural life in the 21st century.

Competences Proposed by the EMT Expert Group

To respond to the challenges of the labour market, the EMT suggested a network of university programmes developing qualifications for translators. The training objectives that are expressed in terms of competences to be acquired are priorities in educational programmes of higher education. The competences which lead to the qualification of multilingual experts are interdependent and presented in the six areas developed to establish the EMT translator competence profile (see Figure 1).

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establish a set of competences necessary for translators to work successfully in today's market. (http://ec.europa.eu/dgs/translation/translating/index_en.htm)

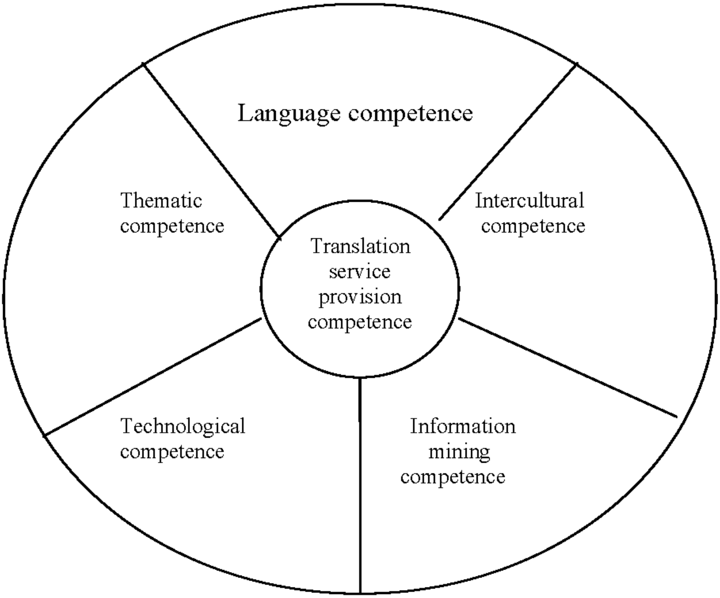

Figure 11-1. Competences proposed by EMT expert group9

It should be underlined that the competences proposed in each of the six areas are interdependent. Together, they comprise the minimum requirement to which other specific competences may be added (e.g. with computer-assisted translation or audiovisual translation in mind). Since the scope of this article is limited, I selected only some examples of the competences prepared by the EMT expert group.

[9] Source: http://ec.europa.eu/dgs/translation/programmes/emt/key_documents/emt_competences_translators_en.pdf

Table 11-1. Competences for professional translators, experts in multilingual and multimedia communication prepared by the EMT expert group

Competence in the provision of translation services	INTERPERSONAL DIMENSION: – being aware of **the social role** of the translator, – knowing how to follow **market requirements** and **job profiles**, – knowing how to comply with **professional ethics**, – knowing how to **work under pressure** and with other **experts**, with a project head e.g. in a multilingual situation, – knowing how to **work in a team**; PRODUCTION DIMENSION: – knowing how to create and offer a translation appropriate to **the client's request**, – Knowing how to establish and monitor **quality standards**, etc. – (source *The EMT expert group* pp. 4-5)
Language competence	- knowing how to understand **grammatical, lexical and idiomatic structures** as well as **the graphic** and **typographic conventions** of language (SL/TL), - knowing how to use these same structures and conventions in **SL and TL**, - developing sensitivity to **changes** in language and **developments** in languages; (source *The EMT expert group* p. 5)
Intercultural competence	SOCIOLINGUISTIC DIMENSION: – knowing how to recognise function and meaning in language variations **(social, geographical, historical, stylistic)** – knowing how to produce a register appropriate to a given situation, for a particular document **(written)** or speech **(oral)** TEXTUAL DIMENSION: – knowing how to understand and analyse the **macrostructure** of a document and its overall coherence, – knowing how to grasp the presuppositions, the implicit, allusions, **stereotypes and intertextual** nature of a document, – knowing how to compose a document in accordance with the **conventions of the genre** and **rhetorical standards**,

	– knowing how to draft, rephrase, restructure, condense, and **post-edit rapidly and well** (in SL/TL), – (source *The EMT expert group* p. 6)
Information mining competence	– knowing how to identify one's information and **documentation requirements**, – developing strategies for documentary and **terminological research** (including approaching **experts**), – knowing how to use **tools** and search engines effectively (e.g. terminology software, electronic corpora, electronic dictionaries), – mastering the archiving of one's own documents, etc. (source *The EMT expert group* p. 6)
Thematic competence	– knowing how to search for appropriate information to gain a better grasp of the **thematic aspects** of a document (cf. information mining competence), – learning to **develop one's knowledge** in specialist fields and applications (mastering systems of concepts, methods of reasoning, presentation, controlled language, terminology, etc.) – **learning to learn**, – developing **a spirit of curiosity**, analysis and summary; (source *The EMT expert group* p. 7)
Technological competence	MASTERY OF TOOLS: – knowing how to use effectively and rapidly and to **integrate a range of software** to assist in correction, translation, terminology, layout, documentary research (e.g. text processing, **spell and grammar check**, the internet, translation memory, terminology database, voice recognition software), – knowing how to adapt to and familiarise oneself with **new tools**, particularly for the translation of multimedia and audiovisual material, – knowing how to prepare and produce a translation in **different formats** and for different technical media, – knowing the possibilities and limits of MT, etc.(source *The EMT expert group* p. 7)
Source: http://ec.europa.eu/emt	

The main task of the EMT expert group is to produce specific proposals with a view to recruiting qualified translators and implementing a European reference framework for a Master's in Translation throughout the EU. In light of these challenges, higher education institutions are looking for ways in which to create better studying conditions at universities.

Moreover, modern translators become *treditors* (who edit and treat texts before translating them), *language detectives* (who try to find what the author might have wanted to say and what are the linguistic and cultural references), *bridge builders* (who are able to understand the cultural and societal context to which the text refers), and *language gardeners* (who can ensure the correctness of terminology and syntax when translating technical, legislative or policy documents) (Lönnroth 2008, 2009[10]).

The Polish Education System

Implementation of these changes into the Polish Education System will require building flexible curricula in order to equip students to be European citizens through the acquisition of high – level skills (Sursock and Smidt 2010: 92). Piotrowska (2011: 9) states that

> (...) [c]ontemporary translation studies cover such topics as norms in translation, culture-specific translation conventions, creativity, strategic translating, social and cultural environment for the translator, translation and mass communication, and others.

In the context of the EMT project, new subject areas such as multi-media translation, are being developed. Until quite recently, finding language graduates with computer skills was virtually impossible and "all translation service providers had to develop internal training for new employees on specific computer usage and translation tools" (Esselink 2000: 9). This shows that Polish higher education is playing an essential role in preparing students for full participation in the new European political, social and economic context. What is more, terminology and translation quality should remain consistent across various documents, which is possible by means of adopting a spectrum of translation tools from spellcheckers, word-processing software, electronic/online

[10] Karl-Johan Lönnroth *Launching the EMT Network: Fasten your seatbelts* (2009), Director-General, Directorate-General for Translation European Commission; a conference in Brussels, 2009.

dictionaries and HTML editors, to computer-assisted translation tools or software-localization tools.

In view of the above, it is necessary to adapt vocational education to the changing needs of the market economy. In order to implement new technologies with respect to the speed and quality of the translator's work, new translation tools need to be involved in both the translator's workplace as well as university training with regard to translation.

Language Engineering at the University of Silesia

It should be highlighted that "contemporary processes of information distribution via processes of translation now rely heavily on new information technologies (IT)" (House 2009: 79), which affects the main qualifications and competences of today`s translators as the process of translation needs to be extremely fast. In the context of technological advancement, it should be emphasised that university-level translation training now requires both academic staff and trainee translators (in the Department of Foreign Languages) "move away from paper and pencils as the sole translation tools" and turn towards computer-assisted translation or electronic transmission of documents, which is significant for both recruited translators and trainee translators who are expected to "keep abreast of new technologies through specialized training" (Lönnroth [DGT] 2008 in Mrochen, Półtorak, Gałan 2011). The idea of technological advancement, on the one hand, and requirements of the labour market, on the other hand, make the University of Silesia cooperate with professional translators (e.g. organizing training workshops for trainee translators), translation agencies, etc. The primary aim of the university is to invest in the development of computer-assisted translation as well as localization, which means well equipped computer laboratories to offer high-quality teaching.

Modern Tools for the Translator

According to Piotrowska (2011: 22) "the multiplicity of roles imposed on the translator is an obvious fact"; he works under many constraints. The new course *Computer tools and multimedia in translation* aims to provide the Department of Foreign Languages (DFL) graduates (e.g. the Institute of Romance Languages and Translation Studies; IRLTS) with necessary skills and experience so as to make them more competitive on the linguistic labour market. The target group for the project incorporates the Bachelor, MA degree graduates and post-graduate students. The course is designed to offer 90 hours, 30 of which are treated as a part of *Multimedia skills in translation* while 60 hours are destined to be carried out in the computer laboratory. The IRLTS introduced this new course in 2010 so as to increase the level of advancement amongst FL students and academic staff (the IRLTS organized a number of training workshops for academic staff, e.g. *Computer-assisted Translation* and *Localization*) in using new technologies in translation. Furthermore, the course participants are familiarised with a spectrum of CAT tools since there are different preferences in different European translation companies.

The Director of the IRLTS has cooperated with *Kilgray Translation Technologies*[11] that offers innovative translation technology to enhance productivity and quality. The cooperation is based on the academic and the training programs supported with the Kilgray Translation Technologies' Academic Programme[12]. As a result, academic curriculum and programs at the Institute have been modified and training takes place in computer laboratories which are equipped with licensed computer-assisted translation (CAT) tools, such as memoQ, Trados 2009, Wordfast Classic and Wordfast Anywhere.

It is worth mentioning that participants of the course are able to watch Training Video Tutorials prepared to show how to create a project, how to translate segments, or how to work with formatting; there are also training video tutorials on YouTube demonstrating and explaining all the major functions of, for example, Trados 2009, Trados 2010 and Wordfast.

Students' Evaluation of the Course

As discussed earlier, the concept of greater flexibility in curricula and implementation of computer-assisted translation at the IRLTS has been the goal of creating transparent learning paths. Participants of the new course were asked to provide their opinions as to how that innovative course, or study path, could better address each student's interests and potentially enhance employment opportunities.

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[11] Kilgray Translation Technologies – Kilgray is the world's fastest growing translation technology vendor. The company was established in 2004 by three Hungarian language technologists. Kilgray spent the first four years working on the technology and made its large-scale debut in 2009. http://kilgray.com/

[12] Academic Programme:
http://kilgray.com/solutions/user-group/academic-programme.

The questionnaire was conducted in January and February 2011. A total of 62 students[13] answered the questionnaire. The course participants' subjective opinions on the effectiveness of implementing CAT tools are presented in Figure 2, Figure 3 and Table 2.

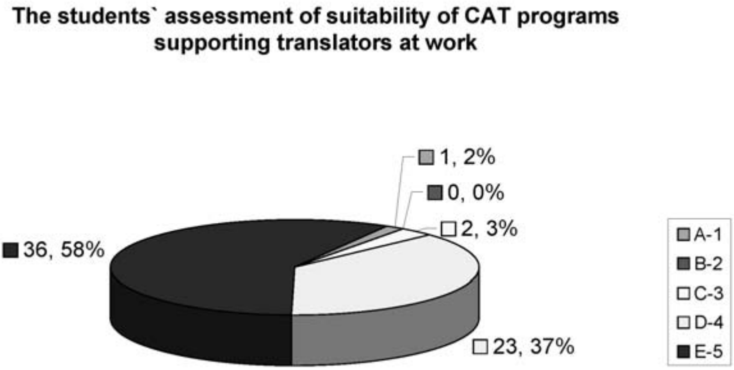

Figure 11-2. Course participants' opinion – *Computer tools and multimedia in translation course* (with 1 being the lowest and 5 the highest)

Responses to the question regarding the suitability of CAT tools and their support for translators at work are encouraging with 95% of participants noting that they were satisfied with the new course.

As for the results presented in Figure 1, the majority of course participants (36 out of 62) were satisfied (58% rated 5 being the highest; E-5 in Figure 1) and treated CAT programs as supporting translators at work. Furthermore, 23 students rated 4 (D-4 in Figure 1) and only 3 out of 62 participants were not fully satisfied (C-3 only 3%; A-1 only 2%)

The second question in the questionnaire required students to express their opinions on the course content by rating it from 1 to 5 (with 1 being the lowest and 5 the highest score). It is worth noticing that almost half of the respondents (30 students – 48%) claimed that their knowledge of selected CAT programs had broadened. Only 4 students (18%) answered

[13] The participants of the questionnaire were 62 students of the Institute of Romance Languages and Translation Studies, the University of Silesia from 3 groups: 20 students – BA level, 90 minutes per week, 2nd year, languages for special purposes: French and English (II FA); 42 students – MA level, 45 minutes per week, 2nd year, Romance languages: French (V FLA); 2nd year, MA level, 45 minutes per week, languages for special purposes: French and English (VFA).

that they were not completely satisfied. Table 2 shows the students' responses concerning the evaluation of the selected CAT programmes.

Although most of the commercial tools discussed in this article have similar features, each tool has its strengths and weaknesses. During the course, students are familiarised with the tools currently available and are taught the key features of each tool. The choice of a specific tool is usually dependent on one or more criteria like simple/advanced, intuitive/non-intuitive, difficult/easy, or user-friendly/user-unfriendly.

The rating of -2 being the lowest and 2 the highest was adopted in order to take into consideration the specificity of each CAT tool. This enabled students to adequately grade their experiences with Wordfast Anywhere (WA), Wordfast Classic (WC), Trados 2007 and memoQ in the translation process.

Overall, opinions on the CAT tools showed that Wordfast Anywhere and Wordfast Classic shared a similar rating. With regard to the scale, the majority of students chose 0 and 1 (e.g. 25 students chose *non-intuitive* for WA while for WC 23 students respectively – with 1 being the highest, 29 participants chose *user-friendly* for WA – with 0 being the highest and 24 *user-friendly* for WC – with 1 being the highest). The results of the questionnaire indicate that the participants of the course evaluated WA and WC as having user-friendly interfaces (with customisable view and shortcut keys), and as easy in every-day use. WA and WC, however, were found not to be very advanced in terms of terminology management.

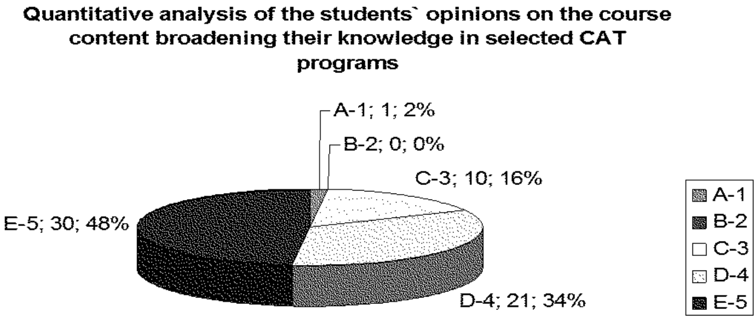

Figure 11-3. Course participants' opinion – *Computer tools and multimedia in translation course* (with 1 being the lowest and 5 the highest)

Table 11-2. ***Evaluation of selected CAT tools*** **– the opinion of course participants (with -2 being the lowest and 2 the highest)**

Wordfast Anywhere						
	-2	-1	0	1	2	
simple	5	16	24	15	2	advanced
non-intuitive	5	6	23	25	4	intuitive
difficult	1	6	19	26	11	easy
user-unfriendly	2	3	29	17	10	user-friendly
Wordfast Classic						
	-2	-1	0	1	2	
simple	8	12	21	20	2	advanced
non-intuitive	5	11	21	23	3	intuitive
difficult	2	9	19	28	5	easy
user-unfriendly	4	5	20	24	10	user-friendly
SDL Trados 2007						
	-2	-1	0	1	2	
simple	1	5	16	12	26	advanced
non-intuitive	14	20	20	5	1	intuitive
difficult	14	24	16	5	0	easy
user-unfriendly	12	16	23	7	2	user-friendly
memoQ						
	-2	-1	0	1	2	
simple	9	8	5	19	22	advanced
non-intuitive	0	1	6	20	36	intuitive
difficult	0	1	3	16	43	easy
user-unfriendly	0	0	1	13	49	user-friendly

As far as Trados 2007 goes, most students rated it with -2 (lowest) and 0 (highest). The differences between opinions are noticeable with respect to Trados being difficult, having a user-unfriendly interface and having a low level of advancement in terms of technology. The questionnaire also showed that memoQ was generally perceived as easy to use (69% rated as high as 2), user-friendly (as many as 49 students rated 2) and advanced (19 rated 1 and 22 rated 2). The higher proportion of positive opinions could perhaps be attributed to the clear visual representation of data making the translation process easier, faster and more dynamic. This would suggest that memoQ meets the standards and expectations of users.

The results of the analysis indicate that the students perceive computer-aided translation tools as instruments used to support the translator by eliminating repetitive work and recycling previously translated texts. Those features make CAT tools efficient and useful in a competitive labour market.

Conclusions

When discussing the use of computers in translation, it should be emphasised that this is human-computer cooperation meant to improve the overall quality of professional translation. It is unlikely that CAT tools will ever fully replace the human translator. Thus, in the light of advances in IT, the role of today's translator changes and the so-called *hybrid systems*[14] have emerged. Concepts such as computer-assisted translation show that the profile of the translating profession has changed and "there is no longer any question of whether or not to use computers" (Austermühl 2001: 7). Systems of higher education have, in turn, responded to the effect of globalisation on the translation market, with changes in both organisational systems and translation programs.

This is why universities are expected to provide students not only with linguistic skills but also the professional and technical skills necessary to function in a changing labour market. According to Lönnroth[15] (DGT in the EC 2008) good European translators should acquire a spectrum of key competences resulting in an ability to integrate translation workflow automation with translation memory and machine translation systems that will facilitate the translators' work and make them more competitive on the labour market in the 21st century.

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[14] John Urry states "global hybrids" are "informational systems, automobility, global media, world money, the Internet, health hazards" (2003: 14).

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CHAPTER TWELVE

TRAINING STUDENTS TO TRANSLATE INTO A FOREIGN LANGUAGE: IS THAT CORRECT?

ARKADIUSZ NOWAK

Introduction

The main purpose of the paper is to discuss translation training with a focus on teaching translation into a second language (L2T). One might argue that translation into L1 is prioritised by universities, and sometimes they utilise L2T in order to practice a foreign language or illustrate translation strategies. Translation researchers in the 20th century generally viewed L2T in a negative light and condemned it as inadequate. Luckily, at the end of the 90's this tendency changed, developing new points of view in the field. According to Kelly (1997), over the past ten to fifteen years the number of studies dealing with L2 translation has been on the increase, with translation into the non-mother tongue even becoming the main topic of forums and conferences as well as their subsequent publications. That translation into L2 is there to stay is also stressed by Campbell (1998).

L2 translation or translation into a foreign language, depending on the language combination we would be researching and training, is a necessity in countries of LLD (Languages of Limited Diffusion). To define what LLD are we could state that these languages are spoken by a relatively small number of people, in contrast to languages that are spoken in several different countries and are widely taught as foreign. An LLD may be the official language of a small country like Estonia, or it may be a minority language. Polish fits perfectly in this definition as it is not popular or widely taught abroad (as is the case with, for example, English or French). This generates the need to find translators that will be able to translate into a foreign language. But in order to do that, they will need specific training.

As Poland joined the European Union in 2004 and as the political and economic importance of Latin American countries is growing, this training should be a part of the general translation training. Moreover, it is a great pedagogical tool that enables our students to keep improving their foreign language competence and their communication skills when it comes to direct contact with clients.

Practical Aspects

As a PhD student and a lecturer at UNESCO's Chair for Translation Studies and Intercultural Communication, I am currently enjoying the opportunity of training our students to translate from Polish into Spanish. But before analyzing this specific training there are two basic questions that we need to answer: what are the main reasons why we should teach L2T considering the characteristics of the translation market and why has it become more relevant in recent years?

As we mentioned before, the expansion of the EU created the need for having documentation translated into all EU languages, and due to this new trend and to the difficulty of finding translators from some countries of LLD, L2T became a real and sometimes challenging necessity.

There are two more major factors that make this type of translation something that is present in today's translation market but is still viewed as something odd or unnatural. It is important to see how the translation market views L2T, taking into account the way the financial crisis has affected this direction of translation and its presence in the Polish translation market as well as in translation agencies.

Financial Crisis

In times of financial crisis and unrest around the world translation markets have suffered a lot, too. As a result, most companies in Spain have started looking for translators in Poland (the Polish > Spanish combination) as the costs of paying in the Polish currency are smaller than in euros. Hence, it should not surprise anyone that the Polish > Spanish translation market is changing its borders and adapting to a new and difficult situation. This situation is interconnected with the demands of translation agencies.

Translation Agencies

Everything we have already stated about L2T makes us question a very important argument: is there really a need for translators to be trained to translate into a foreign language in the Polish translation market? After researching different specialized websites for translators and translation agencies we are able to confirm that translation into Spanish is a fact and it is highly demanded, but what is even more interesting is that in 90% of cases it is not done by Spanish native speakers. In the last three months I have received more than 60 translation job offers through Globtra, a website devoted to translation jobs, solely.

Therefore, there is no doubt that this type of translation is present in the Polish translation market and it is commonly practiced. The main problem is that in most cases the translators in charge of these projects are not prepared for this direction of translation but are still taken to be trained translators because they are native speakers. This shows that there is no specific training in this direction of transfer, no association cares and such training is a constant necessity.

The Training

The idea of writing a dissertation about this topic and subsequently teaching L2T at the university level came from the fact that for years I had the doubtful pleasure of coming across translations into Spanish that were unnatural and contained many translation errors.

As I gained experience in this field I had the chance of discovering new aspects of translation training and developing a model of L2T training that might be interesting for anyone dealing with this type of transfer. It is still something that we could call an "under-construction" training that keeps developing, changing and hopefully improving with every semester.

During the first semester I had the opportunity of teaching a group of ten students who translated texts from different fields of specialization and at different levels of difficulty on a weekly basis. It was the first time I had ever taught this direction of translation and the experience brought some very good ideas and positive feedback, but I also found out about different problems that appeared during this first challenging semester. During the second semester, taking into account my students' observations, the general aim of the training was to prepare them to translate different legal texts. This experience was very positive due to the fact that they had to learn about the basic differences between the legal systems of the two countries and be able to recognize and render them. I am currently into my third semester of teaching this transfer type – this time I changed the structure of classes starting with a proper analysis of different text typologies in Spanish and Polish so that the students could use this knowledge in their weekly assignments.

How Does L2T Training Look?

One of the biggest challenges behind making this training possible is the way it is designed. During the first few months of my teaching experience I kept changing and redesigning it with the aim of creating a model of training that would be suitable, challenging and fair for my students. When we think about this type of training, three main questions need to be addressed.

1. Is it possible to successfully train students to translate into their second language?

   It is, but the outcome is not always the most desired one due to the fact that if we have a mixed group then our expectations cannot be uniform. We need to be flexible when it comes to our objectives.

2. What are the results, expectations and goals of such training?

   Preparing students to be capable of creating translations into a foreign language that are of high quality and are functional in a target culture. Making trainees sensitive to differences that exist between languages, cultures and text types.

3. What would be the purpose of teaching translation into a foreign language like Spanish?

   This kind of training has two main purposes. It serves as a pedagogical tool, where students have the great opportunity of improving one of the most difficult skills, i.e. writing. But primarily, it prepares them to translate into a foreign language and communicate with a foreign client.

Different Aspects of L2T Training

Even if there are elements to be found in L1 and L2 translation training alike (such as applying specific strategies and evaluating texts), we need to remember that the L2 type has its specific requirements and therefore it is challenging and rewarding at the same time. The next part of this paper will focus on important aspects of the training.

Syllabus

The syllabus of an L2T class should be geared towards motivating the students to improve their writing skills in a foreign language and challenging them with texts of higher difficulty. As we can see, it seems a demanding task to meet all these requirements in one syllabus and then translate it into classroom interaction. Therefore, this is still a syllabus under construction and there are many aspects that need to be improved.

The structure of the class is the following: students are given a weekly assignment in the form of a text that has to be translated within a period of seven days; after that period their translations are discussed in class with a proper analysis of strategies and problems; then students have to make corrections and hand their texts in. At the end of the semester, there is a final translation task that serves as the best illustration of what they learned and how much their writing in Spanish improved during the whole semester.

But there are other aspects that we have to take into account such as: exercising translation strategies, cultural and social considerations, short language exercises, evaluation and correction as well as workshops. This is a process that takes a long time and the trainer has to be extremely careful with the information and the tools their students are given.

The evaluation sessions have to be very flexible and open to all kind of opinions – on various occasions our students have interesting views and it is important to hear what they have to say. We, as trainers, cannot generalize or take things for granted. Learning about our students' problems, doubts and thoughts is a key element in successful translation training.

Moreover, there are individual sessions with each student once per month to analyze their problems, writing style, corrections. It is important to have fluent communication with them and to help and advise them during the whole academic year.

When it comes to their weekly assignments, students are given texts that come from different fields and specializations and are at different levels of difficulty, from easier and simpler texts to those that provide more challenges and a higher level of specialization.

Student's Profile

Several translation manuals tend to forget about the main element in the classroom: students. Their feedback, comments and motivation are very important aspects to be taken into account throughout our training. This is why, using my teaching experience, I drew a classification of student types you may come across in an L2T class. This classification consists of three different profiles:

- Beginner
  The beginner student has an intermediate knowledge of Spanish and very basic awareness of translation theory and strategies. Therefore, we need to pay attention to both these things in order to help the student improve and overcome difficulties. Obviously, an L2T class is not aimed to concentrate on grammar or translation theory but, whenever needed, there can be short exercises and activities in order to improve those aspects. The beginners' translations are usually poor due to the fact that their training is at a very early stage and therefore it is very easy to find terminological or phraseological problems.

- Intermediate
  The intermediate student has a very good command of Spanish but still needs to master translation strategies, and therefore is not fully aware of social or cultural mismatches. Plus, we can find some problems with how structures or phrases flow and with their naturalness.

- Advanced
  The advanced student has good target language intuition coupled with excellent writing skills and is able to create functional texts in Spanish. The student is aware of the different translation techniques and strategies.

Trainer's Profile

When it comes to the trainer we need to ask a very important question: should the trainer be a bilingual individual, an L2 native speaker, or an L1 native speaker? Overall, the best option would be having a bilingual individual who is also a translation trainer and works as a translator. These three features seem to be vital when it comes to teaching such a challenging type of translation.

Questionnaires

Each semester I asked my students to fill in questionnaires at the beginning and at the end of term. These are very helpful as they allow the trainer to find new perspectives on their teaching methods. They serve as a great source of inspiration and creativity, at the same time showing us what things we are doing right and what needs to be improved. What follows are some of the most common and interesting comments:

1. I have problems achieving fluency in written Spanish. Usually, when terminology is alright and the translation is adequate, the text does not flow in Spanish and the writing needs correcting.
2. I cannot dedicate enough time to this subject as it is facultative and I have to concentrate on the obligatory ones.
3. It is a great chance to practice Spanish, to learn new vocabulary (specialized terminology) and to improve my skills in this language.
4. I find it frustrating at times; I do not understand why there are many different options for one simple sentence.
5. It is difficult to have the intuition of a native speaker of Spanish; I wish there was a way to learn certain things by heart.

To sum up their ideas, in an L2T class we find students who on one hand feel motivated to keep improving their foreign language writing and translation skills, but on the other hand feel frustrated by difficulties and because of other factors like the scarcity of time they are able to devote to this subject.

Conclusions

This paper's main objective has been to argue that it is possible to successfully train students to translate into a second language and that it is something that should not be neglected or feared. This type of translation is necessary due to strong demands in the modern multilingual Europe that has to face diverse problems such as economic, cultural and territorial changes that affect people within its borders.

Unfortunately, there is one problem that needs urgent attention: there is a significant shortage of translators that are capable of translating into a foreign language. Whereas those who decide to do it have seldom received translation training and tend to lack the ability of creating adequate texts in a foreign language.

The best solution seems to be clear – Translation Studies departments around Europe should place a greater emphasis on translation into a foreign language. This type of training is a challenging but also rewarding one and research in the field is indispensable.

Some researchers and trainers will always see translation into a foreign language in a negative light, but I would like to conclude this paper by saying that there will never be perfect translations because even native speakers make mistakes, and as the world around changes we need to be aware that our perspectives on translation have to change, too.

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CHAPTER THIRTEEN

PROF. VICTOR KOPTILOV'S SCHOLARSHIP IN TRANSLATION DIDACTICS: ADVANCING TRANSLATION STUDIES IN THE 20TH-CENTURY UKRAINE

IRYNA ODREKHIVSKA

Introduction

> Translating is not an innate skill, it has to be learned and negotiated, both cognitively and normatively. Translating always takes place in the context of certain historical conceptions of what constitutes translation.
>
> —Theo Hermans

In the paper *Translation's representations* Theo Hermans remarks on the historical turn in contemporary Translation Studies, aimed at exploring "the ways in which translation is both practised and theorized in individual cultures" (Hermans 2002: 3). In this respect, inquiries into non-Western Translation Studies traditions have become quite topical in recent years since these explorations present a more reflective picture of the discipline with a focus on "local moments of translation" (Baer 2011: 2). Within the Ukrainian context:

> "without the history of Ukrainian literary translation there is no history of Ukrainian culture and, therefore, no history of Ukrainian nation" (Zorivchak 2005: 7).

Strikha in his monograph *Ukrains'kyi khudozhnii pereklad: Mizh literaturoiu i natsiyetvorenniam (Ukrainian Literary Translation: Between Literature and Nation-Shaping)*, the first book-length history of Ukrainian literary translation, states that even with the nation's long-held colonial status as well as the long-lasting policy of bans and restrictions on the use of the Ukrainian language promulgated by Russian imperial authorities, literary translation played a pivotal role in shaping our Ukrainian national identity, and despite ideological pressure and censorship at practically every stage of the publication process Ukrainian translators had an enormous influence on the development of Ukrainian literature and culture in general (Strikha 2006). Thus, the issue of "bringing up" masterful translators was and still is a socio-cultural demand.

Prof. Victor Koptilov*, one of the leading Ukrainian Translation Studies scholars in the 2nd part of the 20th century and a brilliant translator of French poetry and medieval romances as well as writings of German, Polish and Russian literature into Ukrainian, felt the lack of a systematic pedagogical framework for training the novices in translation. Since Prof. Koptilov was the first to present a doctoral thesis focusing on the topical theoretical problems of literary translation in Ukraine (1971), grounding his work on descriptive Translation Studies research tools through the prism of Ukrainian translated literature, the scholar was aware of the need to elaborate a basic premise in the form of a handbook for translators-to-be. Thus, he was the first to compile a full-fledged didactics-oriented textbook *Theory and Practice of Translation* (two print runs: 1982, 2003) for university students (Koptilov 1981; Koptilov 2003). Despite the fact that Ukrainian scholars lived behind the iron curtain (under the Soviet rule) with no easy access to the latest Western theories and vast literature on the topic, Prof. Koptilov laid foundations for the academic discipline of Translation Studies in Ukraine and shaped the tentative curriculum design that constitutes the canon for the majority of Ukrainian researchers in the field.

The present paper sheds light exclusively upon the materials for teaching translation as programmed by Prof. V. Koptilov. It should be noted that Prof. Koptilov spent 35 years of his teaching career (until 1985) at Kyiv National University. Today he is recognized as one of the three most prominent professors of the 20th century at the Institute of Philology of the Kyiv National University. During the 1990s Prof. Koptilov was lecturing at the National Institute of Oriental Languages and Civilizations in Paris, where he had the possibility to get acquainted with contemporaneous tendencies in the methodology of translation teaching, languages and comparative literature. Besides, in the beginning of the 1990s Prof. Koptilov was occasionally invited to Istituto di lingue e letterature dell'Europa Orientale, Universita Degli Studi di Udine in order to deliver a series of lectures entitled "The Problems of translation from and into Slavic languages". Apart from that, Prof. Koptilov was the Honorable Professor of Ukrainian Free University in Munich where in the 1990s he lectured on the polysystem of Ukrainian literature (the diachronic aspect) and culture of the Ukrainian language. At the beginning of the 21st century Koptilov returned to Ukraine and was involved in teaching Translation Studies courses at Kyiv-Mohyla Academy. Some of his teaching materials and designed programs were found in the archives of Ukrainian Free University in Munich and at Kyiv-Mohyla Academy. Most of the materials from his lectures at Kyiv National Taras Shevchenko University are included in his articles, manuals and reviews published.

Before we embark on our analysis, two issues should be mentioned. Firstly, it may be interesting to note that in the period of 1932-1933 Zerov and Kalynovych developed the course "Methodology of Translation" for students of the Kyiv Institute of People's Education (former name of Kyiv University), where they pioneered the distinction in Translation Studies between the theoretical aspect (methodology of translation, history of translation and history of Translation Studies) and the practical aspect (it should be stressed that it was done about 40 years before J. Holmes' scholarly mapping) (Shmiher 2009). Unfortunately, those materials were left unpublished due to the tragic fate of Zerov who perished in the Stalinist Gulag. Secondly, in 1929 Ukrainian scholar Oleksandr Finkel published a volume *Teoriya i praktyka perekladu (Theory and practice of translation)*, which is the first manual on translation theory published in the Soviet Union (Finkel 1929). However, this work got very little attention and Finkel's views are being re-visited only now.

Theoretical Framework for Analysis

Maria S. Pérez in her article *Applying Translation Theory in Teaching* distinguishes seven trends in Translation Studies, each with a different focus. Her survey of literature on translator training indicates that the teaching processes as well as teaching manuals are organized according to seven different vantage points which, in fact, correspond to these seven theoretical trends:

1. *A focus on units of languages* (mostly discrete units, preferably below sentence level): teaching concentrates on contrastive or comparative practices, touching upon the typographical features in the source and target language, false friends, reference markers, lexical divergences, idioms, metaphoric language and the syntactic as well as structural gaps with a stress on word order, relative clauses, passive voice and syntactic ambiguity. It is quite related to Contrastive Linguistics.

2. *A focus on the communicative nature of texts* (key notions here include text, genre and discourse): teaching is done with a conviction that different source-text types pose different challenges to translators and that the training of future translators is to be organized around text typologies.
3. *A focus on communicative aims through texts* (arranging the classes around the *Skopostheorie*): teaching takes into account two major parameters – microstructure and macrostructure – as in addition to studying semantic features and form, students are required to analyze the translational macro-textual settings in order to choose the translation strategy.
4. *A focus on the link between translation and target cultures* (considering the theoretical groundings provided by Even-Zohar 1990, Toury 1995 and Lefevere 1985): teaching concentrates on training "native translators" (not just "optimal specialists"): professionals who rely on innate qualities, such as bilingualism, interlinguistic ability and transfer capability. The process of socializing with a "foreign" culture; identifying the social norms governing translational settings become indispensable here in Toury's view.
5. *A focus on the "new translation ethics"* (based on the works by Bassnett and Lefevere 1990, Venuti 1995 and postcolonialists): a key position in teaching translation here is to raise awareness of the ideological role of translation in society that opposes any kind of homogenization and to concentrate on the social repercussions of the exchange in translation.
6. *A focus on the translator as a rational and emotional being*: translation teaching reinforces introspective studies of the "translator's mind"; there is an emphasis on translation as a process.
7. *A focus on translation corpora* (under the influence of works such as Baker 1992): it is useful for designing practical translation workshops; comparable corpora reinforce the "serendipity process" in which students looking for a solution to a specific translational problem may by chance find equivalents for other source-text terms or excerpts (Pérez 2005: 1-11).

Most teachers of translation base their individual teaching practices on one or several of the above-mentioned theoretical focuses. Eventually, students may view translation from a specific standpoint which limits their understanding of the possibilities and the ability to show flexibility of mind in the translation process. Therefore, the structure of the textbook for translation trainees should be well thought over and should sensitize students to the visibility of the translator's job. We projected the classification presented by Pérez onto the layout of Prof. Koptilov's textbook *Theory and Practice of Translation*. Having examined the work in detail one finds it noteworthy that Prof. Koptilov managed to cover all 7 of the focuses, which makes the textbook very versatile. In this sense, the author intended to introduce a large corpus of illustrative material as based on translated works from/into Ukrainian and to expose students to as many practices and specific translation strategies as possible in the framework of his textbook for Ukrainian students.

Prof. Koptilov's Textbook *Theory and Practice of Translation*: Publication History and Scope of the Study

In 1982 Prof. Koptilov submitted the manual *Theory and Practice of Translation* for publication in the publishing house VYSHCHA SHKOLA affiliated to Kyiv State University. The textbook was designed for university students of philological departments since the specialization "Translation Studies" was not set as a separate major then. It received a number of positive reviews, in particular a solid characterization in the paper *Nablyzhennya (Imminence)* by Prof. Zorivchak, a thorough overview *Schob otsinyty pereklad* (*In order to evaluate translation*) by Prof. Azhniuk and short summaries by Bogdanova and Radchenko. However, Strikha remarks that a flaw of the first edition is its formally descriptive character which cannot be considered the author's fault but should rather be ascribed to the editorial board: it double-shortened the manuscript presented for publishing. The second edition from 2003, published after 20 years (already in the epoch of independent Ukraine), restores all the missing parts of the previous publication as well as introduces new materials with explicit analysis provided.

International teaching experience enabled Prof. Koptilov to pursue his research career in a new dimension, i.e. in the spectrum of world discourses on translation, which inevitably led to the domain of translation methodology. For this reason, a paradigm shift can be noticed in the approaches presented in the second edition of his textbook *Theory and Practice of Translation* (2003). First and foremost, the author supplies the handbook with a historical note on Schleiermacher's translation theory (on the basis of his work *On the different methods of translating* from 1813), devotes attention to Savory's six principles of the art of translation as well theoretical views of Roberts, Larbaud and others. What is more, Prof.

Koptilov in the newly added chapter “Intertextuality” (absent from the 1983 edition) portrays Genette’s five types of textual interaction and adds his own speculations on this literary phenomenon. Besides, Koptilov sheds light on the pragmatics of translation taking into account Umberto Eco’s three levels of text interpretation. Secondly, the list of recommended literature at the end of the manual integrates foreign sources into the Translation Studies program: for example, the works by Berman, Mounin, Cary, Meschonnik and Steiner are suggested for further consultation, while the previous edition was mostly focused on Ukrainian and Russian specialized literature. With this observation in mind a crucial explanation should be given: there was a “non-official” rule in Soviet scholarly discourse to rely mostly on domestic sources of reference which, in fact, at that time constituted a certain “law of tendency” for Translation Studies scholars in particular.

Let us then present a concise portfolio of the two editions.

Prof. Koptilov’s approach to designing the Translation Studies program is quite evident: theory and research must underlie every aspect in the translator-training course but in a way that they help to enhance its professional relevance. Therefore, the 1982 edition had three major sections: while Section I covered the historical and conceptual background of Translation Studies with the key theoretical issues such as branches of the discipline, the types of translation, literary translation and temporal distance, the translator’s individuality, translation editing, secondary translation, original author’s translation, etc., Section II and Section III took **text typology** as a main organizing principle and highlighted 25 text types as separate chapters for study and in-depth analysis. Hence, we may observe that Prof. Koptilov took focus #2 according to the classification by Maria Pérez (a focus on the communicative nature of texts) as a departure point for the course organization. The author arrives at the conclusion that choosing text typology as a theoretical foundation for the program is quite beneficial for students as the variety of texts fully demonstrates the degree of stylistic as well as aesthetic complexity that is encountered in the translation process. The choice of text types to be presented in the frame of the program is dictated by the tendencies on the translation market. For instance, the 1982 edition includes such text types as “Onegin strophe”, “Oktava-meter poem” (typical of Pushkin’s poetry) as well as “tonic poem” (peculiar for Maiakovskiy). The 2003 edition excludes these text types since they are no longer dominant in current literary discourse and introduces the Psalms, invective poetry, ballads and a range of text types in the genre of prose (romantic, ironic, adventure, psychological, polyphonic, modernist/postmodernist narratives) as the most probable source texts.

Individual case studies and translation multiplicity are chosen by the author as key organizing means of the course in Translation Studies. For instance, the chapter "Invective poetry", described by Prof. Koptilov as poetry that contains a negative evaluation of social phenomena, is firmly based on the account of eight Ukrainian translations of the 66th Shakespeare's, so-called "tired sonnet" (the first lines: *Tir'd with all these, for restful death I cry, - As, to behold desert a beggar born, …*). Prof. Koptilov describes the task as follows:

> "Compare all translations with the original and follow (1) how the intonation of the Shakespearian sonnet is rendered in each translation, (2) if the translators succeeded in rendering the images condensed in every line, (3) whether the concluding distiches "deliver" the content of the original, (4) if the lexical and phonetic repetitions are reproduced in the translations" (Koptilov 2003: 197).

With the help of translation multiplicity such individual case studies encompass a wide spectrum of problems that occur in the translation process. The sample above mostly fits into the dimension of focus #1 in Pérez's classification (focus on the units of language in translation teaching). In light of such a practical premise Koptilov offers a term *translateme* for the unit of translation, taking into account its changing and dynamic nature. In his view, it is an atom of content that cannot be divided without ruining its content.

Thus, one can notice that Prof. Koptilov took text typology (focus #2) as a set-off principle and within its framework all other focus areas are actualized. In this respect, it stands to reason that according to Prof. Koptilov translation didactics should be primarily based both on (1) *typological theory of translation* which generalizes on the basis of translations done from different languages into one specific (in our case – Ukrainian) language "experience" and "success" of translated texts belonging to a certain literary genre in order to accentuate possible suggestions for prospective renditions as well as on (2) *literary and linguistic history of translation* (as based on case studies in Ukrainian literature). While a literary investigation of translation history provides the analysis of the influence translated works have on the national literature and social life, a linguistic study traces the development of language resources used for expressing the original's content/style/poetics contrastively with the development of resources available in the national literary language (Koptilov 1971).

Consequently, the author formulates a scheme of a *4-stage translation process* that each translator should follow in his or her work. The first stage is defined by Prof. Koptilov as a thorough analysis of the original, examination of its content, style, context and author's poetics, while the search for equivalent means of reproducing the main features of the original in the realm of the target language and literature constitutes the second stage. Prof. Koptilov states that between the original and translated texts the consciousness of the translator builds the "intermediate instance" which is the result of the first text and simultaneously the working sketch for the construction of the second. This "intermediate instance", according to Koptilov, is a scheme of the semantic-stylistic structure (further – SSS) of the text. Further on Koptilov views the SSS as an abstract model of this text with its inherent peculiarities which are to be preserved in translation. Hence, the translator in the course of his or her work relies not only on the original text, but also on the interpreted SSS scheme that makes it possible to avoid two extremes: imitation/adaptation (a rather free translation) and literal (word-for-word) translation. The third stage is singled out as contrary to the stage of analysis; it comprises synthesis into a new artistic whole, whereas the final fourth stage is the moment of analytical checking of the degree of the translation's proximity and correspondence to the original as well as the time when every scrupulous translator reevaluates his or her work. The four-stage translation process is a certain map that translation trainees must adhere to as well as a scheme of semantic-stylistic structure that may be a valuable point of orientation for them. In this respect, one of the illuminating examples given by Prof. Koptilov is as follows: in order to portray the "verbatim" of translation process for students, he took Bazhan's draft that contains five of his consecutive translated versions of Goethe's *Wanderers Nachtlied*. Koptilov comments on each decision made by the translator from different perspectives, offers insights into every change introduced to the text in later versions and provides his summary of the final translation by Bazhan. For instance, by contrasting the translations of the first lines Koptilov arrives at the following conclusion:

Original	*Version 1*	*Version 2*	*Final version*
Über allen Gipfeln	Na hirskykh vershynakh	**Lih** na vsi vershyny	Na vsi vershyny
Ist Ruh', …	**Tyshyna**.	**Supokiy**.	**Lih supokiy**.
	English word-for-word translation:		
	On mountain tops	Laid on all tops	On all tops
	Quietness.	Peace.	Laid peace.

The German ***Ruh*, **used by Goethe, presupposes both *quietness/ tranquility* and *peace/calmness*, however the imagery load in the context of the poem prioritizes the second meaning, i.e. of peace. Thus, while in the first version Bazhan chose "tyshyna" (quietness) as the most suitable equivalent, in the later editions he opted for *supokiy* (*peace*). What is more, as mentioned by Prof. Koptilov, this rendition preserved the parallel which could be treated as a verbal and imagery link between the beginning and the end of the poem (or the link between the state of nature and the state of a human): in Goethe – *Ruh* (2nd line) – ***Ruhest** du auch* (last line); in Bazhan's translation – *supokiy* (2nd line) – *Ty tezh* **spochynesh** *skoro …* (Koptilov 2003: 51-52). Such an in-depth analysis and the idea of presenting one translator performing his work are quite novel and often disregarded in other handbooks. Beyond doubt, it corresponds to the focus area #6 in Pérez's classification, since the draft analysis fosters studies of introspective character with a focus on the translator.

Similarly Prof. Koptilov approaches the description of the post-translation stage, i.e. translation editing. After a concise general note on the objectives of translation editing as well as its benefits/drawbacks within the separate chapter, Prof. Koptilov provides an example of two target variants, i.e. before submission to the editor for proofreading and after the editor's work is completed. The illustration material was chosen on the basis of Malyshko's Ukrainian translations of Heine's cycle of poems "Die Nordsee" as edited by Leonid Pervomaiskyi. Students are asked to analyze the edited version in terms of (1) changes in the system of epithets and (2) specifications brought to the meanings of certain nouns and verbs in the texture of the target text. Every student would benefit from sampling the "dialogue" between a translator and an editor in practice, since it serves as a vivid reflection of the process a translation undergoes before appearing in print.

The examples above cannot produce a representative picture of the textbook *Theory and Practice of Translation* but they reflect the methodology chosen by Prof. Koptilov.

Some of Prof. Koptilov's Training Models in Translation Didactics Re-visited

To give a more representative sample of the multi-faceted nature of the textbook *Theory and Practice of Translation* it is possible to build up a tentative **syllabus** of Prof. Koptilov's Translation Studies course from the theoretical, critical and case study elements of his textbook.

Unit 1: Focus on language units

Theoretical problems discussed: **phonetic repetitions (assonances), compositional role of repetitions, use of folklore-based phrases and hyperbole through the prism of translation**
Case study: *Roland's Song* in Ukrainian translation by V. Shchurat and in secondary translation by Bohdan Lonchyna (p. 67-71)

Theoretical problems discussed: **richness of imagery as reflected in translation**
Case study: *Madame Bovary* by G. Flaubert and the Ukrainian translation by M. Lukash (p. 105-108)

Theoretical problems discussed: **G. de Maupassant's laconic brevity as a problem in translation** (to compare the lexical and stylistic choices in rendering Charlotte's portrait)
Case study: three Ukrainian translations of the novel *Mont-Oriol* (1887) by (1) M. Shrah, (2) V. Pidmohyl'nyi and (3) V. Pidmohyl'nyj as edited by O. Fedosenko (p. 109-110)

Unit 2: Focus on the communicative nature of texts

Theoretical problems discussed: **translation of modernist/postmodernist novels** (stress on the sense emptiness of character's phrases)
Case study: excerpts from *Recreations* by Yu. Andrukhovych in the English translation by M. Pavlyshyn (p. 119-122)

Theoretical problems discussed: **translation of psychological prose** (stress on intensive and meaningful dialogues between characters)
Case study: *Daisy Miller* by H. James in the Ukrainian translation by V. Mytrofanov (p. 111-118)

Unit 3: Focus on the communicative aims of texts

Theoretical problems discussed: **identifying the function of each translation and the goals every translator strived to reach** (taking into account the texture of translation and the epoch it was made in)
Case study: the poem *Mignon* by J.-W. Goethe and the Ukrainian translations by (1) M. Rylskyi, (2) Yu. Shkrobynets, (3) P. Kulish (p. 62-65)

Theoretical problems: **translation of journalistic texts** (with a stress on the functions of this text type)
Case study: (1) a report by Yash Ghai and John Kohut *A world in transition* in the Ukrainian translation by Victor Koptilov (p. 242-245)

(2) an article by the above-mentioned authors *Ten languages die out every year* in the Ukrainian translation by Victor Koptilov (p. 247-248)

Unit 4: Focus on the links between translation and target culture
Theoretical problems discussed: **reception of four diametrically different translations by the target culture**
Case study: the poem *Erlkönig* by J.-W. Goethe in Ukrainian translations by (1) P. Kulish, (2) B. Hrinchenko, (3) D. Zahul and (4) M. Rylskyi (p. 37-44)

Unit 5: Focus on the "new translation ethics"
Theoretical problems discussed: **translation of literary works producing an ideological impetus** (with a stress on the author's aphorisms and the translation's language style)
Case study: the novel *Tsyklon* (*Cyclone*) by Oles' Honchar in the Russian translation by I. Karabutenko and I. Novoseltseva (p. 100-104)

Unit 6: Focus on a translator as a rational and emotional being
Theoretical problems discussed: **introspective studies into the translator's choices**
Case study: the drafts of M. Rylskyi's translation of A. Pushkin's masterpiece *Evgeniy Onegin* (p. 44-50)

Unit 7: Focus on translation corpora
Theoretical problems discussed**: compiling a corpus of terms** from *the Constitution of Ukraine* (Ukrainian-German)
Case study: German translation of the excerpts of *the Constitution of Ukraine* (p. 256-259)

This scheme with accompanying materials from the textbook by Koptilov should be proceeded through gradually. The theoretical insights and case studies are organized with guidance from Prof. Koptilov so that students acquire skills and competences in accordance with a set rationale.

Further discussion

There are a few aspects left undiscussed which are crucial for understanding Koptilov's role in translation didactics in Ukraine:

– In the manual "Topical problems of Ukrainian Literary Translation" Prof. Koptilov stresses the need to compile a series of comparative stylistics of two languages which, in combination with dictionaries, would contribute to translator education. This can be directed to the focus area #7 in Pérez's classification.

- The archive materials from Ukrainian Free University in Munich present a list of topics for student research prepared by Prof. Koptilov. Those topics suggest a broad vision of research in Translation Studies that the pedagogue presented in the 1990s and 2000s. For instance, the topic "Faust theme in Ukrainian literature" involves an extensive spectrum of investigation: firstly, a translational analysis of Ukrainian renderings of Goethe's *Faust* is proposed; secondly, the reception of translation in the Ukrainian literary polysystem is discussed, and then the adoption of its motifs in the discourse of Ukrainian original literature is addressed. This sort of approach to formulating the topics proposed to students accentuates focus #4 (the link between translation and target cultures) singled out in Pérez's classification. Besides, when combining the archive materials from Kyiv-Mohyla Academy it must be said that Prof. Koptilov also encouraged students' own translation practice since one of the options among the research topics was the student's own translation of a poetic piece or an excerpt of a prosaic text with his/her own commentaries on the difficulties encountered.

Conclusions

Prof. Victor Koptilov's skills as a translator were matched by his activities as a translation theorist, critic and pedagogue. His theoretical manual, articles and reviews in Ukrainian journals as well as masterful translations constitute a whole epoch in the Ukrainian school of Translation Studies. The bright example of his tremendous work *Theory and Practice of Translation* is the first Ukrainian textbook designed for university students. This volume offers a multi-sided program for teaching translation, literary translation in particular, which has been examined with reference to Pérez's classification. The report has been summarised with a tentative syllabus based on Prof. Koptilov's handbook. It presents a sample of practical tasks to be used in translation classes at Ukrainian universities as well as an outline of theories elaborated by Prof. Koptilov. The syllabus can be extended taking all publications of Prof. Koptilov into consideration. With this in mind, we may conclude that Koptilov's contribution to the Ukrainian theory of translation is indisputable. Perhaps, it is high time to reinforce studies of his works and approaches to translation training on an all-European level at least.

* Victor Koptilov (born in Kyiv in 1930 – died in Kyiv in 2009) is a well-known Ukrainian linguist, Translation Studies scholar, pedagogue and critic. His translations were honored with the Rylskyi Literary Award in 2000 for the Ukrainian translation of the Old French legend *Tristan and Isolde* as well as the Lukash Award in 2001. The scope of his translations is immense and can be measured between the time poles ranging from the epoch of Middle Ages till the modernist writings of the 20th century. He translated Anglophone poetry (W. Blake, P. B. Shelley, W. B. Yeats and E. A. Poe), poetry of German and Polish writers, but his major passion was French poetry and prose. He is the author of the first thesis in the history of Ukrainian literary translation (the epoch till 1930s), presented in 1964, and the first doctoral thesis on Translation Studies in Ukraine. For references, search for his volumes *Topical Problems of Ukrainian Literary Translation (Aktualni pytannya ukrayinskogo khudozhnoho perekladu),* published in 1971, and *Original and Translation (Pershotvir i pereklad)* which appeared in 1972.

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CHAPTER FOURTEEN

SINGLE TRANSLATION VS MULTIPLICITY OF TRANSLATIONS IN THE PROCESS OF TRANSLATOR TRAINING: UKRAINIAN CONTEXT
(VASSYL MYSSYK'S* TRANSLATION HERITAGE IN FOCUS)

NATALIYA HRYTSIV

Introduction

The methods and techniques used in the classroom are crucial in the process of translator/interpreter training. Professional competence in translation is merely being developed with the help of analytical techniques applied. Timing and quantity are of secondary importance – what really matters is an in-depth linguo-stylistic and cultural analysis. Literary translation cannot be taught; it can be directed and stimulated. The assessment of belles-lettres, of poetry in particular, is beneficial in the translator training process. Since any literary text of the belles-lettres style contains a definite emotional and stylistic message, the first step for the translator/student is to recognize this message. In recent decades there has been proliferation of training manuals and textbooks which provide exhaustive theoretical statements and practical guidance for dealing with literary translation, i.e. the questions asked by James S. Holmes (1972) about teaching methods are partially answered. Still, Larson (1998) claims that theory and practice are interdependent, thus a Translation Studies Analysis of an extract will be a useful tool for discovering the meaning of the original and shedding light upon its reproduction in translation. The analysis in this paper provides grounds for observing different translation strategies. In this case, multiple versions will provide substantial illustrative material while singular translation would limit the audience's interpretation to the translator's interpretation. Classical texts present an acute problem in this respect because an individual's store of knowledge, values and beliefs compel the translator to cognize the message one-sidedly. Thus, multiplicity is undoubtedly of advantage when the decoding of the true message is pivotal. Multiplicity is categorized into two sub-varieties: a) multiple TL versions of one ST presented by two and more translators and b) multiple translations from one translator.

Choosing the Priority

Beyond doubt, multiplicity of translations is desirable in the classroom. However, the choice of versions should be well thought over since each should bear a dominant feature: diachronically distant texts or ones which display strategy oppositions definitely win out. What is beneficial is a succession of steps to be taken in the analysis.

Working Strategy

The strategy includes instruction in two different dimensions of translation analysis: *translation as text* and *translation as culture* – consequently, *equivalence* and *adequacy* in translation are two operating terms. *Translation as text* study primarily concentrates on lexical and stylistic decisions of the translator, while *translation as culture* is broader and includes extralingual factors, i.e. ST choice, TT role in TC polysystem, TT reception as well as the epoch the translation was done in, the translator's competence and his or her belonging to a certain school of translation.

Each text has its dominant intention which is cognized differently by each recipient. Logically, a present day student, having no need to fight for freedom and lacking Soviet Regime experience, may need some additional explanation: critical thinking and analytical processing of concrete factors is a must here. Close attention to the working strategy in the process of translator training is paid by Zorivchak whose interest in the subject concentrates on translator/interpreter training in the 21st century in Ukraine. Apart from other issues, the researcher holds the view that "the students should be taught to think and to feel in the sphere of two languages, or, rather, two cultures" (Zorivchak 2002: 455).

Phase of Analysis

Bilingual students would definitely benefit from the experience of double-sided analysis. From the point of view of English-Ukrainian transfer, Robert Burns' writings and those by Taras Shevchenko prevail in the context of multiplicity. Nonetheless, multiple versions of the mother tongue text for junior students and multiple versions of the foreign language text for senior students seem methodologically grounded. As an example, let us take *John Barleycorn* by Burns. The **preparatory stage** advances arguments for the choice and provides brief translation history. Robert Burns (1759-1796), the national poet of Scotland, is often compared to Taras Shevchenko (1814-1861), the national poet of Ukraine. Although different in many respects, they protested against social and national inequality and both fought for the freedom of their peoples. Functionally alike, their heritage has never been left without attention. The first translation of *John Barleycorn* (*Ivan Yachmin*) (Burns 1874: 329) was published in Ukraine in 1874 by Vassyl Kulyk. In 1959 Mykola Lukash presented his version (*Dzhon Yachmin*) (Burns 1959: 21-23). Then, Sava Holovanivskyi's interpretation (*Dzhon Yachminnyi Kolossok*) (Burns 1979: 187) was published in 1979 and Vassyl Myssyk's translation (*Dzhon Yachne Zerno*) came out in 1932 (Burns 1932: 78-80) and in 1990 (Burns 1990: 330-331). The case study makes it possible to detect the function of each translation. Hence, the translations done at the end of the 19th century and the beginning of the 20th century are of educational value while Sava Holovanivskyi's version provides insights into free translation as a subcategory of translation.

Since Myssyk's translations were chosen for analysis in this paper, we would like to stress that he was the first to produce a collection of Robert Burns' poems in Ukrainian translation in 1932. In 1959 and 1965, enlarged and revised, two other collections were published; the two collections, however, in addition to Myssyk's also included translations by Lukash (Burns 1959). Thus, the best option for learners is to analyze translations done by both Lukash and Myssyk because a) they constitute a substantial corpus, b) the translation methods used are contrasting (domestication vs. foreignization) and c) Myssyk produced two different translations of the poem. Students should also be clearly instructed as to what is to be considered a version of translation. Although rare, plagiarism cannot be ruled out and texts of dubious authorship should not be analyzed. One such example are translations of Burns' poem *How Long And Dreary Is The Night* by Mykola Synhayivsky as "borrowed" from Lukash. The poem was first translated by Lukash with the title *Oi Dovha Nich, Smutnaya Nich* (Burns 1959: 42). In 2008 Synhayivsky substituted several words in Lukash's translation and claimed his version *Oi Dovha Nich, Nesterpna Nich* (Babiychuk 2008: 127) to be a "genuine new" translation of Burns' poem.

Phase 1 Analysis: Translation as Cultural Component

Besides educational, informative, cognitive, aesthetic, and other functions, the analyzed texts perform *nation-shaping* function, the component of translation which, according to Kochur, may "arise from the context, far from being intended by the translator" (Kochur 2008). The *nation-shaping* function may be synonymic to a protective function in that it fosters the Ukrainian language (Cherednychenko 2007). Moreover, the *nation-shaping* function is not limited to the Ukrainian culture, which is indicated by Zorivchak's research in the European context (Zorivchak 2005). The *nation-shaping* process engendered by translation activity is discussed by Strikha (2006) in his book *Ukrayinskyi khudozhniy pereklad: mizh literaturoyu i natsiyetvorenniam*/*Ukrainian Literary Translation: between Literature and Nation-shaping*. Such analyses conventionally cover the 20th century, being initiated by Franko (the end of the 19th century) and finishing at the end of the 20th century, as "the research of nation-shaping role of artistic translation in Soviet Union was strictly prohibited" (Zorivchak 2005: 498). Ideological pressure is felt concerning the translator's personality. In 1973 Lukash was stripped of membership in the Writers' Union of Ukraine and, as a result, is not even mentioned in the first book dealing with the reception of Burns' poetry in Ukraine (Nechyporuk 1973). By that time Lukash translated about 60 verses. Another translator of a tragic fate is Myssyk. In 1932 he came up with a collection of Burns' translations, Shakespeare's *Romeo and Juliet*, and Defoe's *Robinson Crusoe*. By a sad twist of fate, in 1934 he was arrested and imprisoned in a concentration camp. However, while *Robinson Crusoe* was published anonymously (frequent practice in Ukraine at that time) in 1938, *Romeo and Juliet* stayed unpublished till 1988, i.e. for 50 years.

Another vehicle for the language and culture support was the Bible. It could be argued that the phenomenon of multiplicity in Ukraine actually begins with Bible translation[1] which in Ukraine is momentous from the

[1] To specify, the first Bible translation in Ukraine was done into Church Slavonic in the 9th century by SS. Cyril and Methodius. The second version was authored by archbishop Hennadij in 1499 and the version was later the basis for Ostrih Bible. The Bible was published in 1581, republished in 1663 in Moscow, 1798 in Pochayiv (Ukraine), 1859 in Peremyshl (then the Ukrainian-Polish border city). The first part of the 19th century witnessed the birth of literary Ukrainian language in its stylistic and grammatical shape; this, in its turn, provided a stimulus for a new Bible translation. The task was performed by the writer Pylyp Morachevskyi.

viewpoint of vocabulary. Bible translation is interlaced with classical works of literature. Some translators worked with both of these in parallel and could later integrate images and motifs dealt with into their original writings – for example, Kulish translated Bible simultaneously with Shakespeare's plays (all in all, he translated 13 of them). Thus, students may draw parallels between the activities and trace the decision-making process.

Phase 2 Analysis: Translation as Text

Burns' writings are considered from two angles: as related to folklore and as classical. This generates two basic approaches to translation. In the first approach, because of the connection to folklore, translators consider it proper to produce domestic equivalents based on the Ukrainian vernacular tradition. The second approach is governed by the requirement of preserving Burns' national identity and therefore source-text orientation prevails.

Reiss (2004: 168) defines interlingual translation as a bilingual mediated process of communication whose aim is to produce a TL text that is functionally equivalent to a SL text. Basing his ballad on a Scottish national song, Burns made it a symbolic anthem of people fighting for freedom and equality, the motif being so topical for Ukrainian fighters against regime. Although functionally equivalent, the above-mentioned

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The style and the language used in translation made this Bible variant precise and accurate writing – thus, unfortunately, it stayed unpublished for 47 years.

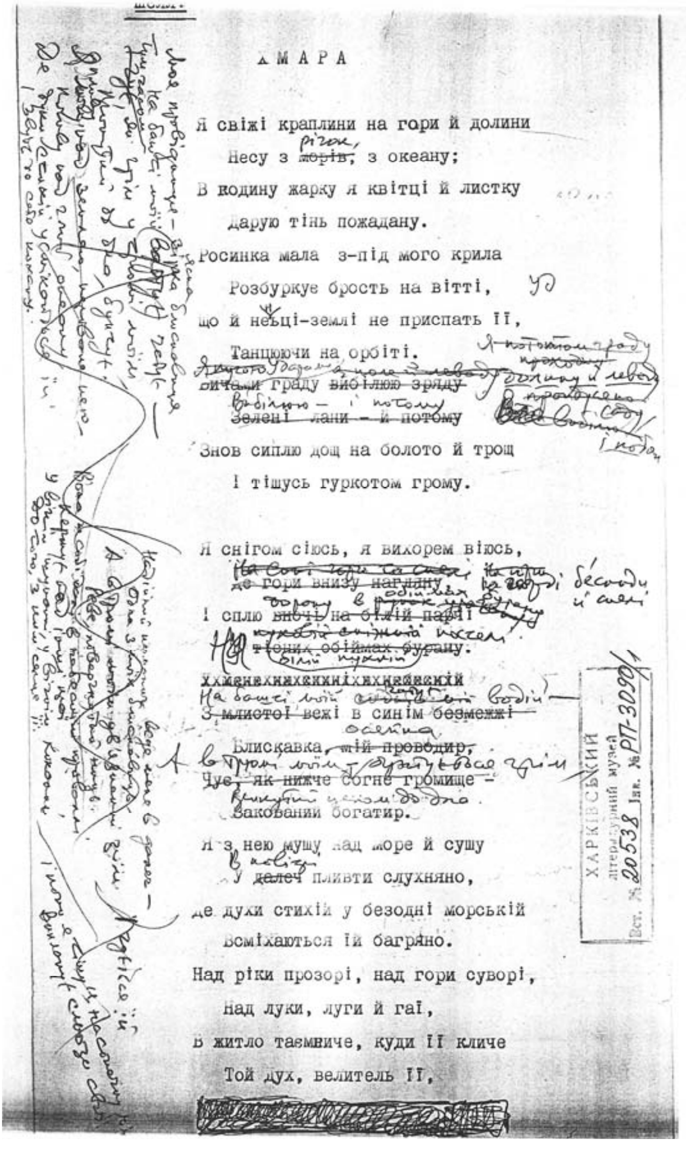
The first complete version of Bible translation was done in 1869-1872 by Panteleymon Kulish, Ivan Nechui-Levytskyi and Ivan Puliuy. The copy was destroyed in fire and they translated the Bible for the second time in 1885-1897. As the Bible was being studied and the Ukrainian language underwent substantial changes, a need appeared for the second full version, which was done by Metropolitan Ilarion Ohiyenko in 1940 and published in 1958 by British and Foreign Bible Society. The third version was produced by the priest of Greek and Catholic Church Ivan Khomenko, a resident of Rome. The translation was published not long after Ohiyenko's version in 1963. Thus, the specific feature of this translation is that the translator consulted the Massorites texts. The Bible translation evolution mentioned above proved the progress in science, culture, and literature and the growth of the spirit of Ukrainians. Because the three full versions were done when Ukraine was under the rule of other states, a modern translation was needed. The fourth version was produced by Rafail Turkoniak and published in 1997 with the support of Ukrainian Bible Society. It is worth mentioning that the Bible was widely alluded to and partially translated by the Ukrainian intelligentsia.

translations of *John Barleycorn* produced by Myssyk and Lukash clearly illustrate different techniques. The two translators worked at the same time but they were representatives of different schools. Namely, Lukash heavily supported domestication and adopted lexical items from Old Ukrainian, folklore and the vernacular – examples include *bidak* and *serdeha* (colloquial forms used to address unfortunate and poor individuals). Importantly, in his endeavours to revive vernacular elements he lost the poem's geography. It is only because of the proper name (*Dzhon*) preserved in the target text that the reader might realise it is a translation. An opposite strategy is employed by Myssyk who is source-text oriented and finishes the ballad with the line *V Shotlandiyi stariy*/*in old Scotland* which immediately alludes to Burns.

One Translator with Multiple Interpretations

It is justified to present multiple variants of one ST produced by one translator. Such a format makes it possible to trace the evolution of the translator's cognitive paradigm and demonstrates how his/her professional skills develop. The best understanding is guaranteed by involvement – the best involvement is encouragement, encouragement is demonstration and the best demonstration is the translator's rough draft which merits being represented (Figure 1).

This approach is based on observation, analysis and comprehension of the translator's cognitive processes and, as a result, explanation of his decision-making processes. This would stimulate students to look for reasons of multiplicity, one of which is the translator's constant self-improvement because rarely is the translator fully satisfied with his initial rendering. In this respect, let us consider the initial lines. The original reads: *I bring fresh showers for the thirsting flowers,/From the seas and the streams*; thus, the vessels for water are *the seas* and *the streams*. However, in the target text Myssyk first introduced *Ya svizhi kraplyny na hory y dolyny/Nesu z moriv, z okeanu* (I bring fresh drops of water to mountains and valleys from *the seas* and *the ocean*). A poet himself, Myssyk realized how such a rendering distorted the visual image and crossed out the word *moriv (seas)* replacing it with *richok (rivers)* – the lexeme partially compensates for *the streams*. In contrast, *z okeanu (from the ocean)* was left untouched to save the rhyme: *z oke**anu** – pozhad**anu** (з оке**ану** – пожад**ану**).*



ХМАРА

Я свіжі краплини на гори й долини
Несу з ~~морів~~, з океану;
В годину жарку я квітці й листку
Дарую тінь пожадану.
Росинка мала з-під мого крила
Розбуркує брость на вітті,
що й неньці-землі не приспать її,
Танцюючи на орбіті.
~~Січами граду вибілюю зряду~~
~~Зелені лани – й потому~~
Знов сиплю дощ на болото й трощ
І тішусь гуркотом грому.

Я снігом сіюсь, я вихорем віюсь,
~~де гори внизу нагляну~~
І сплю ~~вночі на білій парі~~
~~тісних обіймах бурану.~~
~~З млистої вежі в синім безмежжі~~
Блискавка, ~~мій проводир,~~
~~Чує, як нижче согне громище –~~
Закований богатир.
Я з нею мушу над море й сушу
У ~~далеч~~ пливти слухняно,
де духи стихій у безодні морській
Всміхаються їй багряно.
Над ріки прозорі, над гори суворі,
Над луки, луги й гаї,
В житло таємниче, куди її кличе
Той дух, велитель її.

ХАРКІВСЬКИЙ літературний музей
Вст. № 20538 Інв. № РП-3090

Figure 14-1. (P. B. Shelley's "Cloud" in V. Myssyk's interpretation).

Another reason in the case of Myssyk is psychological. His first practice after exile was reminiscence-based writing – which we may call “therapeutic writing” – and multiple reconsiderations of pre-exile translations of Burns, which may be considered a subconscious desire to “fix the past”.

Post Analysis Stage

The post analysis stage presupposes encouragement for further projects on the material covered. The skills obtained should be cultivated and developed, the quintessence of which may be students’ own translations. Multiple versions of a class will cover the post-editing phase with further discussion of translation quality.

(*) **Vassyl Oleksandrovych Myssyk** (1907-1983) is one of the most prolific Ukrainian poets and one of the masters of artistic translation.

Early translations – 1932-1934.
In 1932 the first collection of translated verses entitled *Robert Burns “Pisni ta Poemy”/Robert Burns “Songs and Poems”* was published. In 1934 an excerpt of the novel by *John Roderigo Dos Passos “1919”* (“Nineteen Nineteen”) was published in *‘Chervonyi Shliakh’* magazine (№ 1) with the indication *to be continued*. Unfortunately, the same year Myssyk was arrested instead of Vassyl Mynko (his neighbour) and spent five cruel years of exile in Solovky.

After exile translations – 1958-1983.
Collections:
R. Burns “Vybrane/Selected works” (1959) (translators: V. Myssyk and M. Lukash)*;*
L. Fox “Chanh iz Vietnamu/Chang from Vietnam” (1960);
O’Henry “Koroli i kapusta/Cabbages and Kings” (1962, republished in 1980);
W. Shakespeare “Timon Afinskyi/Timon of Athens” (1964); (‘*The tragedy of Romeo and Juliet*’ by William Shakespeare was published in *Prapor* in 1988, № 9-10 posthumously, though translated much earlier).
R. Burns “Vybrane/Selected works” (1965);
J. Keats “Poeziyi/Poems” (1968);
W. Whitman “Lystia travy/Leaves og Grass” (1969).
The collections of V. Myssyk’s translations are:

– *Sered soniachnoi poveni:Poeziyi, pereklady, prozovi tvory (1987)*
– *Zakhid I Skhid: Pereklady" (1990).*

The following genres are presented by Myssyk in translation: **poetry** (J. Milton, R. Burns, G. G. Byron, P. B. Shelley, J. Keats, H. Longfellow, W. Whitman, etc.), **fable** (J. Gay), **drama** (W. Shakespeare), and **prose** (O. Henry, J. Dos Passos).

Listed above are the translations done from English. Numerous translations are done from the Tadzhik and the Persian languages – namely, well-known writings by Abdurakhman Dzham, Muslikhadyn Saadi, Omar Khayam, Hafiz, Abul-Kasym Fibrdous, and others. Worth mentioning is also the collection of articles *"Zustrichi: Statti, narysy"* (1982) where Vassyl Myssyk provides biography and creativity analysis of famous writers whose works he translated. Apart from this, Vassyl Oleksandrovych left an enormous heritage of his original works, both poetic and prosaic.

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CHAPTER FIFTEEN

TEACHING TRANSLATION AND INTERPRETING AT UNIVERSITY OF ZIELONA GÓRA

AGNIESZKA KAŁUŻNA

Introduction

The act of translation can be defined as "transferring a word, text or language into another language retaining the sense" (Webster's Encyclopedic Dictionary 1988: 1049). This definition seems straightforward and easy to follow but in reality it rarely proves to be so. The difficulty lies in the complex nature of translation as the term indeed hides many factors that translators should consider before they start translating (e.g. the purpose of the text to be rendered, the readership, the intention). Additionally, when making translation decisions translators are never 100 per cent certain whether they follow in the right direction as there is not one and only binding version to be aimed at.

Perhaps due to this *freedom* in shaping a given text and more than general guidelines according to which one is to translate, teaching translation can be a challenge.

A teacher of translation may be faced with a variety of problems such as the practical character of translation nowadays. Hence, translation can be perceived as a practical skill of practitioners (e.g. the job of a certified translator). However, at university level teachers are qualified by their education to teach their students how to write academic theses on translation rather than how to become a certified translator.

Consequently, the question arises whether academic teachers should teach their students only the practical skills or whether only theoretical material should be taught, or both. Is it possible to teach a person to translate without offering any theoretical background?

In this article I try to demonstrate how I liaise with both theory and practice during my translation and interpreting classes at University of Zielona Góra.

Selected Approaches to Teaching Translation and Interpreting (Theoretical Background)

The abundance of various translation approaches (more theoretical than practical) can be overwhelming. As this is not the intention of the article to present all available translation approaches, I have decided to present just three of them by way of example – these will be further analysed within the section devoted to classroom practices.

The theoretical material to be presented to students concerns selected translation guidelines offered by Eugene A. Nida, Peter Newmark and Juliane House.

The order as well as chronology of the mentioned names and approaches are accidental. However, in the classroom environment I attempt to acquaint my students with translation theory in chronological order.

Eugene A. Nida was a prominent figure in translation studies. His contribution to translation in general is invaluable. Although he was a translator of the Bible, he also got involved in streamlining theoretical guidelines of how to translate the Bible. As it turned out, his approaches became more practical than theoretical and additionally gained their universal character since they were applicable not only to Bible translation but to translation in general. Perhaps this is the reason why Nida's views on translation are so willingly taught, especially that students seem to appreciate his practical hints, which I can observe in the classroom. In fact, translators-to-be need specific guidelines on how to translate, the majority of them has never translated before and more often than not, they do not have a clue where they should begin their translation adventure. As translation approaches are so numerous and some of them even contradictory, the decision to guide students accordingly can be a challenge.

During my subsequent meetings with students I usually follow the pattern of dedicating some part of the class to theory and the other part to practical translation exercises in which I ask my students to check the theory in practice, if possible.

When introducing Nida, I begin with presenting the way Nida understood the process of translating. Based on the book *The Theory and Practice of Translation*, I turn to Nida's definition which is as follows:

> Translating consists in reproducing in the receptor language the closest natural equivalent of the source-language message, first in terms of meaning and secondly in terms of style (Nida 1969: 12).

It takes a while for students to understand and digest this definition. We pay attention to the idea of retaining the meaning and the form, if possible. Then, I try to present Nida's process of translating graphically, where translating consists of various elements such as: *reproducing the message* (Nida 1969: 12), *equivalence* (including *natural and the closest elements*) (Nida 1969: 12), *the priority of meaning* (Nida 1969: 13), *the significance of style* (Nida 1969: 13) and *a system of priorities* (Nida 1969: 14). Those elements are examined collectively, either in pairs or in groups. I usually emphasise the difference between *the closest* and *natural equivalent*. *The natural equivalent* is understood as one that is intangible in the sense that it fits the context well and seems natural. It feels just right and it does not require any elaboration.

The closest equivalent, on the other hand, is usually a result of the translator's elaboration. It does not seem perfect but as there is not any immediate equivalent available in the target language, the translator chooses substitution or any other technique which could help him/her find the phrasing that could be acceptable in a given context. The drawback is that the reader might recognize the term to be a translated one since the closest equivalent may lack authentic and natural character of the original as it is usually the consequence of the translator's effort.

Another theoretical issue that I present to students during my classes emphasises *the priority of contextual consistency over verbal consistency* (Nida 1969: 19). First of all, I try to define the mentioned terms. *Contextual consistency* (Nida 1969: 19) is understood as the translator's approach in which he/she is inclined towards transferring the contextualised source language meaning into the target language context. The significant element of this activity is to focus on the message, not particular words. *Verbal consistency* (Nida 1969: 19) is just the opposite. The translator follows words in the source and target language as the meaning is of secondary importance.

Having explained the terms, I try to present Nida's view in this regard according to which:

> Strict verbal consistency may result in serious distortion of the meaning for two reasons:
> – each language covers all of experience with asset of verbal symbols (i.e. words);
> – each language is different from all other languages in the ways in which the sets of verbal symbols classify various elements of experience (Nida 1969: 20).

The explanation of Nida's warning is that if the translator follows mere words with no meaning in context, his/her translation may hardly be successful, and there are two reasons why it can be the case. Firstly, a given language includes experiences described by means of words. As a source culture experience can be non-existent in the target culture, there may not be words available in the target language to describe this non-existent experience. Following just words can lead the translator astray and this is where the translator should turn towards analysing the meaning rather than words.

The other reason given by Nida is that even if there are similar experiences in both languages, they may not be similar enough as languages differ and the way each language classifies a given experience can be typical of that language only.

I try to elicit students' feedback to make sure they realise that analysing the original meanings is more advisable than clinging to words in translation. They usually argue that sometimes they simply do not understand the original in the first place and this is their excuse to follow just words in translation. Then, I rush to explain that understanding is the key element of successful translation without which one can hardly translate at all.

Apparently, Nida's theoretical guidelines are considered to be quite helpful by some students, though not all of them.

Nida's notions that are perhaps more practical than theoretical concern phrases oriented towards *perception* and *conception* (Nida 1969: 21). *Perception* (Nida 1969: 21) relies on the shape and size of things and can be regarded as the lower level of language classification which is not problematic in translation. In turn *conception* (Nida 1969: 21) is understood as the way people think about objects, events and qualities, and is classified as the upper layer of language which may be problematic in translation.

The practical dimension of those two notions can be easily included in translation exercises performed by students.

Another scholar whose insights are more practical than theoretical is Peter Newmark. The topic that students usually find quite interesting are Newmark's translation methods. The spectrum of methods Newmark offers enables students to understand that there are various paths for the translator to choose from. The list of methods is the following:

1. Word-for-word translation;
2. Literal translation;
3. Faithful translation;
4. Semantic translation;
5. Adaptation;
6. Free translation;
7. Idiomatic translation method;
8. Communicative translation (Newmark 1995: 45-48).

In the classroom environment we try to discuss the mentioned methods and find differences between them. Students tend to differentiate between the methods which can be regarded as more rigid or uncompromising and those more flexible which give the translator some freedom. We exchange opinions as to when a method seems advisable or which methods focus more on the reader.

When discussing the methods, the concept of equivalent effect is briefly mentioned. Additionally, other typologies of methods are presented or students are asked to search for them as their homework.

Based on my experience, I can state that Newmark's theories are easier for students to follow than Nida's. Perhaps, Newmark's language is more digestible and straightforward.

The final theory presented to students comprises Juliane House's quality assessment and translation strategy approach. The practical dimension of her theory is about two translation strategies she singled out: *covert* and *overt* (Hatim 2001: 92). As Hatim (2001: 93) sums it up:

> Covert strategy is a mode of text transfer in which the translator seeks to produce a target text relevant for the target reader as the source text is for the source language addressee. Functional equivalence is aimed at, and anything which betrays the origin of the translated text is carefully concealed. This strategy works well with source texts which do not rely on e.g. culture, traditions, society, institutions. (…) Examples of covert translation are to be found in advertising, journalistic writing, technical material and the Bible translation.

The strategy aims at producing the second original which would not explicitly feature any elements of the original. It is where the traces of the source text are to be hidden. Obviously, cultural differences between languages could be quite problematic to handle by means of the covert translation strategy and that is why the so-called *cultural filter* (Hatim 2001: 94) can be used.

The other strategy singled out by House is the following:

> Overt translations cater for situations in which the source text is specifically directed at source culture addressees and thus can be dealt with only within the socio-cultural setting of the original. Thus so that the translation would be a 'translation' and not a 'second original'. (…) Examples: historical sermons, political speeches (Hatim 2001: 94).

The overt translation strategy emphasises the translator's work and makes it visible and present in the target language. Certain translation elements are meant to be stressed as prominent. Obviously, the overt strategy is the opposite of the covert one.

As it seems, students tend to grasp the difference between those strategies quite well and find them clear enough to be followed in translation exercises. Sometimes they compare the overt and covert strategies to Venuti's *foreignisation* and *domestication* (cf. Hatim 2001: 45) although these do not have that much in common.

The theoretical background for teaching translation is overwhelming, which is not the case with interpreting. Interpreting is seen as a practical subject and even general guidelines on how to interpret are not so well-established. Admittedly, one can find some books on conference or liaison interpreting (e.g. by Małgorzata Tryuk) but the range to choose from is not too impressive.

Due to the lack of theoretical material on how to teach interpreting, during my classes I usually focus on conference interpreting. First of all, as an introduction, students are acquainted with basic definitions of interpreting and translation and the difference between those notions. Then, modes of interpreting (e.g. simultaneous vs. consecutive) and types of interpreting (e.g. conference, liaison, escort, legal, media interpreting) are presented. Additionally, students learn about qualities an interpreter should have to be successful in the profession.

The next step is to teach them how to take notes in consecutive interpreting. Therefore, principles and symbols of note-taking are introduced. The principles, as listed by Rozan (2004: 15-22), are:

1. Noting the idea rather than the word;
2. The rules of abbreviation;
3. Links;
4. Negation;
5. Emphasis;
6. Verticality;
7. Shift.

Each principle is explained and demonstrated based on examples. Having discussed the principles, students try to use them in practice. Frequently, students share their views on interpreting theory and admit they find it quite difficult. Sometimes they question the applicability Rozan's principles, saying the resulting notes resemble a curious mathematical equation.

The situation with symbols used for taking notes in consecutive interpreting is likewise. Three sets of symbols are presented to students:

1. The symbols of Expression;
2. The symbols of Motion;
3. The symbols of Correspondence (Rozan 2004: 25-31).

In fairness, students' reactions to those symbols vary – some react negatively and some are amused to invent their own meaningful symbols. In the classroom, discussion usually revolves around applicability of the mentioned principles and symbols. My emphasis is that it is important for them to develop their own system of note-taking using the principles and symbols as a general guide and reference. Experienced interpreters have their own ways of note-taking they can rely on.

After practical consecutive interpreting exercises students usually admit they find the principles and symbols useful and agree the system facilitates note-taking.

Selected Approaches to Teaching Translation and Interpreting (Practical Background)

As has been mentioned, translation as an academic subject seems more theoretical, and interpreting – more practical. Still, in both cases the approaches to teaching are shaped individually. In Poland and abroad translation as an academic discipline is relatively new and perhaps that is the reason why didactic methods and procedures have not yet been sufficiently developed. This view is shared by a Chilean scholar Constanza Gerding-Salas who is of the following opinion:

> The discipline being so new, little has been done in terms of academic training in higher education in Chile to devise didactic methods and procedures to teach or learn how to translate.
> (http://translationjournal.net/journal/13educ.htm).

Although one knows that translation and interpreting should be taught through practice, the way this practice is executed is up to the teacher. The general impression is that teachers have not been acquainted with didactic tools and methodology to teach translation or interpreting theoretically but as they are translators/interpreters themselves, they use their own knowledge and experience.

In the classroom environment the significance of source text comprehension is emphasised. When I ask my students if they understand the text to be translated they usually claim they do, even if they do not. I believe that some students are ashamed to admit they do not follow the reasoning of a text. This is when I try to consult students individually and gauge if they understand or not.

According to Gerding-Salas, students should do reading comprehension exercises before they translate and learn how to recognize potential translation problems such as untranslatability. Her methodology of translation teaching is the following:

1. The teacher selects the material to be translated (semantic, cultural, stylistic);
2. Students browse the text and identify its various qualities (the style, readership, etc.);
3. Students should read the whole text at least twice (the second reading must be careful – reading with translation intention);
4. The teacher divides the text into segments and each student does a portion of translation;
5. Firstly, students do a preliminary translation which is followed by a second version of their own translation (a written draft);
6. Each student reads out his/her own version of the translated text which is discussed by students.
(http://translatiojournal.net/journal/13educ.htm).

It is plain to see the teacher assumes that students possess sufficient knowledge of translation theory (strategies, techniques) to be able to translate. No guidelines on how to translate are provided, though Gerding-Salas points out that certain translation criteria to be then used by teachers – such as target text coherence – should be clearly established before students' translations are checked.

The teacher's role is to facilitate students' translation task. Ideally, students should translate in a translation laboratory equipped with PCs, translation software, dictionaries, encyclopaedias, etc.

Interestingly, Massoud Azizinezhad is of the opinion that it is at least controversial to teach translation and asks if translation is teachable. This controversy derives from the fact that some people view it as a science, some other people as a craft and still others as an art. Translation contains elements of science, craft and art but cannot be understood and analysed exclusively from one angle as translation is not a mathematical equation and simply is not finite in its character. Translation can be argued to be mostly a craft and Azizinezhad believes that before this craft it taught, the teacher should make a distinction between teaching translation and teaching language:

> In order to be successful in teaching translation, instructors should be able to merge the language teaching techniques they may deem best for their students with those of teaching translation
> (http://translatiojournal.net/journal/36educ.htm).

Generally, he agrees that translation is teachable, provided the above-mentioned criteria are met. Additionally, he admits students should pay attention to translation theories while training their translation skills. Unfortunately, apart from these general views, no clear methodology on how to teach translation is discussed.

Methodology of Translation and Interpreting Classes at University of Zielona Góra

As it has been mentioned at the beginning of the article, typical translation class at University of Zielona Góra consists of two parts: theoretical and practical. Depending on the theoretical issue to be examined, practical translation exercises are selected. Below a sample of a translation class is presented:

1. Theoretical approach, e.g. The Nature of Translating by Eugene A. Nida:
   - students read relevant handouts and pay attention to the definition of translating by Nida and the difference between *the closest* and *natural equivalent* (Nida 1969: 14) or between *conception-perception* oriented phrases (Nida 1969: 19);
   - basic notions are written on the board and explained by the teacher to make sure students understand them correctly;
   - questions and discussion follow emphasising practical applicability of the mentioned theoretical terms in translation exercises.

2. Practical approach, e.g. a short paragraph of the English Bible to be translated into Polish and a brief fragment of the Polish Bible for children to be rendered into English:
   - students work in pairs and are asked to translate a part of Genesis from the English version of the Bible (one paragraph) paying particular attention to the meaning, natural and closest equivalents, the appropriate style and language, readership, etc;
   - students' work is checked verbally (some of them are asked to read out their translations and identify the relevant notions in their versions), which sometimes triggers follow-up discussion;

- students work in pairs and translate a Genesis fragment from the Polish Bible for children;
- the same procedure is used.

Let me quote the original fragment of the Bible for students to translate:

> In the beginning God created the heaven and the earth. And the earth was without form, and void; and darkness was upon the face of the deep. And the Spirit of God moved upon the face of waters. And God said, Let there be light: and there was light. And God saw the light, that it was good: and God divided the light from the darkness. And God called the light Day, and the darkness he called Night. And the evening and the morning were the first day (The Holy Bible containing the Old and New Testaments 1611: 5).

Students are allowed to use dictionaries and ask for explanation of the terms they do not understand.

As regards the interpreting class, methodology is similar with respect to the theoretical and practical parts. The portion of theoretical material is presented first, followed by practical interpreting exercises:

1. Theoretical approach, e.g. Principles of Note-taking in Consecutive Interpreting:
   - students get to know the mentioned principles written on the board;
   - the teacher explains the principles in detail based on examples;
   - students receive handouts with the theoretical material as a reference;
   - students provide their own examples to practise the principles of note-taking in consecutive interpreting.
2. Practical approach, e.g. an extract of an item on epidemics:
   - students read comprehension statements of the mentioned item and after having read them they listen to the extract and answer true/false questions;
   - students read a short passage of a text on a given topic (here: epidemics) and get to know new vocabulary items;
   - the consecutive mode of interpreting is practised in pairs – one student reads out 2-3 sentences of the passage while the other student has to take notes following the principles of note-taking in consecutive interpreting. Finally, based on his/her notes exclusively, the student is to interpret the piece of information;

– the consecutive interpreting goes both ways to make sure each student has interpreted;
– the simultaneous mode is executed – students work in groups of three or four; the person/s in the middle is the interpreter to interpret from Polish into English and vice versa; students discuss the topic of the unit (here: epidemics) while the information is interpreted in a simultaneous way in both languages;
– finally, students swap roles to make sure each student has a chance to do the interpreting exercise;
– volunteers practise simultaneous interpreting openly in class.

Examination of Questionnaires

As it seems, students are usually quite interested in the translation and interpreting class activities but in fairness there is not any precise feedback indicating if students enjoy the classes or what they would expect from the teacher. That is why I carried out a questionnaire among translation students of the 2nd and 3rd year. The choice of student translation groups is not accidental as I used to have both translation and interpreting classes with them, the translation class – for three semesters, the interpreting class – for four semesters.

The questionnaire contained the following questions to be answered by students:

1. How much have you learnt about translation theory during translation classes?
2. Are you able to use translation theory in practice?
3. How much have you learnt about translation practice?
4. Would you know how to translate texts based on translation knowledge from the translation classes?
5. Do you feel you need more practice in translation?
6. How much have you learnt about interpreting theory during interpreting classes?
7. Are you able to use interpreting theory in practice?
8. How much have you learnt about interpreting practice?
9. Would you know how to interpret speeches based on interpreting knowledge from the interpreting classes?
10. Do you feel you need more practice in interpreting?

The above-mentioned questions were accompanied by suggested multiple answers such as: “a lot”, “a little”, “little”, “yes”, “not really” and “no”.

Two questions were open with no suggestions as they were meant to encourage students to express their opinions. They were the following:

1. What else would you expect to learn during translation/interpreting classes?
2. What would you change in translation/interpreting classes?

The questionnaires were anonymous.

The findings resulting from the questionnaires were quite different for the 2nd and 3rd year students. In total, 24 students participated in the questionnaire (12 students from the 2nd year and 12 students from the 3rd year).

The results are:

2nd year students – translation group

Q1 – 11 students (a lot), 1 student (a little);
Q2 – 10 students (yes), 2 students (not really);
Q3 – 7 students (a lot), 5 students (a little);
Q4 – 7 students (yes), 5 students (a little);
Q5 – 12 students (yes);
Q6 – 7 students (a lot), 5 students (a little);
Q7 – 8 students (yes), 4 students (not really);
Q8 – 11 students (a lot), 1 students (not really);
Q9 – 8 students (yes), 4 students (a little);
Q10 – 11 students (yes), 1 student (no);
Q11 and Q12 – students usually wanted more practice than theory; they would expect more tips how to translate properly and fewer theoretical tests.

3rd year students – translation group

Q1 – 11 students (a lot), 1 student (a little);
Q2 – 11 students (yes), 1 student (not really);
Q3 – 12 students (a lot);
Q4 – 11 students (yes), 1 student (a little);
Q5 – 12 students (yes);
Q6 – 7 students (a lot), 4 students (a little); 1 student (little);
Q7 – 7 students (yes), 5 students (not really);
Q8 – 7 students (a lot), 4 students (not really); 1 student (little);
Q9 – 7 students (yes), 5 students (a little);

Q10 – 12 students (yes);
Q11 and Q12 – students usually wanted more practice than theory; they would expect more discussions on different ways of translating and translating problems as well as examples of unusual translations.

Based on the above findings, one may assume that students generally appreciate translation and interpreting classes, especially practical knowledge. The majority of students would be able to use this knowledge in practice. They totally agree they would need more training with regard to both translation and interpreting. Only one 3rd year student feels he/she has not learnt much about interpreting theory and practice.

Conclusions

Teaching both translation and interpreting at university level can be a challenge, among other reasons due to the fact that there is no homogenous view on how to teach those subjects.

Additionally, methodology of teaching the subjects is more down to the teacher who individually shapes educational tools to teach them.

On one hand, students would expect to be taught more practical tips on how to translate/interpret, and on the other hand, the teacher's role is to prepare a student to be able to write an academic thesis on translation/interpreting, which cannot be done without theoretical background.

One might agree, though, that there is a necessity to streamline a common approach to teaching translation and interpreting and offer educational tools to be used by teachers. Unquestionably, further research is needed.

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