

CHAPTER 6

A System Model for Syllabus Design

6.1 Introduction

The process of syllabus design usually includes the following aspects:

- a situation analysis or needs analysis;
- the formulation of objectives;
- the selection and structuring of learning content;
- assessment strategies; and
- evaluation of the syllabus.

The first stage, the situational analysis, is intended to find information about all the variables that may influence it (Van der Walt, 1996:74). A survey of the situation is often used to determine what needs to be included in the syllabus in order to achieve the expected outcomes. Furthermore, the designer will have to formulate objectives, decide on the content and the structuring of the syllabus, and how the work done by students will be assessed. Eventually, after the implementation of the syllabus, the stage of evaluating the syllabus would follow. For the purpose of this study, Diamond's (1989) proposed model for the development of a syllabus is discussed. The assessment strategies and the evaluation of the proposed syllabus will not be discussed in this study as the aim of this study is only to propose a syllabus for Translation Studies.

6.2 Diamond's system model for syllabus design

For the purpose of this study the system model for designing syllabi of Diamond (1989) is examined. Before designing a specific syllabus the whole curriculum which includes the specific syllabus is examined.

The model proposed by Diamond (1989) is chosen for this discussion because it gives a clear indication of all the steps that need to be taken in order to eventually construct a syllabus for a specific course. The eventual aim of this study is then, to construct a syllabus for a course in Translation Studies at university level.

Diamond's model gives a systematic approach to designing a syllabus and consists of two phases:

Phase 1: Development

In this phase all the preliminaries are dealt with. The designer starts off with project selection, that is, planning the course for a specific project. This includes all the basic planning inputs such as specifying the domain of knowledge to be dealt with, finding out what the students should already know, deciding on the level or standard which has to be set for the course and also takes into consideration the potential attitudes and priorities of the would-be students. The designer also takes the needs of the society or market-place into consideration. S/he also takes into account all relevant research that has been done in the specific domain. This can also be seen as the project generation and selection process. After the needs and the basic tenets of the planned course have been identified, the designer will look at course-specific factors such as the goals of the course, time available or needed, the resources available, both human and material resources as well as the available or needed facilities and the projected costs of the course.

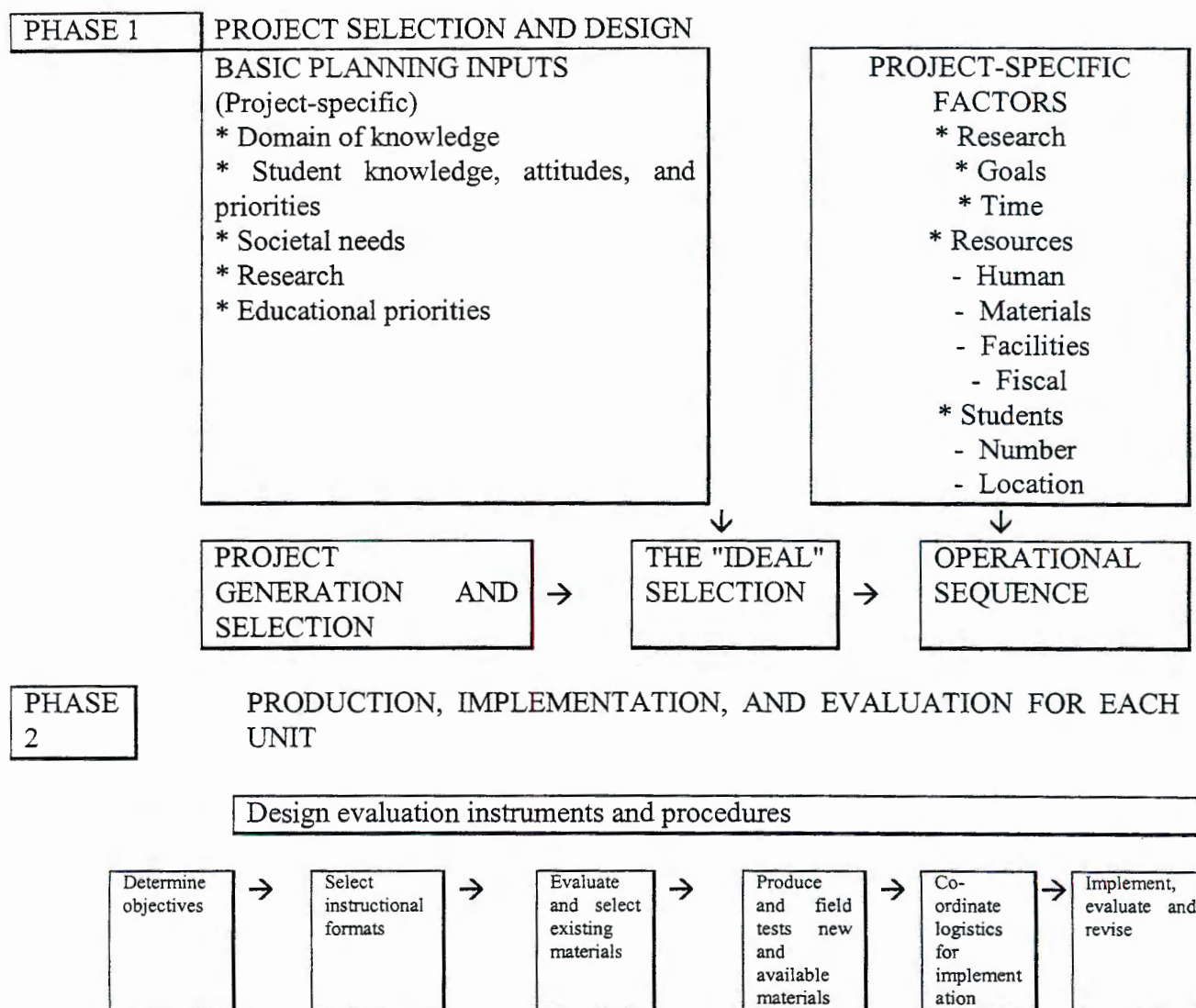
Phase 2: Production, implementation and evaluation

In the second phase, after all the preliminaries of phase one have been dealt with the designer will start designing the contents of the planned course, estimate what will be needed to present the course as well as strategies of how the units of the course will be evaluated. This phase includes the determination of objectives for the course, planning of the instructional format and content of the course, determining the availability of

resources and materials needed. In this phase the designer will also co-ordinate logistics for the implementation of the course. When the course is eventually implemented, this phase still has to continue as it also includes the evaluation of the course and necessary changes to the course which will have to be made after evaluating it.

The model can be schematically represented as follows:

Diagram 6.1: Diamond's system model for syllabus design.



(Adapted from Diamond, 1989:7).

6.2.1 The structure of the syllabus

Diamond (1989) proposes a model or system according to which a syllabus should be designed. According to this model, two phases are envisaged. Phase one describes the development of the syllabus, and phase two its implementation.

6.2.1.1 The development of the syllabus (Phase 1)

This preliminary phase of designing the syllabus includes all the basic planning inputs such as:

- specifying the domain of knowledge to be dealt with.

For the purpose of this study the domain of knowledge that has to be dealt with is that of Translation Studies. This will include an overview of the history of translation, the theoretical framework of Translation Studies, the vocabulary or jargon of Translation Studies, a discussion of themes in translation and different types of translations such as legal translation, literary translation, technical translation and language editing, etc., as well as a discussion of the qualities of the translator and the skills needed.

- finding out what the students should already know; thus deciding on the level or standard which has to be set for the course.

This is a difficult feat to accomplish, but one can state what students will be expected to know before being allowed into such a course. This will include a good knowledge of language usage (grammar) in both the source and target language or languages as well as a love of language. It will also be expected of the students that they should have a certain level of performance in skills such as reading, writing and listening.

- considering the potential attitudes and priorities of the would-be students.

The students should have a positive attitude towards languages as well as an interest in inter-cultural affairs such as reading about other cultures, their customs, etc.

- considering the needs of the society or market-place; thus a needs analysis.

The needs of the society or market-place were gained from personal conversations with members of SATI (The South African Translators' Institute) and other role-players such as lecturers in Translation Studies at other institutions and employers of translators in institutions such as the State Language Services. What the society or market-place really needs is a competent translator who has a good knowledge of the basic language usage (grammar) of the languages s/he works with as well as somebody who will be prepared to learn and who is interested in solving problems of translation.

- the relevant research that has been done in the specific domain. This could also be seen as the project generation and selection process.

The research done on the training of translators, especially within the South African context, as well as relevant research done by overseas researchers is discussed in chapter 3.

After the needs and the basic tenets of the planned course have been identified, the course designer will discuss course-specific factors such as:

- the goals of the course and outcomes to be achieved.

The goals of the project will be to train competent translators who will be able to comply with the needs of the society and the market-place and to establish a course which will fit in with the standards and requirements of a university degree. In other words, the

specific outcomes that the student should achieve, so that s/he can complete a translation task which would satisfy the needs of the society in which s/he works, must be planned.

- time available or needed.

For the purpose of this study no research will be done on the time needed to complete the course, as it has to fit in with the time allowed for a BA degree at the Potchefstroom University. Within the new outcomes-based education paradigm, qualifications are no longer time-driven but rather credit-driven

- the resources available, both human and material resources as well as the available or needed facilities.

For the purpose of this study the sources available will not be discussed as the course has to fit in with the existing available resources of the subject English in the School of Languages and Arts at the Potchefstroom University.²

- the projected costs of the project.

The cost of the project will also have to be included in the budget available for the subject English (under which Translation Studies will fall) in the School of Languages and Arts at the Potchefstroom University.

6.2.1.2 Implementation of the course (Phase 2)

In the second phase, after all the preliminaries of phase one have been dealt with, the designer would start designing the contents of the planned course (cf. section 7.3 for the proposed content of the planned course in Translation Studies) estimate what would be needed to present the course, and design strategies of how the units of the course should

² Two members of staff are available for part-time lecturing of Translation Studies. The budget for English also makes provision for library facilities and acquisitions. Existing lecturing facilities can be used.

be evaluated. This phase would include determining of the objectives of the contents of the course in order to achieve certain outcomes for the course (cf. Section 7.3, Table 7.1) planning of the instructional format and content of the course, as well as determining the availability of resources and materials needed.

When the course is eventually implemented, this phase still has to continue as it also includes the evaluation of the course and making necessary changes to the course which will have to be made after evaluating it.

The last steps are not included in this study, as the main aim of this study is to propose a course in Translation Studies to be instituted at undergraduate university level.

6.3 Conclusion

In this chapter Diamond's (1989) system model for syllabus design was discussed shortly as a background framework to the proposed syllabus in Translation Studies as set out in the following chapter. Not all the steps indicated in the system are included in this study because it is the aim of this study only to propose a course in Translation Studies. Implementation and evaluation of the course will have to be addressed in future studies.

In the next chapter a course for Translation Studies at undergraduate university level is proposed.

CHAPTER 7

A PROPOSED CORE SYLLABUS FOR TRANSLATION STUDIES

7.1 Introduction

In this chapter a syllabus for Translation Studies at undergraduate university level for the specific South African situation is proposed. The chapter gives an overview of a curriculum in which a syllabus for a course in Translation Studies should be applied, and then arranges the proposed contents of the course into study units.

The difference between the terms curriculum and syllabus are defined in chapter 5. From the content of chapter five, it can be deduced that the curriculum consists of a number of syllabi for the different subjects which make up the curriculum. The contents of the curriculum should be subjects that complement the main syllabus. In the case of a syllabus for Translation Studies, the subjects should fall within the framework of a BA curriculum for Translation Studies. All the skills that a translator should acquire to perform the tasks assigned to him/her cannot be included in a single syllabus. Complementary syllabi for the above mentioned degree would include syllabi for courses in specific languages, computer literacy, information processing, etc. as indicated in chapters 2 and 4.

7.2 The Translation Studies Curriculum

The proposed syllabus is designed for the Translation Studies course to be presented within the framework of the curriculum for the BA course at the Potchefstroomse Universiteit vir Christelike Hoër Onderwys.

According to the present regulations of the Potchefstroomse Universiteit vir Christelike Hoër Onderwys, a BA degree should consist of 24 semester courses (PU vir CHO, 1998,

B3.4.2:B29) of which the courses FIL111, FIL216/226 and INL111/121 are compulsory, leaving the student with a choice of another 21 semester courses. In a normal BA degree, the two major subjects would constitute six more semester courses each with two semester courses for each year of study per subject. Translation Studies is conceived as a two-year major subject, therefore, a student taking a BA in Translation Studies would be left with a choice of 11 more semester courses. As a translator is expected to have a sound knowledge of languages, some prerequisites are built into the curriculum. A student majoring in Translation Studies major would then have to include in his/her curriculum: four semester courses in Translation Studies, six semester courses in a language taken as a second major, plus a second language course taken up to second-year level (4 semester courses), with at least three language courses, or language-related courses such as Creative Writing, Communication Studies, at first-year level. The latter include the first year courses taken as a second major and the language course taken up to second year level. Because it is expected of the translator to be computer-literate, and Computer Literacy cannot be offered as part of the course in Translation Studies, the student taking the course will be required to take a course in Computer Literacy and Information Studies (INL111) to equip the student with the necessary skills in information retrieval. The student is then left with a choice of two semester courses which can be chosen from any of the courses offered for a BA degree. It is, however, recommended that the student take a course in Entrepreneurial Studies and/or further language courses to complement his/her course in Translation Studies.

With the new outcomes-based approach also valid for tertiary education as indicated in the Higher Education and Training band of the NQF, the proposed BA degree described above must be adapted to fit in with the specifications of the South African Qualifications Authority in order to be registered as a qualification with the NQF. Such an adapted programme for a BA in Language Practice which includes Translation Studies as one of its core modules, is described in 5.9.1. In the following section the contents of the modules in Translation Studies to be offered as part of the proposed BA degree in Language Practice are given.

7.3 A proposed syllabus for Translation Studies

Knowledge of all the skills not covered by the complementary course in the curriculum, as well as knowledge of the theoretical elements of translation, indicated in section 2.5, should be included in the syllabus for Translation Studies.

The content of the syllabus is represented in the form of units. Each unit consists of two bands. Band one contains both a theoretical and a practical section related to translation/interpreting topics. Band two contains supplementary topics which deal with language matters such as contrastive topics between specified language pairs, for example, Afrikaans/English, English/Setswana, as well as the development of specific skills needed by the Translator/Interpreter. The topic covered is stated in the theoretical section, and the specific assignments or tasks which the student must perform are given in the practical section. One period per week is dedicated to the topics in Band two while the rest of the available periods are used for the topics indicated in Band one. The time spent on Band two activities should be more remedial in nature in that the lecturer has to pick up on specific linguistic or translation problems encountered by the students during the Band one activities. Special attention should also be given to help the students with specific problems, depending on the language combination chosen by the student.

The following paragraphs give the contents of the topics in Band one. The corresponding outcomes and assessment criteria are listed in Table 7.2.

7.3.1 Unit 1

The first unit serves as an introduction. It should include an overview of the translation and interpreting (T/I) profession, definitions of what translation and interpreting is as well as a general background to familiarise the student with the scope and topic of the course and how and where it fits in with language studies.

7.3.2 Unit 2

Unit 2 deals with translation as a process and introduces students to the making of reasoned decisions which Hervey and Higgins (1992:14) term **strategic decisions** and **decisions of detail**. Strategic decisions are the decisions a translator makes before actually starting the translation, such as the linguistic characteristics of the text, the principal effects, the genre it belongs to and the audience it is aimed at. The decisions of detail are made in the light of the strategic decisions taken and concern the specific problems of grammar, lexis, etc. found in the text. The unit deals with intra-lingual translation which implies the rephrasing of a text in the same language and inter-semiotic translation which implies the translation from a non-linguistic communication to a linguistic one. Both these types of translation imply that the translator uses the skills of comprehension and interpreting in translating the source text. The unit deals with what Hervey and Higgins (1992:17) call a **gist translation**, where the translation expresses only the gist of the original text, and an **exegetic translation** where the target text is more wordy than the source text, explaining it and elaborating on it.

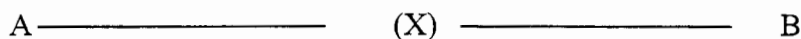
A translation can certainly be done in different ways, from different points of view and then, of course, also with different degrees of success. Therefore, different processes of translation should be investigated.

Regarding translation processes, Newmark (1988) states that there are no absolutes, no cast-iron rules. According to Newmark (1988), translation is for discussion. He distinguishes two processes namely, "(1) you start translating sentence by sentence, for say the first paragraph or chapter ... then review the position and read the rest of the SL text; (2) you read the whole texts two or three times, and find the intention, register, tone, mark the difficult words and passages and start translating them when you have taken your bearings" (Newmark, 1988:21). In the following paragraphs Nida and Taber's (1982) processes of universal transfer, analysing, restructuring and transferring are discussed in more detail.

7.3.2.1 Universal transfer

The process of universal transfer basically entails a set of rules strictly adhered to, which transfer all the possible structures (items or combinations of items) of the source language to a universal neutral structure. The latter can be a man-made language or ordinary natural language, representing a level on which comparisons between the source language and the target language can be made. This level of comparison can be constructed from any theoretical point of view and is only “neutral” within the realm of the specific comparison. The term neutral in this sense should be interpreted as comparable. This neutral structure is then transferred into the structure of the target language. The system then works with discernible surface structures and can be presented schematically in the following way (cf. Diagram 7.1):

Diagram 7.1: The process of universal transfer



Nida and Taber (1982:33).

Nida and Taber (1982) also suggest a more comprehensive system, a system which includes analysing, restructuring and transferring elements from the source language to the target language. Nida and Taber's system is discussed in the following paragraphs.

7.3.2.2 Analysing, transferring and restructuring

The system of analysing, restructuring and transferring consists of three basic steps.

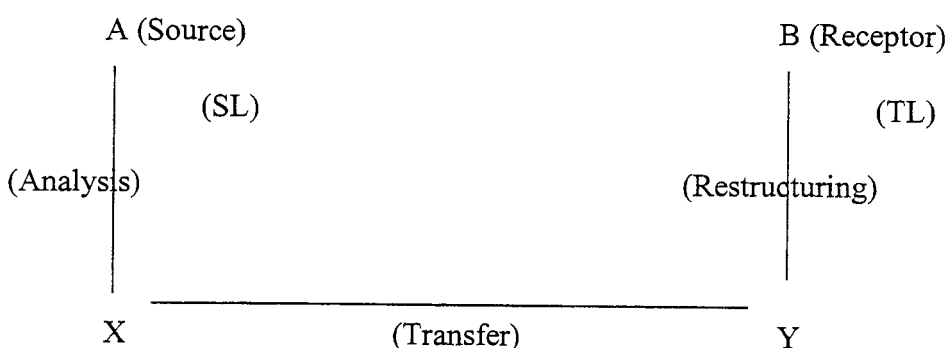
- (i) An **analysis** of the surface structure (the message as in the source language) in terms of:
 - a) the grammatical relations/ proportions.
 - b) The meanings of words and word groups.

The analysis need not be a linguistic analysis only but could also be an analysis of specific characteristics. For example, the elements or markers of focalisation in narrative texts, which will of course include an analysis of the language in which it is presented.

- (i) **Transfer** of the source language to the target language in the mind of the translator, and
- (ii) **restructuring**, where the transferred material is restructured in the form of the target language, keeping in mind the way in which the target language is used by its speakers.

Schematically, this three-level system can be presented as follows (cf. Diagram 7.2):

Diagram 7.2: The system of analysing, restructuring and transferring



Nida and Taber (1982:33).

7.3.2.3 Analysis

There are three main steps of analysis within Nida and Taber's (1982:33) linguistically oriented approach, namely:

- 1 Determining meaningful relations between words and word groups.
- 2 Determining the referential meaning of words and word groups (e.g. idioms).

- 3 Determining the connotative meaning, in other words, the relation of the language users towards the words and word groups.

When speaking of meaning one usually thinks of words and idioms, but not of the grammar. Grammar is usually experienced as a set of rules, but, as illustrated in the following examples, the simple movement of a word in the sentence may change the meaning of the sentence:

The woman cares for the family.

The family cares for the woman (Brower, 1959:231).

In the two sentences above, exchanging the words **woman** and **family** has changed the meaning of the sentences regarding the acting person and the so-called aim of the sentence. Another example is one in which two different sentences are constructed with the same words as elements but with different grammatical constructions, as can be seen in the following Afrikaans sentences:

1 Hy het onskuldig gepleit. (He pleaded 'not guilty')

2 Onskuldig het hy gepleit. (Guiltlessly he pleaded)

Another characteristic of grammar is that there can be different meanings in the same grammatical construction. An example of this would be the subjective and objective genitive construction in Latin:

amor matris

As subject of the genitive, it means the love which a mother feels for her children. As object of the genitive it means the love for the mother - the feeling her children have for her. Nida and Taber (1982), distinguish between a phrase and the implied relation within the phrase. For example:

<i>amor matris</i> (subjective)	a mother loves.
<i>amor matris</i> (objective)	a mother is loved.

After the source text has been analysed, all the semantic relationships are represented in an abstract form easy to transfer to the target language because it only distinguishes the basic contents of the source text sentences. Nida and Taber (1982) refer to these intermediate structures as kernel sentences.

7.3.2.4 Kernel sentences

According to Nida and Taber (1982:35), “the same grammatical construction may present different relationships, and thus be said to have many different meanings”. Nida and Taber (1982:37) refer to the terms **object**, **event**, **abstract** and **relationship** which can explain the different meanings of a sentence because they refer to basic semantic categories in contrast to the more familiar forms such as noun, verb, adjective , etc. which refer to grammatical classes:

- (1) **Object** refers to those semantic classes designating things or entities which normally participate in events, e.g. house, dog, man, ...
- (2) **Event** is the semantic class which designates actions, processes, happenings, e.g. run, jump, kill, speak, ...
- (3) **Abstract** refers to the semantic class of expressions which have as their only referents the qualities, quantities, and degrees of objects, events, and other abstracts. For example, red is nothing in and of itself; it is only a quality inherent in certain objects, e.g. red hat, red binding, ...
- (4) **Relations** are the expressions of the meaningful connections between the other kinds of terms (Nida & Taber, 1982:37-38).

The terms *Object*, *Event*, *Abstract* and *Relations* are then the basic structural elements used in language to build its elaborate surface structures.

After the words of the source language have been classified under these four semantic elements/terms, the translator can then reformulate the structures to do away with ambiguities. These reformulated structures are then the kernel sentences.

After the source language text has been analysed into its kernel sentences, these kernel sentences are transferred to kernel sentences of the target language. What the translator actually does is to change the surface structures of the source language back to its deep structures, to the underlying kernel sentences (Nida & Taber, 1982:39), through a process called back-transformation. Because the translator works with universals at the level of the kernel structures there is a much greater correspondence between languages.

The next step is to translate the kernel sentences, that is the deep structure of the sentence into the target language, thus maintaining the meaning of the source text. The translated kernel sentences are then restructured to a more-or-less surface structure after which the translator will have to adjust them to the correct style of the target language.

One can, therefore, identify five basic steps which would have to be taken to translate a text, and they are:

- 1 Identify the basic structural elements namely, object, event, abstract and relations.
- 2 Explicitly name the implied elements needed to complete the kernel sentences.
- 3 Establish the basic kernel sentences which have to be put together to form the surface structure of the sentence.
- 4 Establish the relations between the kernel sentences and group them together.
- 5 Restructure into a near surface level (a level which can easily be transferred to the target language (Nida & Taber, 1982:52).

Although there can be numerous types of combinations of elements the following are the most frequent in English.

- 1 O-E (the object element performs the event): the teacher, the person who teaches.

- 2 E-O (the object element is the goal of the event): trust.
- 3 E-A (the abstract qualifies the implied goal of the event): sanctify, (to make holy), justify (declare innocent).
- 4 O-E-A (the object element performs an event to an implicit goal which acquires a particular quality): sanctifier, justifier.
- 5 E-R (an event with an implied relationship): mediate, reconcile.
(Nida & Taber, 1982:43).

The use of kernel sentences in a translation is “one of the most effective ways to determine the underlying relationships between the elements in a phrase” (Nida & Taber, 1982:43). The kernel sentences which lie beneath the surface structure of the sentence are determined by the process of back-transformation which transforms the meaning of the source language, as established by the kernel sentences from the surface structure of the source text, back to the surface structure of the target language.

The use of idioms and compounds, however, poses some difficulties because the elements or constituent word parts of an idiom or compound do not necessarily reflect the meanings of the individual words. Nida and Taber (1982:57-65) suggest that idioms and compounds should be interpreted as semantic units. The single meaning of the semantic unit can then be classified according to the four elements.

7.3.2.5 Transfer

According to Nida and Taber (1982:99), this aspect of the translation process which is the “crucial and focal point of the translation process ... takes place in someone’s brain, and the translator is the person in whose brain the actual transfer takes place”. The result of the first aspect, the process of analysis into kernel sentences, is now transferred from the source language to the target language.

Nida and Taber (1982:104-119) distinguish definite phases in the process of transfer, but emphasise that the stages are not sequential. The translator should already anticipate in his/her analysis of the text how a specific element will be transferred in the

reconstruction. Therefore, “the translator will constantly swing back and forth between the analytical and the restructuring processes by way of the transfer” (1982:104). In the process of transfer adjustments will necessarily have to be made, both on structural and semantic levels.

As far as semantic adjustment is concerned, the translator must distinguish between form and content. Because “the content is the conceptual intent of the message, together with the connotative values the source wishes to communicate; it is what the message is about” (Nida & Taber, 1982:105). The intent of the message is, therefore, more important than the form. Regarding the transfer of the content, Nida and Taber (1982:105-112) mention eight problem areas:

- 1 Idioms.
- 2 Figurative meaning of individual words.
- 3 Shifts in central components of meaning.
- 4 Generic and specific meaning.
- 5 Pleonastic expressions.
- 6 Formulas.
- 7 Redistribution of semantic components.
- 8 Provision of contextual conditioning.

Structural adjustments are done where possible, but should be abandoned when they result in unintelligibility or confusion. Structural adjustments relate to the following:

- 1 Discourse.
- 2 Sentence structure.
- 1 Word structure, and
- 2 Corresponding sounds (Nida & Taber, 1982:112-119).

According to Nida and Taber (1982:118-119), the priorities of the translator in the process of transfer are:

- 1 The content of the message must be transferred at all costs. The reference and concept of the message must be retained.
- 2 The connotative and emotive elements of the message must be transferred as accurately as possible.
- 3 After the translator has satisfied him/herself that s/he has complied with the two priorities named above, s/he may attempt to retain something of the original form. The form should, however, never enjoy priority.

7.3.2.6 Restructuring

Restructuring is formulating the message in the target language after the completion of the previous two processes. It is the result of analysis and transfer. Nida and Taber (1982:120) suggest that restructuring should be considered from three perspectives, namely:

- 1 The varieties of language or of styles which may be desirable.

The problems involved in the diverse variety of languages differ greatly depending of the literary status of the language in question. Therefore, at least three different types of situations should be considered, namely:

- a) The level of languages for societies with a literary tradition.
- b) The level of languages for societies with a restricted literary tradition.
- c) The level of languages for societies in which the language is only now being reduced to writing.

- 2 The essential components and characteristics of these styles, and
- 3 The techniques which may be employed in producing the type of style desired.

Each of the above-mentioned variants will set different demands for translation because of the language situation within the relevant community. To complicate this even more, there are different dimensions of variation within each language, and they are:

- Definite differences between oral and written texts. Written texts are usually more complex than oral texts, and furthermore, it is seen as more important than oral texts because written texts reach a larger audience and it is also more permanent in nature. More time is spent when writing a message, and the writer also has a better chance to make corrections and, therefore, s/he assumes a greater deal of responsibility for that piece of communication.
- Because the form of language is evaluated in terms of the readers, the sociological aspects of variation are also important. According to Van der Merwe (1958:158), factors which influence this variation are age, sex, level of education and literacy, occupation, social standing and religion.
- A third dimension is the so-called situational level of language. This refers to the occasion and situation in which language is used as well as the relationship between speakers. For example, the language used in a paper on say physics, will be technical and formal, while the same referent will use a much easier and more informal variety of language when socialising with other conference goers at a cocktail party after the day's events.
- Geographical dialects pose another problem area. According to Nida and Taber (1982:129-130), the problem of geographical dialects is extremely complicated and, therefore, cannot be discussed in passing. They distinguish between lexical and structural (grammatical) aspects on the one hand, and cultural aspects on the other, of which cultural aspects are seen as more important.

A further point of importance is the different types of discourse. Nida and Taber (1982:131-133) distinguish between the language of prose and the language of poetics. The language of prose consists of narrative, description and arguments, while poetic language is used in poetry, songs, epigrams, etc., and its diversity lies in the use of sound (rhyme, alliteration, rhythm, intonation), morphology and syntax, lexicon and semantics. However, languages do not only differ in discourse types, but also in the function thereof. For example, the classical epoch's function was to uplift the nation according to the example of the great and mighty deeds of a heroic figure (cf. Section 2.6 on the types and functions of languages).

The last aspect of restructuring entails the design of an efficient style for the translation. In order to come up with a fitting style, the translator must be creative, have a writer's inventiveness and should at least be sympathetic towards the message s/he has to convey. Nida and Taber (1982:145) explain the features of style and distinguish between two categories:

- a) components of style which serve to increase efficiency, and
- b) components of style designed for special effects, such as those which increase impact, enhance interest or embellish the form of the message.

These components of style are classified as formal and lexical. The formal components deal with word order, while lexical components are words or idioms. Nida and Taber (1982:146) explain this by using the following diagram (cf. Diagram 7.3).

Diagram 7.3: The four basic feature-function classes

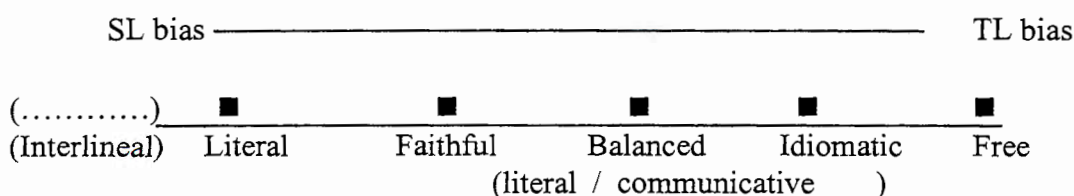
	Formal	Lexical
Efficiency	A	C
Special effects	B	D

A represents the formal features, designed primarily for the sake of efficiency, which facilitate the decoding. B represents the formal features which bring about the special effects. C represents the lexical features most effective in facilitating comprehension. D represents the lexical features which provide the special effects. A good style will consist of the correct combination of these features. How the combination is composed will depend on who the receptors of the translation are and on which level the language is used.

7.3.3 Unit 3

In this unit translation is viewed as a product, opposed to unit one where translation is viewed as a process. The differences between a Source Language (SL) biased translation and a Target Language (TL) biased translation are explained with a completely free translation at the extreme end of a SL biased translation where there is only a global correspondence between the Source Text (ST) and the Target Text (TT). Communicative translation is at the other end of the scale, where the TT uses a TL expression standard with an equivalent target culture situation as opposed to the ST which uses a SL expression, thus conveying the meaning of the expression but not the form. The ideal translation would fall somewhere between the two extreme points on a scale that can be schematised and is presented in Diagram 7.4.

Diagram 7.4: Polarities of extreme TL and SL bias



(Adapted from Newmark, 1982:39).

The term equivalence or equivalent effect is discussed showing that the term has many shortcomings if it proposes to have the same effect on the target text audience as it had on the source text audience, because it would be very difficult to know whether sameness of effect has been established for various reasons. The aim of the translator should rather be to minimise dissimilarities as far as possible between things and cultures that are understood to be different. The omission or addition of facts in a translation is also discussed. The translator's aim should be to strive to reduce translation loss, to minimise difference rather than to maximise sameness.

For the practical component, students are assigned a task to translate a text and then to discuss and explain decisions made to minimise translation loss. The students are also assigned a translation which has to be shorter than the original and has to be completed within a given time so as to familiarise the student with working under pressure.

7.3.4 Unit 4

Unit 4 should include a general overview of the history of T/I in order to help the student to orient him/herself within the context of the subject.

7.3.5 Unit 5

In Unit 5 the **communication process** is discussed. In spite of the different forms of equivalence and types of translation, the translator also has to bear in mind that s/he is busy with an act of communication when translating a text. S/he also works with different types of texts in specific languages which also display different functions and convey different types of information. Nida and Taber (1982) also emphasise the fact that "translating always involves communication".

Dussé (1995:38-39) gives an adapted version of a diagram by Van den Broeck and Lefevere (1979:38) to show where the different elements of the communication event fit in and how they relate to the different language functions:

WORLD OF EXPERIENCE

Subject

On

Sender

Message

Receptor

Channel

With the use of a

CODE

Functions of language usage

Expressive

Referential

Metalingual

Phatic

Aesthetic

Vocative

According to Jakobson (1960:26) and Van den Broeck and Lefevere (1979:38), any act of communication occurs within a **context** in which a **sender** conveys a message by means of a certain **code** through a specific **channel** to a **receptor**.

The **context** “is the total environmental setting in which the message (text) is realised and includes aspects such as the natural (geographical), sociological (interpersonal), technological (scientific) and conceptual (human values)”.

The **sender** “is the producer (author) of the message (text) ...He is responsible for encoding, as he chooses the content and form according to the particular function (or complex of functions) that he wants to accomplish”.

The **code** “is the total spectrum of linguistic signs together with their various possible rules and patterns of combination (Language system)”.

The **channel** “is the way in which the message (text) is sent and received (understood). Writing, for example, is a medium based on the visual channel of communication”. Spoken communication is based on the oral channel of communication.

The **receptor** “is the recipient (reader) of the message (text). ... he decodes the message (text) and responds according to his interpretation of its meaning”.

7.3.6 Unit 6

In Unit 6 a linguistic background to translation is presented, including sociolinguistic topics such as dialect, sociolect, and register. In this unit the language varieties found in the text and the problems encountered in translating these varieties are discussed. The following terms are also discussed: **dialect**, which refers to the regional use of a specific variety of the language, **sociolect**, which reveals the social class or standing of the language user, and **code-switching**, which refers to the use of different dialectal or sociolectal variations or even the use of different languages in the same context by a speaker.

For the practical session, students have to watch a video recording of a television interview with some dialectal, sociolectal and code-switching techniques used in the interview. The students are then given a transcript of the text which they have to translate, and identify and discuss the dialectal and sociolectal features in the text.

The term **register** is discussed and the difference between social register and sociolect are explained. Sociolect refers to the style of language usage through which the speaker can be stereotyped because of his/her specific speaking register or style. Tonal register refers to the tone that the speaker/writer uses which could be vulgar, familiar, polite, formal or pompous.

The students are given a text to translate in which they have to identify and discuss the salient features of language variety with special attention to social and tonal register.

7.3.7 Unit 7

Unit 7 deals with the formal properties of the texts, linking translation and grammar, covering the intertextual, the discourse level and the sentential level as well as the grammatical and lexical properties of the text.

The intertextual level shows that no text exists in isolation and that it should be studied in connection with other texts to which it might refer, or to other texts which belong to the same genre. The aspect of intertextuality has to be borne in mind, because there are texts that can only be fully appreciated if one is aware that they use the device of imitating other texts or genres.

The discourse level looks at the structure of the text considering the features in the text that distinguish a cohesive and coherent textual flow from a random sequence of unrelated sentences, and by looking at the markers in the text which fill in discourse connectives such as anaphora. It considers the cogency of the text, the degree to which the sentences of the text hang together to form a unit. Special attention is placed on cohesion and coherence, two of the principles of textuality indicating that different languages use these markers of cogency differently.

The sentential level looks at the structure of the sentence as a linguistic unit that is complete, self-contained and a ready-made unit which acts as a vehicle of communication. The difference between sentences in spoken and written texts are discussed with reference to features such as intonation, sequential focus and illocutionary particles which mark sentences for communicative purposes.

This unit also focuses on the grammatical and lexical issues in the texts that play a role in

translation. These aspects include grammatical agreement, word order, congruency rules of the languages and the different ways of word formation in so far as they can contribute to translation loss and how the translator should deal with these problems. The words used in the languages are also examined because an exact synonymy between SL and TL is the exception rather than the rule. The choice of words in translation can also lead to translation loss.

Furthermore, the unit examines the prosodic and phonic/graphic problems in translation. Hervey and Higgins (1992:68) state that: "On the prosodic level, utterances count as 'metrically' structured stretches, within which syllables have varying degree of prominence according to accent, stress and emphasis, varying melodic qualities in terms of pitch modulation, and varying qualities of rhythm, length and tempo. Groups of syllables may, on this level, form contrastive prosodic patterns, ... or recurrent ones, or both." These prosodic patterns refer to texts intended to be read aloud, and may not have any textual importance in texts not intended to be read aloud.

On the phonic/graphic level the sequence of sound-segments (in spoken texts) and the sequence of letters (in written texts) are considered. This level is of importance in the translation of onomatopoeia and the transcription of names.

7.3.8 Unit 8

Unit 8 deals with the problems encountered in translation regarding the meaning of the text and how it should be applied. In this unit the difficulty of rendering exact meaning (both literal and connotative) in translation is discussed.

Dictionary entries do not always give exact equivalents for certain words. To convey the literal meaning from the ST to the TT implies that certain strategies have to be followed. Synonymy and hyperonymy-hyponymy are discussed. There are very few fully synonymous words. The quality of the partial overlapping of meaning is indicated by

hyponymy. A wider range of overlapping elements of the meaning of an utterance are hyponyms. Where a narrower range of overlapping is presented, the nearest equivalent term or utterance in the TL should be used. This also means that some translation loss will occur. The terms “particularised” and “generalised translations” are also discussed. In particularised translations more particulars are brought over to the TT while generalised translations omit some particulars of the original meaning but still carry over the common elements of meaning between the two languages. This then leads to a partially overlapping translation where the most important elements of the literal meaning are conveyed from the ST to the TT. The discussion is followed by practical exercises where students have to discuss the loss of meaning due to the particularisation or generalisation of the meaning in the translation of specific texts.

Hervey and Higgins (1992:102) state that “the meaning of a text comprises a number of different layers: referential content, emotional colouring, cultural associations, social and personal connotations, and so on”. Associations which, over and above the literal meaning of an expression, form part of its overall meaning are discussed as connotative meanings of the expression. A number of connotative meanings are discussed in this unit: They are:

- attitudinal meaning which refers to the attitude of the referent,
- associative meaning which refers to stereotypical expectations rightly or wrongly associated with the referent of the expression,
- affective meaning which refers to an emotive effect worked on the addressee by the choice of the expression,
- reflected meaning which refers to the meaning given to an expression over and above its literal meaning by the fact that its form is reminiscent of the completely different meaning of a homonymic or near-homonymic expression,
- collocative meaning which refers to meaning given to a phrase over and above its literal meaning by the meaning of some other expression with which it collocates to form a commonly-used phrase, and
- allusive meaning which refers to the evocation of some associated saying or

quotation in such a way that the meaning of that saying or quotation becomes part of the overall meaning of the expression.

In the practical session the students are required to group and discuss the different types of connotative meanings found in a given text.

7.3.9 Unit 9

Unit 9 deals with language functions and text types. See also modes and types of translation in section 2.5.

7.3.9.1 Text types and language functions

The translator will encounter different types of texts which serve different functions and each have different demands. The translator should be able to identify the type of text in order to make informed decisions as to how to deal with the specific text. Texts can broadly be divided into three text types, i.e:

- **Expressive** or artistic texts such as literary texts or personal correspondence, texts in which *how* the message is structured is of importance.
- **Informative** texts through which information is conveyed, texts such as textbooks or company reports. In these types of texts *what* is said is of importance.
- **Appellative** texts, such as advertisements or propaganda brochures where the author(s) appeals to the reader in order to convert him/her to the author's point of view, or texts in which the author appeals to the interest of the reader. In these types of texts both *what* is said and *how* it is said is of importance.

Table 2.2 in chapter 2 gives a schematic overview of the different text and information types and language functions, including some examples of text types.

7.3.9.2 Language functions

The following paragraphs explain what the different language functions entail.

7.3.9.2.1 The expressive function

This function is used to express the feelings and intentions of the author irrespective of any response. The emphasis is on the writer (source, producer) and his mind, opinions, values and attitudes (Dussé, 1995:50).

7.3.9.2.2 The informative (referential) function

This can be regarded as the most neutral function and its focus is to express the subject matter (facts) of the message (text). It is thus concerned with the content itself. Purely informative utterances are of a designative (denotative) nature and are usually marked by the absence of emotive, aesthetic or other interpersonal features (Dussé, 1995:50).

7.3.9.2.3 The appellative (vocative) function

This function is to call upon a readership to act, think, feel or react in a way intended by the text. The emphasis is consequently on the reader (receptor) with the aim to influence or affect him (Dussé, 1995:50).

7.3.9.2.4 The aesthetic (poetic) function

It focuses upon the form of the message (text), primarily on the micro level. This function is realised by a variety of literary devices and stylistic techniques and according to Wendland (1985:25), it usually heightens the effect of another function - predominantly the informative, expressive and vocative. Newmark (1988:42) suggests that language pleasing the senses is aesthetic in function and identifies sound and the

metaphors of a language as the two major elements that please the senses. Van den Broeck and Lefevere (1979:37) add that when language is used in a way to serve the artistic features of a message (text), the aesthetic function is realised. It follows that the focus is upon the **form** of linguistic expression primarily on the micro level (Dussé, 1995:51).

7.3.9.2.5 The phatic (relational) function

The purpose of this function is to keep open the channel of communication so that friendly contact can be maintained with the receptor. Newmark (1988:43) asserts that: "In written language phaticism attempt to win the credulity of the reader". Both Newmark (1988:43) and Reiss (1981:125) agree that the phatic (relational) function is usually involved in only part of the text (message).

7.3.9.2.6 The metalingual (definitional) function

Dussé (1995:51) states that the metalingual function "focuses upon the code of the signs underlying the communication process. This normally involves a clarification or explanation with regard to word or phrase. It is also the ability of a language to explain, name and criticize its own features". Wendland (1985:26) states that the definitional (metalingual) function deals with material that is largely designative (denotative) in nature and, therefore, has a similar emphasis as the informative (referential) function.

Various translation theorists have made their own classifications that partly agree and differ from the classification of text types or types of translations above. Nida (1976), for example, distinguishes between philological, linguistic and sociolinguistic translations. Newmark (1982) distinguishes between only two types, namely, semantic and communicative translations.

Brislin (1976:4) emphasises the fact that translations can seldom be classified as only one

type. This fact helps the translator to formulate his/her aims or objectives clearly for a specific translation, because compromises will have to be made with regard to the specific aspects of equivalence the translator wishes to establish.

7.3.10 Unit 10

Unit 10 investigates the different textual genres which can be divided into oral and written genres, as well as the cross-over between the two. In this unit more emphasis is placed on the written genre, while the spoken genre is discussed in Unit 20 where the types of interpreting are discussed.

The written genres discussed are: literary/fictional, theological/religious, theoretical/philosophical, empirical/descriptive and persuasive/prescriptive. Although many sub-genres can be distinguished, these main genres are based on the subject matter or the author's attitude to the treatment of the subject matter. According to Hervey and Higgins (1992:141): "The difference in approach to subject matter entail fundamental differences in the way a text is formally constructed", therefore, linguistic and stylistic expectations are, in general, different for different genre-categories. The translator's sense of genre distinctions enables him/her to set clearly formulated targets when translating a text.

The crossover between oral and written texts is particularly relevant to the translation of poems, dramas, and stage plays where informal conversation and aspects of register, dialect, slang, etc. come into play. Translating such a text should be seen as a kind of cultural transposition. The fact that such texts are sometimes under strict constraints of time and space is also important to the translator. Although drama texts, librettos of songs and lyrics are in the written form they are supposed to be spoken orally which poses some difficulties for the translator of the text. Consequently, the translator should take care not to over-translate or to under-translate.

For the practical session, students are given an extract from a television interview and they have to write subtitles in the target language.

7.3.11 Unit 11

Unit 11 discusses stylistics and language norms. The translation is viewed as a product in the TL. At this stage, after the translation has been completed, the translator or editor revises the translation to eliminate errors without being influenced too much by the ST. In order to enhance the quality of the text as a good text in the TL and culture, the editor should check literal meaning, grammar and spelling as well as the use of culture specific ways of expression in the TL. The editor may also contemplate alternative ways of expression which sound more natural in the TL. The edited text should be experienced as an original text, or as near as possible to an original text in the TL whilst all of the meaning, information and connotations of the original ST are idiomatically transferred into the TT.

For the practical session, students are given completed translations which they have to edit and improve if stylistically or idiomatically defective. They must also indicate where editing is necessary and suggest how it should be corrected. Language norms are also discussed in this unit.

7.3.12 Unit 12

Unit 12 deals with the processes and methods applied in the translation of a text. Translation processes and methods are also discussed in Section 2.3.

7.3.13 Unit 13

In Unit 13 the different aids available to the translator are discussed. This includes the use of dictionaries with investigation into the different types of dictionaries, the computer

as an aid to the translator as well as other handy “tips” the translator can use when doing a translation.

7.3.14 Unit 14

In Unit 14 the theory of equivalence is examined with specific reference to the types of equivalence described by different researchers. Special attention is given to equivalence in both source oriented and target oriented texts.

7.3.14.1 Equivalence

A topic which has sparked much controversy in translation studies is the matter of equivalence. Equivalence refers to the relationship between the source text and the target text (Reiss, 1983:301). Newmark (1988:48) states that, “... the overriding purpose of any translation should be ‘equivalent effect’, i.e. to produce the same effect (or one as close as possible) on the readership of the translation as was obtained on the readership of the original. ... As I see it ‘equivalent effect’ is the desirable result, rather than the aim of any translation”. According to Ivir (1981:53), equivalence “is a matter of relational dynamics in a communicative act”. In the discipline of Mathematics the term refers to “the reversible and unequivocal correlation between elements” (Dussé, 1995:26). In translation, equivalence does not imply that the target text is an exact substitution for the source text. Because languages and the context of each translation differ, Van den Broeck and Lefevere (1979:94) are correct in maintaining that equivalence is a variable term that depends on both the situation and the context. Toury (1980:64) also states that the concept of equivalence is a broad, flexible and changing one and not a fixed idea, and furthermore, that the norms chosen determine the identification of the relationship between the source text and the target text. Dussé (1995:28) states that “equivalence, then, is a norm-governed concept and since translational norms or principles are changing factors (as one translation problem and situation differs from another) it would seem correct to say that there are many types and degrees of equivalence”.

Linguists distinguish between two types of equivalence: formal and dynamic. According to Newmark (1982:10), dynamic equivalence is also referred to as “The principle of similar or equivalent response or effect, or of functional equivalence.”

When writing on the equivalence of different types of texts, Newmark (1988:192) states that a translation of an informative text should convey the facts acceptably, while the translation of a vocative text should be effective in terms of reader response or reception, and the expressive text should be faithful to the original.

Each translation has different aspects or focus points regarding the importance of equivalence. In this respect Van den Broeck and Lefevere (1979:105) distinguish between syntactic, semantic and pragmatic equivalence, whereas Wilss (1976:127) also identifies these dimensions but uses the term stylistic instead of pragmatic. These are but some of the classifications which are made, but, in general, one could divide aspects of translation equivalence into two types: that which relate to the message or content (thus cognitive aspects), and that which concerns form (thus formal aspects). It is, however, important to note that each aspect of equivalence in turn could be either formal or dynamic so that one could speak of formal or dynamic lexical equivalence, formal or dynamic cognitive equivalence, etc. Kelly (1979:134) remarks as follows on lexical equivalence: “There are three ways of seeking lexical equivalence: one can attempt to translate completely literally; one can attempt complete consistent dynamic equivalence; or one can mix the two at need.”

7.3.14.2 Aspects of equivalence

The concept equivalence is a very important aspect of the Translation Studies syllabus. The translator must recognise from the beginning that total equivalence is not attainable and should decide beforehand which aspects of the source text s/he wishes to transfer to the target text. Nida (1979:13) states that: “The basic principles of translation mean that no translation in a receptor language can be the exact equivalent of the model in the

source language.” These choices and the method of work adopted will determine the type of translation to be done, namely a formal equivalent translation (more or less literally) or a dynamic equivalent translation (more freely translated). It is important to note that there are no fixed boundaries between formal and dynamic equivalence.

The concept of equivalence also has some bearing on the possibility or impossibility of translation. Nida (1976:63) points out that the question of translatability comes to the fore when a person insists on absolute rather than relative equivalence: “If one is to insist that translation must involve no loss of information whatsoever, then obviously not only translating but all communication is impossible.”

The term equivalence, therefore, seems to be a very tricky term to use because of the many ways in which it can be realised in a translation. The following paragraphs focus on the difference between the two main distinctions made above, that is, cognitive equivalence and equivalence of form.

7.3.14.3 Cognitive equivalence

Cognitive equivalence deals with the content, the message of the text, and will include aspects such as lexical, semantic, semiotic and paradigmatic equivalence (Nida, 1976).

In section 2.3 the sociolinguistic considerations in translation which relate to cognitive equivalence such as the role of the message, the content of the text, the reason for translating the text, the aim as well as the treatment of culture-specific and universal elements are discussed.

The translation of metaphors is another aspect of the content that requires the translator's consideration. Newmark (1982:48ff.) distinguishes three types of metaphors: dead, standard and original metaphors. Dead and original metaphors are the easiest to translate because they are either not perceived as metaphors any more, or have not yet been

established as metaphors. The translation of metaphors will not be discussed here as it is seen as only one of the aspects, such as the translation of literature, which have to be included in a course on Translation Studies.

7.3.14.4 **Equivalence of form**

The concept of **form** refers to stylistic elements as well as structures such as paragraphs, episodes, chapters, etc. Aspects such as syntactic, linguistic and stylistic equivalence would all fall under equivalence of form. Nida and Taber (1982) point out that formal linguistic characteristics of a text become increasingly important depending on the extent of their stylistic characteristics. The more important the form of the text is for the understanding and appreciation of the message, the more difficult it will be to find suitable formal equivalents in the target language.

Nida (1976:54) distinguishes three ways in which the formal characteristics of a source text can be presented. As:

- a concordant translation where every word (and sometimes even grammatical form) of the source language is represented by a single corresponding lexical item or grammatical form in the target language;
- or, a more or less literal translation with explanatory footnotes to clarify obscurities and to call the attention to rhetorical details such as reference, play upon words, rhyme, alliteration, etc.;
- or, a free translation with footnotes which refer to the distinctive formal characteristics of the source text.

Equivalence of form is particularly important in the translation of literature and it is important that the translator should understand that s/he has to make a choice between a formal (thus literal) approach and a dynamic equivalent approach. When, for example, a translation of *The Illiad* by Homer is made, the translator can decide to stick to the epic-poetic form of the original (thus a formal or literal translation), or s/he can decide to

translate it into epic prose form because the epic poetic form may seem to be forced and unnatural to the target language reader. The last approach would then be a dynamic equivalent translation.

Certain formal characteristics/properties of language that are concerned with roles, for example, stuttering and the repetitive use of fixed expressions, should be rendered in the translation. Dialectal differences, typical of such role-related forms, pose a problem to the translator who has to find a somewhat similar dialect with the same status and connotations in the target language. Nida (1976) also mentions that some typical gender expressions, such as the typically feminine “mercy-me”, is usually difficult to reproduce.

The different levels of language usage which reflect/indicate psychological distance between participants in the communication process, is important to equivalence of form. Catford (1965) and House (1981) identify six levels, namely, frozen, formal, consultative, informal, casual and intimate.

The translator should also keep in mind subject-related forms of language as used in science, religion and pedagogics, etc. while the idiolect of the author of the source text also constitutes a formal aspect which will require the translator's attention. Although the translator is faced with many choices, the choice between a formal or dynamic equivalent translation will depend on the reason and purpose for translating the text, the scopos.

7.3.14.5 Different types of equivalent translations

The aspect or aspects which are made equivalent in a translation of a source text will determine what type of translation is to be made. Such a translation can be rendered by means of four types of translation, namely, pragmatic, aesthetic-poetical, ethnographic and linguistic translations (Newmark, 1982).

With a pragmatic translation, the translator would strive towards a cognitive or dynamic

equivalent translation to bring the message across very clearly, for example, the translation of technical material such as a users' manual. Equivalence of form would not be important in such a translation.

Within the South African context, with its eleven official languages, much attention will have to be given to the pragmatic translation of texts. Most of the indigenous black languages, which have official status according to the new South African Constitution, are not yet developed enough to be used in highly technical translations (Kruger, 1992b), because of the historical and political past of the country, and also because many of the speakers of these languages are illiterate (Bekeweni, 1995). By means of pragmatic translation, adapting the message according to the scopos of the translation, the translation will be better understood by the specified target community and will thereby inform the members of the disadvantaged languages.

According to Walker *et al.* (1995:102), accessibility should be seen as a priority when translating for the new South Africa. They claim that formal equivalent translation is obsolete and dynamic equivalence or pragmatic translation should be embraced to get across the message, which is the most important part of the text. Walker *et al.* (1995:106) also refer to Nord's (1991) functional approach to translation, generally known as the 'skopos theory'. According to Nord and others,

every translation process should be guided by the function or 'skopos' which the translation is intended to achieve in the target culture (specified by the initiator), and not by the function of the original in the source culture. In their view, therefore, what matters is not faithfulness or equivalence, but whether or not the translation has fulfilled the initiator's needs (i.e. the skopos) and can function as an independent text in the target culture (quoted in Walker *et al.*, 1995:106).

This view can roughly be equated with reception aesthetics theory in literary studies, which will have a bearing on the product of the translation.

When translating an aesthetic-poetical text, the translator will have to equal the effect, feeling and the aesthetic form (sonnet, dramatic monologue, etc.) of the source text as

well as the content of the message. Thus a more formal and less pragmatic translation would be the result. The best example would be a literature text which would usually be translated for more academic reasons and not necessarily for the whole speech community.

With ethnographic translation, the aim is to explain the cultural context of the source text in the target text. Equivalence would, therefore, focus on the way in which words are used in a social context, for example, the American “yeah” as opposed to the English “yes”. Ethnographic translations would be of importance in South Africa because of the wide range of ethnic minorities in the country.

Linguistic translation deals with the equivalent meaning of the morphemes of the target text and with grammatical form. This type of translation became popular in the twentieth century especially because of the developments in linguistic theory, and in particular, the work of Noam Chomsky.

Newmark (1982:38) summarises the debate about different types of equivalence as follows:

In the pre-linguistic period of writing on translation, which may be said to date from Cicero ... opinion swung between literal and free, faithful and beautiful, exact and natural translation, depending on whether the bias was to be in favor of the author or the reader, the source or the target text. ... Since the rise of modern linguistics, the general emphasis ... has been placed on the reader - on informing the reader effectively and appropriately

Different translation theorists also have different approaches to equivalence. Nida (1976) proposes two types of equivalence, namely, formal and dynamic equivalence but favours dynamic equivalence. Newmark (1982:38) distinguishes between communicative and semantic equivalence. The most important differences between these two approaches, according to Newmark (1982:39-56), can be summarised as follows (cf. Table 7.1):

Table 7.1: The difference between communicative and semantic equivalence

Communicative equivalence	Semantic equivalence
Foreign elements in culture and language are transferred to the receptor language where necessary.	Foreign elements remain within the original culture.
It would rather carry over the force of the message than the contents.	Carry over the message.
Translation tends to be smoother, simpler, clearer and more effective. Will under-translate.	Translation is more complex, cumbersome, in more detail and more complicated. Will over-translate.
Translation may be better than the original and gains in power and clarity which it loses to content. The translator may improve the logic, rewrite clumsy sentences, correct factual misrepresentations, etc.	The translation is usually weaker than the original because it implies loss of meaning. The translator may not make any improvements.
The focus is on the message, the reader and the utterance.	The focus is on the meaning, the writer and on thought processes.

Both communicative and dynamic equivalence have the same basic approach towards the text. The translator should, however, not depend too much on translation theory to solve all his/her practical problems, for as Kelly (1979:219) says: "Had translation depended for survival on theory, it would have died out long before Cicero".

Another aspect of translation theory that makes it less useful for the ordinary translator is the fact that most of the theories are based on the problems surrounding Bible translation. Therefore, translation theory cannot always be applied to other types of translation which make out the bulk of everyday translation. Translation theory may, however, come in handy to solve particular problems.

The translator must take note of the various translation theories, or rather approaches, but should not rigidly embrace one and reject all the others. Each translation project brings its own unique problems, and even within a single text, different problems will have to be solved differently. The translator should take an eclectic approach and should be guided by the character and content of the source text, the individual character of both the source and target language, as well as the needs of the receptor group.

The translator should, however, not be inhibited by the bewildering conflicts of translation theory, but should realise that his/her most valuable aid still remains his/her own experience. By remembering this, s/he might eventually develop his/her own translation style and contribute something to what Richards (1962:250) calls, “probably the most complex type of event yet produced in the evolution of the cosmos”.

The translator’s aspiration to achieve equivalence in his/her translation of different types of texts with differing functions brings other elements or subjects to the fore. For example, the way in which a translation should be done, specific techniques, and the problem of cultural differences between languages, referred to as “Landeskunde”. Because any culture is embedded in its language, the users of a specific language experience reality differently. Furthermore, different languages are used in differing geographical environments, which also influence the language. Nida (1964) also emphasises that in order to translate, one must not only know a language, but must also be familiar with the customs, mores, and civilization of those who speak it. In the following unit the problem of “Landeskunde” (cultural content) is discussed.

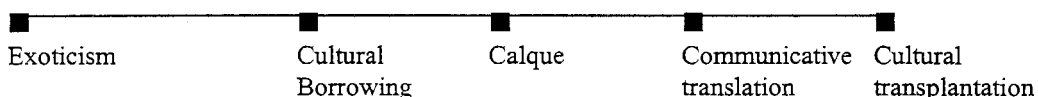
7.3.15 Unit 15

Unit 15 deals with Translation and Culture with special reference to Landeskunde elements and translation bias and cultural transposition (cf. Section 2.4).

Cultural issues in translation are discussed with special reference to the fact that

translation does not only concern transfer from one language to another, but in many cases also the transfer from one culture to another. Hervey and Higgins (1992:28) use the term **cultural transposition** as a cover-term for the various degrees of departure from literal translation that one may resort to in the process of transferring the contents of a source text into the context of a target culture. In order to minimise ‘foreign’ features in the target text and thus to some extent ‘naturalising’ it into the target language and its cultural setting, Hervey and Higgins (1992:28) describe various degrees of cultural transposition as points along a scale between the extremes of exoticism and cultural transplantation (cf. Diagram 7.6).

Diagram 7.6: Degrees of cultural transposition



Hervey and Higgins (1992:28).

The different points on the scale in short represent the following:

- Exoticism refers to extreme options signaling cultural foreignness in the TT. These options remain close to the ST and present somewhat of an alien nature to the reader of the TT, which it did not represent to the original reader of the ST. It signals the exotic strangeness of the source culture.
- Cultural borrowing refers to the direct borrowing of words from a different culture, thus taking over the foreign word verbatim if there is no conventional equivalent for the word or term in the TL. Examples of cultural borrowing are terms such as “Landeskunde”, “Joie de vivre”, etc., words and phrases that are commonly used in their original form in the SL.
- Calque refers to expressions that consist of TL words and respect TL syntax but are unidiomatic in the TL because they are modeled on the structure of a SL expression, thus a form of literal translation.

- Communicative transplantation refers to the use of set phrases or idioms in the TT corresponding to set phrases or idioms in the ST.
- Cultural transplantation refers to an adaptation of the text in the original culture to a text in the target culture with the new text being a complete rewriting in the new cultural setting.

The terms compromise and compensation in translation are also discussed. The students are confronted with different texts in which they have to compromise taking into account the inevitable loss in meaning, on the one hand, and how to compensate, on the other hand. Hervey and Higgins (1992:35-39) name four types of compensation:

- compensation in kind (making up for one type of textual effect in the ST by another type in the TT such as the difference in tenses between English and French).
- compensation in place (where the loss of a particular effect is recreated by a corresponding effect at an earlier or later stage in the TT).
- compensation by merging (the condensation of a long phrase in the ST to a shorter phrase or word in the TT).
- compensation by splitting (which may be resorted to when there is no single TL word that covers the same range of meaning as a given word in the ST such as ‘Butterflies and moths’ for the French word ‘Les papillons’).

7.3.16 Unit 16

Unit 16 examines the different types of texts the translator will encounter. Specific attention is given to the unique problems of each text type and how the translator should approach each type of text. The types of texts worked with are, technical, economic, legal, consumer oriented and literature texts.

Technical translations belong to the empirical/descriptive genre and may be written for

any specialist in any specific field. Although technical translation does not differ much from the translation of other genre types, it needs special attention because the translator is not necessarily a specialist in the field. Technical texts usually have their own register and their own technical jargon. The translation of technical texts are, however, very useful in the training of translators because they exemplify issues crucial to translation methodology. Special lexical problems occur, such as:

- the use of terms not used in everyday, ordinary language;
- the use of ordinary, everyday terms in a manifestly technically specialised way;
- the use of ordinary terms as a technical term; and
- the use of terms with a specific synonym that does not correspond with a recognised linguistic synonym, for example, the use of “planar cell” in English rather than “flat cell” for the French term ‘cellule plane’ which, if directly translated would be ‘flat cell’.

It is also emphasised that the translator cannot always rely on technical dictionaries because many technical reports represent new ideas and report on new scientific findings which have not yet been taken up in technical dictionaries. The translator is, therefore, advised to consult technical experts in the field or to undertake training in a specific technical field. Other problems encountered by translators of technical texts are: conceptual problems such as failure to understand the underlying suppositions and knowledge taken for granted by experts, the inaccessibility of the ‘logic’ of a discipline, methods of argumentation, and the development of relations between concepts which are normally specific to the discipline. For the practical session the students are given a technical text to translate. They also have to discuss the strategic problems in the text and explain their decisions made in translating the text.

Consumer-orientated texts are heavily influenced by their original purpose and eventual readership. All types of texts are of course intended for someone, but specific consumer-orientated texts such as advertisements, information brochures, technical manuals, etc.

either wish to sell something or to persuade, or prescribe to a specific audience to do or not to do something. They are appellative types of texts (cf. Section 2.5) and would belong to the persuasive/prescriptive genre (cf. Section 7.3.9.1, Unit 10). Such texts often use a calculated tonal register, make use of visuals, etc. Because all cultures do not perceive the same things as good or bad, the translator should take care not to create adverse effects when translating the text into another culture. Consumer-orientated texts are culture-specific and the translator must know for whom the translation is intended in order to adapt the stylistic norms to suit the target reader. The translator should not stick to literal translations because the ST and the TT of consumer-orientated commodities are, to some extent, two different presentations of the same subject matter. Because of the difference in cultures and the way the readers may perceive the text, the SL and the TL will differ in terms of a number of things. Every textual variable may be drawn onto a signal register. The translator will, therefore, have to pay attention to the differences in vocabulary, grammatical/syntactic structure, sentential and discourse structure as well as any other variables that may be encountered. The TT must give a correct, accurate, unambiguous and comprehensible account of the ST without alienating the TT user or reader.

For the practical session, the students are given some consumer-orientated texts to translate and they are asked to compare and contrast the same text in the SL and the TL, discussing, in particular, the salient details of stylistic differences and the different decisions taken when translating the text.

7.3.17 Unit 17

In Unit 17 the basic concepts of **terminology** and **lexicography** are discussed and the students are introduced to the use and availability of term banks as well as the organisation of an own term list.

7.3.18 Unit 18

Unit 18 deals with the **evaluation of a translation**. The emphasis here is on an evaluation of a translation as a professional - that is, the translator or the editor of the translated document, should evaluate it before the completed piece goes to the client. In a course in Translation Studies the student is to be taught to become a professional, therefore, also to evaluate his/her translation. For the purpose of this study the evaluation of a translation is discussed only with the intention of teaching the student to evaluate his/her translation as a product.

A useful model for this purpose can be found in *A Model for Translation Quality Assessment* by Juliane House (1981). House (1981) proposes a fairly comprehensive model, which, although perhaps too detailed and cumbersome for everyday use, is very useful in the evaluation of problem cases because it makes explicit many things about evaluating a translation that a translator does intuitively.

House's (1981) model includes the analysis of the source text according to a set of eight situational dimensions for which linguistic correlates are established.

A textual profile of the source text, which characterises its function is taken as the norm against which the target text is measured. The degree to which the target text profile, derived from an analogous analysis of the target text, matches or does not match the source text profile then determines the quality of the target text. The more the target text matches the source text profile the better its quality.

House (1981) distinguishes between two types of errors: covertly erroneous errors and overtly erroneous errors. Covertly erroneous errors refer to mismatches of the denotative meaning of the two texts while overtly erroneous errors refer to breaches of the target language system. Covert translation presents a subtle cultural transference and evaluation problem, because differences in the cultures of the source text and the target text may necessitate the use of a cultural filter.

There are different approaches to the problem of evaluating a translation. House (1981:6) refers to a number of pre-linguistic studies on the assessment of translation quality. These studies discuss the importance of certain criteria for the evaluation of a translation such as, the faithfulness of the original, the retention of the original's specific flavour and the pleasure and delight of the reader. Most of these studies, however, are vague and subjective statements on the meaning of the quality of a translation.

Nida and Taber (1982:168-173) suggest a number of practical tests to determine the quality of a translation:

- The Cloze technique in which the degree of comprehensibility of a text is related to its "degree of predictability". With this technique, about every fifth word is omitted and the reader is asked to fill in the words that seem to fit the context best. This test, however, has some limitations in that it may be difficult to analyze the results of the test and it does not refer to the source text, thus no real quality assessment of the translation as such can be made.
- As a second test, they suggest the elicitation of respondents' reactions to several translation alternatives. Such a test may compare alternatives but it does not judge the translation against its source text.
- A third test suggests the reading of the translated text to some other person who will then be asked to explain the contents to several other individuals. This test also only suggests the understanding of the translated text and does not take the source text into consideration.
- The next test they suggest is the reading aloud of a translation by several individuals before an audience, in such a way that the reading will (presumably) be equivalent to communicating the message of the text. This test also lacks reference to the source text and will not measure the quality of the translated text.

Further suggestions include:

- asking the opinion of several competent judges;
- testing translations against a criterion translation;

- having respondents answer questions about a passage when the respondents have seen either its source text or its translation text; and
- proposing various rating scales which are not very successful because they seem to be of more use in cases of fairly straightforward technical translations.

Because many of the suggested tests or ways of evaluating a translation can be seen as subjective, it is important to develop an objective method of determining the particular semantic, stylistic, functional and pragmatic qualities of the text.

After taking into account the functions of language and specifically the text, it is also important to take into account the situations in which the language or text is used.

House (1981:42) presents a useful proposal for a model of situational-functional source text analysis. The proposed model can be outlined as follows:

- | | | |
|---|------------------------------|--|
| A | Dimensions of language user: | 1. Geographical origin |
| | | 2. Social class |
| | | 3. Time |
| B | Dimensions of language use: | 1. Medium (simple, complex,
involving textual means, devices) |
| | | 2. Participation (simple, complex) |
| | | 3. Social role relationships |
| | | 4. Social attitude |
| | | 5. Province |

A brief outline is provided to explain each of the elements above.

A Dimensions of language user

Geographical origin / Social class: This will include such concepts as regional dialect and

social class dialect. It will refer to features which mark a text producer's geographical origin, where the unmarked case will be something like Standard British English or Standard South African English. In the case of the social class dialect, the unmarked case will be the educated middle class speaker of the standard language.

Time refers to features that provide clues to the text's temporal provenance.

B. Dimensions of language use

Medium: In the course of her own analyses, House (1981:43) makes further and finer distinctions with regard to the concept of simplicity and complexity of texts and makes a clear distinction between written and oral language.

Participation: This includes such concepts as participation elicitation and indirect addressee participation, as well as linguistic manifestations such as the specific use of pronouns, switches between imperatives, interrogatives, exclamations, and presence of contact parentheses.

Social role relationships: This includes the role relationships between addresser and addressee and a distinction, for example, between symmetrical and asymmetrical role relationships. Both fixed position roles (teacher, priest) and more transient situational roles (guest, visitor in prison, etc.) exist.

Social Attitude: Degrees of social distance or proximity: five different styles or degrees of formality: frozen, formal, consultative, casual and intimate, with all the variations and combinations of these (House, 1981:46-48).

Province: Province does not only reflect occupational and professional activity, but also the field or topic of the text in its widest "area of operation" as a language activity, as well as details of the text production.

House (1981:50) states that:

By using situational dimensions for opening up the source text, we obtain for the source text a particular textual profile. This profile, which characterizes the function of that text, is, in our theory, the norm against which the quality of the translation text is to be measured, i.e. a given translation text is analysed using the same dimensional scheme, and in the same detail, and the degree to which its textual profile does not match the source text's profile is the degree to which that translation text is adequate in quality.

Another method of testing a translation is what Newmark (1993:124) calls the "back translation" test, in which the TT is translated back into the ST.

According to Newmark (1993:124): "Back translation is the scientific element in translation, since it can measure approximately the deviation between the original and the translation". He distinguishes six types of back translation:

- 1 Lexical. The word is used in its primary sense and the target language has a clear one-to-one equivalent.
- 2 Collocational. Since the typical characteristic of a collocation is that its 'secondary' collocate is not used in its primary sense, a back translation will often expose translationese.
- 3 Syntactic. A literal or a close syntactic back translation may show up the non-existence (phrasal verbs, gerunds, verb nouns), or the infrequency of a structure in the source language, and may be instructively performed at the level of groups, clauses or sentences.
- 4 Word order. A change of source language word order in the target language may be anomalous or may alter the emphasis of the original, making a lexical or grammatical change preferable.
- 5 Text length. A translation from a synthetic language such as Latin or German into an analytic language such as Vietnamese or Chinese may be longer than the original. A 'communicative' translation may be longer than a 'semantic' translation since it may include cultural and other background information which is not required in the original. Only general indications about relative text length

can be given.

- 6 Metaphor. Back translation of metaphors (and figurative language) may be useful in determining cultural differences as well as a translator's incompetence or 'metaphorobia' (i.e. the unnecessary weakening of a metaphor) (Newmark, 1993:124-125).

Newmark's (1993) method of back translation may be useful in evaluating very technical material or Bible translation, but it will not do for everyday use where the translator has to evaluate his/her own translation, because, though it may run a check on accuracy it will not necessarily evaluate the idiomatic rendering of the text. This method may, however, come in handy in the use of translation as a teaching strategy in order to alert the student to the different elements encountered in the text.

7.3.19 Unit 19

Unit 19 investigates machine translation and computer-aided translation, thus translations done with the help of a computer program. Up to the present, no machine or computer program have been able to replace the human translator, although much work has been done on mechanical translation.

7.3.20 Unit 20

In Unit 20 the different modes or types of interpreting, such as two-way, consecutive and simultaneous interpreting are discussed and practiced.

This unit introduces the different genre types found in language. However, the translator only needs an approximate generic knowledge to recognise the characteristics that make the ST a representative specimen of a particular source-culture genre. The differences between oral and written texts are highlighted (cf. Unit 10). Although an oral text is fleeting and an unrepeatable event, it must adhere to the rules of spoken language. Oral translation brings the different modes of interpreting into play. Interpreting should be

seen as a specialised skill. Because interpreting is a highly specialised skill it will only be mentioned in passing in this course. The modes discussed are two-way interpreting, consecutive interpreting and simultaneous interpreting. **Two-way interpreting** is where the interpreter acts as an intermediary in unrehearsed conversation. **Consecutive interpreting** is where the interpreter listens to the original speaker and repeats it in the target language after the speech is completed to render a similar speech in the TL. **Simultaneous interpreting** is where the interpreter translates the message directly as it is given in the SL, as in a conference where delegates have the choice to listen to their preferred language through earphones. The translation of oral texts, better known as interpreting, is also of great importance in the South African context because of the status given to the eleven major languages spoken in South Africa. In South Africa interpreting can be divided into different sub-modes: liaison interpreting, where the interpreter acts as facilitator in, for example, clinics, which would correspond to two-way interpreting; conference and legislature interpreting which would correspond to simultaneous interpreting, as well as consecutive and whisper interpreting.

The units proposed above reflect the content of the course and include the exercises to inculcate the skills needed by the translator to perform specified tasks for specified outcomes.

The units given above will form the core syllabus for a course in Translation Studies. The individual teacher or trainer will have to select the most appropriate units among these for a specific course, taking into consideration the time available as well as the aims of a specific course. The ideal would be to include all the units in a course which would be possible if the course were to be structured over two or three years.

The complete proposed syllabus grid indicating the different units is given in Table 7.2.

Outcomes and objectives are grouped together. Objectives are seen as the goals set by the educator for the learner to achieve, while an outcome is seen as the intended result of

education and training or a task through which the learner proves his/her competence in a specific field. To assess whether the objectives have been reached and whether the student has achieved the outcomes, all the work done during the course should be gathered in a portfolio to enable the teacher or tutor to assess the achievement of outcomes.

Table 7.2: Grid of study units for a course in Translation Studies (Band 1)

Unit	Band 1 Topic	Content	Tasks/Assignment and Assessment Criteria	Outcomes/ Objectives of the unit
1	Overview of Translation and Interpreting	Translation/Interpreting as a profession Definitions Qualities of the Translator/Interpreter	Tasks/Assignment Draw up a list of the rights and duties of a Translator/Interpreter Assessment Criteria Can the student/learner / Is the student/learner able to (1) describe the differences between translation and interpreting? (2) define the terms translation and interpreting? (3) explain the concept of professionalisation? (4) discuss the qualities of the translator/interpreter? (5) discuss internalise and add to the rights and duties of the translator/interpreter?	Objectives of the unit : To familiarise the student with the scope and topic of translation and interpreting. Outcomes of the unit: The student/learner should be able to: (1) describe the difference between translation and interpreting (2) define the terms translation and interpreting (3) explain the concept of professionalisation (4) discuss the qualities of the translator/interpreter (5) discuss, internalise and add to the rights and duties of the translator/interpreter

Unit	Band 1 Topic	Content	Tasks/Assignment	Outcomes/ Objectives of the unit
2	Translation as a Process	Discussion of translation theories aimed at translation as a process (Linguistic theories)	Assessment Criteria Can the student/learner (1) make strategic decisions as to how to do a translation? (2) make decisions on the solving of specific problems in a translation based on the strategic decision? (3) make a gist translation? (4) discuss the different processes of translation? (5) discuss the transfer of specific problematic topics from the SL to the TL? (6) differentiate between the formal and lexical components of a text?	Objectives of the unit : To familiarise the student with the different approaches to translation as a process. Outcomes of the unit: The student/learner should be able to: (1) make strategic decisions as to how to do a translation (2) decide on the solving of specific problems in a translation based on the strategic decision (3) make a gist translation (4) discuss the different processes of translation (5) discuss the transfer of specific problematic topics from the SL to the TL (6) differentiate between the formal and lexical components of a text

Unit	Band 1 Topic	Content	Tasks/Assignment	Outcomes/ Objectives of the unit
3	Translation as a Product	Brief overview of the development of Translation Studies theories reflecting on the product of translation	Assessment Criteria Can the student/learner (1) discuss translation as a product? (2) differentiate between a SL-biased and a TL-biased translation?	Objectives of the unit : To familiarise the student with the different approaches to translation as a product. Outcomes of the unit: The student/learner should be able to: (1) discuss translation as a product (2) differentiate between a SL-biased and a TL-biased translation

Unit	Band 1 Topic	Content	Tasks/Assignment	Outcomes/ Objectives of the unit
4	History of Translation /Interpreting	Brief overview of the history of Translation and Interpreting	Tasks/Assignment Write a short essay on St Jerome compare some extracts from 2 different translations of the Bible Assessment Criteria Can the student/learner (1) discuss the development in translation theory? (2) discuss the changing philosophical view on translation? (3) prove to orientate him/herself within the historical perspective?	Objectives of the unit : To familiarise the student with the history of T/I. Outcomes of the unit: The student/learner should be able to: (1) discuss the development in translation theory (2) discuss the changing philosophical view on translation (3) orientate him/herself within the historical perspective

Unit	Band 1 Topic	Content	Tasks/Assignment	Outcomes/ Objectives of the unit
5	The Communication process	Communication process The communication process in Translation	Assessment Criteria Can the student/learner (1) discuss the communication process? (2) discuss the communication process in translation? (3) discuss the various elements in the communication process? (4) apply the communication process in translation?	Objectives of the unit : To familiarise the student with the communication process and its applicability in translation. Outcomes of the unit: The student/learner should be able to: (1) discuss the communication process (2) discuss the communication process in translation (3) discuss the various elements in the communication process (4) apply the communication process in translation

Unit	Band 1 Topic	Content	Tasks/Assignment	Outcomes/ Objectives of the unit
6	Linguistic background	Sociolinguistics Dialects sociolect, code-switching, social and tonal register	Tasks/Assignment Reading tasks Assessment Criteria Can the student/learner (1) discuss variety in language? (2) discuss problems encountered in translating from different varieties of language? (3) discuss and explain the importance of a linguistic background on the process of translation? (4) discuss and explain the importance of a linguistic background to the translator? (5) identify and discuss the salient features of language variety in a text?	Objectives of the unit : To show the impact of linguistic theories on the process of translation. Outcomes of the unit: The student/learner should be able to: (1) discuss variety in language (2) discuss problems encountered in translating from different varieties of language (3) discuss and explain the importance of a linguistic background on the process of translation (4) discuss and explain the importance of a linguistic background to the translator (5) identify and discuss the salient features of language variety in a text

Unit	Band 1 Topic	Content	Tasks/Assignment	Outcomes/ Objectives of the unit
7	Translation and grammar	Formal properties inter-textual inter-sentential sentential prosodic & phonic/graphic	Tasks/Assignment Reading tasks and language exercises Assessment Criteria Can the student/learner (1) discuss grammatical and lexical issues in the text that play a role in translation? (2) discuss the elements of intertextuality in the text? (3) discuss the importance of grammar in the process of translation? (4) use correct grammar in practical translations?	Objectives of the unit : To emphasise the importance of grammar in the process of translation. Outcomes of the unit: The student/learner should be able to: (1) discuss grammatical and lexical issues in the text that play a role in translation (2) discuss the elements of intertextuality in the text (3) discuss the importance of grammar in the process of translation (4) use correct grammar in practical translations

Unit	Band 1 Topic	Content	Tasks/Assignment	Outcomes/ Objectives of the unit
8	Meaning in translation	Literal meaning Connotative meaning	Assessment Criteria Can the student/learner (1) use strategies for the transfer of literal meaning from the ST to the TT? (2) discuss synonymy and hyperonymy-hyponymy? (3) distinguish between “particularised” and “generalised” translations? (4) discuss the different layers of meaning in a text?	Objectives of the unit : To emphasise the importance of meaning in the process of translation Outcomes of the unit: The student/learner should be able to: (1) use strategies for the transfer of literal meaning from the ST to the TT (2) discuss synonymy and hyperonymy-hyponymy (3) distinguish between “particularised” and “generalised” translations (4) discuss the different layers of meaning in a text

Unit	Band 1 Topic	Content	Tasks/Assignment	Outcomes/ Objectives of the unit
9	Language functions and text types		Tasks/Assignment Reading tasks Assessment Criteria Can the student/learner (1) discuss language functions and text types? (2) categorise texts into text types? (3) discuss different language functions and their use in texts?	Objectives of the unit : To familiarise the student with the functions of language and language types. Outcomes of the unit: The student/learner should be able to: (1) discuss language functions and text types (2) categorise texts into text types (3) discuss different language functions and their use in texts

Unit	Band 1 Topic	Content	Tasks/Assignment	Outcomes/ Objectives of the unit
10	Textual genres	Oral Written cross-over	Assessment Criteria Can the student/learner (1) discuss the difference between written and oral genres? (2) distinguish between and discuss different written genres? (3) discuss the crossover between written and oral genres?	Objectives of the unit : To differentiate between different genres. Outcomes of the unit: The student/learner should be able to: (1) discuss the difference between written and oral genres (2) distinguish between and discuss different written genres (3) discuss the crossover between written and oral genres

Unit	Band 1 Topic	Content	Tasks/Assignment	Outcomes/ Objectives of the unit
11	Stylistics and Language norms		Tasks/Assignment Reading tasks and assignment on language norms Assessment Criteria Can the student/learner (1) discuss the revision of a translation in order to adapt it to be a natural TL text? (2) discuss the use of stylistics in translation? (3) edit a text according to the stylistic conventions of the target language? (4) discuss language norms?	Objectives of the unit : To emphasise the importance of good style and the knowledge of language norms. Outcomes of the unit: The student/learner should be able to: (1) discuss the revision of a translation in order to adapt it to be a natural TL text (2) discuss the use of stylistics in translation (3) edit a text according to the stylistic conventions of the target language (4) discuss language norms

Unit	Band 1 Topic	Content	Tasks/Assignment	Outcomes/ Objectives of the unit
12	Translation processes and methods		Tasks/Assignment Reading tasks Assessment Criteria Can the student/learner (1) discuss processes and methods in translation? (2) apply specific translation processes? (3) apply specific methods of translation?	Objectives of the unit : To familiarise the student with the different processes and models of translating. Outcomes of the unit: The student/learner should be able to: (1) discuss processes and methods in translation (2) apply specific translation processes (3) apply specific methods of translation

Unit	Band 1 Topic	Content	Tasks/Assignment	Outcomes/ Objectives of the unit
13	Translation aids	Different aids: Dictionaries Computer Hints	Tasks/Assignment Use different types of dictionaries to explain list of given terms Give bibliographical references Assessment Criteria Can the student/learner (1) discuss different aids for the translator? (2) use different aids for the translator? (3) select the appropriate aid for the task at hand? (4) know where to find the most general aids?	Objectives of the unit : To familiarise the student with the aids available to the translator. Outcomes of the unit: The student/learner should be able to: (1) discuss different aids for the translator (2) use different aids for the translator (3) select the appropriate aid for the task at hand (4) know where to find the most general aids

Unit	Band 1 Topic	Content	Tasks/Assignment	Outcomes/ Objectives of the unit
14	Equivalence	Source text oriented translations Formal and semantic equivalence Target text oriented translations Pragmatic and dynamic equivalence	Tasks/Assignment Translation exercises Assessment Criteria Can the student/learner (1) discuss the concept of equivalence? (2) distinguish between different types of equivalence? (3) decide on which type of equivalence to employ for a specific translation? (4) apply choices regarding equivalence in a translation? (5) discuss the use of different types of equivalence?	Objectives of the unit : To familiarise the student with the concept of equivalence and to guide them in the choice of the type of equivalence used /achieved in translation. Outcomes of the unit: The student/learner should be able to: (1) discuss the concept of equivalence (2) distinguish between different types of equivalence (3) decide on which type of equivalence to employ for a specific translation (4) apply choices regarding equivalence in a translation (5) discuss the use of different types of equivalence

Unit	Band 1 Topic	Content	Tasks/Assignment	Outcomes/ Objectives of the unit
15	Translation and culture	“Landeskunde”	Tasks/Assignment Assignment on a specific topic foreign to the student’s culture Assessment Criteria Can the student/learner (1) discuss the influence of culture on translation? (2) apply specific methods and conventions in conveying culture specific aspects from the SL to the TL? (3) discuss possible ways of rendering foreign cultural aspects into the TL?	Objectives of the unit : To emphasise the importance of culture and cultural transfer in translation. Outcomes of the unit: The student/learner should be able to: (1) discuss the influence of culture on translation (2) apply specific methods and conventions in conveying culture specific aspects from the SL to the TL (3) discuss possible ways of rendering foreign cultural aspects into the TL

Unit	Band 1 Topic	Content	Tasks/Assignment	Outcomes/ Objectives of the unit
16	Types of translation	Technical texts Economic texts Legal texts Consumer-oriented texts Literature texts	Tasks/Assignment Translation of selected texts into both the first and a second language. Assessment Criteria Can the student/learner (1) discuss the classification of texts? (2) discuss the application of different needs for different text types? (3) distinguish specific lexical problems depending on the type of text being translated? (4) apply his/her skills in solving text type specific problems? (5) classify text types according to text genres?	Objectives of the unit : To familiarise the student with different types of translation. Outcomes of the unit: The student/learner should be able to: (1) discuss the classification of texts (2) discuss the application of different needs for different text types (3) distinguish specific lexical problems depending on the type of text being translated (4) apply his/her skills in solving text type specific problems (5) classify text types according to text genres

Unit	Band 1 Topic	Content	Tasks/Assignment	Outcomes/ Objectives of the unit
17	Terminology/ Lexicography		Tasks/Assignment Do excerption of terms in a given text Write a short 'dictionary' of the terms used Assessment Criteria Can the student/learner (1) discuss the concepts terminology and lexicography? (2) use terminological lists and data bases? (3) construct his/her own terminology list? (4) do exerption of terms in a given text? (5) discuss the application of terminology and lexicography in translation? (6) solve terminological problems in translation?	Objectives of the unit : To introduce students to lexicography and the importance of the use of terminology in translation. Outcomes of the unit: The student/learner should be able to: (1) discuss the concepts terminology and lexicography (2) use terminological lists and data bases (3) construct his/her own terminology list (4) do exerption of terms in a given text (5) discuss the application of terminology and lexicography in translation (6) solve terminological problems in translation

Unit	Band 1 Topic	Content	Tasks/Assignment	Outcomes/ Objectives of the unit
18	Evaluation of a translation		Tasks/Assignment Evaluate a given text according to discussed methods for evaluating a translation Assessment Criteria Can the student/learner (1) discuss the evaluation of a translation? (2) evaluate a translated text according to specific criteria? (3) evaluate his/her own translation by using specific methods of evaluation? (4) discuss and evaluate different approaches or methods of evaluating a translation?	Objectives of the unit : To introduce the student to ways in which to evaluate his/her own work. Outcomes of the unit: The student/learner should be able to: (1) discuss the evaluation of a translation (2) evaluate a translated text according to specific criteria (3) evaluate his/her own translation by using specific methods of evaluation (4) discuss and evaluate different approaches or methods of evaluating a translation

Unit	Band I Topic	Content	Tasks/Assignment	Outcomes/ Objectives of the unit
19	Computer aided translation	Specific translation software programs	Tasks/Assignment Practical sessions with specific software programs such as Trados Lexica Professional Translator Dragon Dictate Assessment Criteria Can the student/learner (1) discuss computer-aided translation and machine translation? (2) discuss the pit-falls of computer-aided translation ? (3) discuss the use of computer-aided translation programmes as an aid to the translator? (4) use basic computer-based translation programs?	Objectives of the unit : To familiarise the student with the possibilities of computer aided translation and translation software. Outcomes of the unit: The student/learner should be able to: (1) discuss computer-aided translation and machine translation (2) discuss the pit-falls of computer-aided translation (3) discuss the use of computer-aided translation programmes as an aid to the translator (4) use basic computer-based translation programmes

Unit	Band 1 Topic	Content	Tasks/Assignment	Outcomes/ Objectives of the unit
20	Types of interpreting	Two-way Consecutive Simultaneous Application	Tasks/Assignment Practical application and language laboratory exercises Assessment Criteria Can the student/learner (1) discuss the different modes of interpreting? (2) discuss the similarities and differences between written translation and interpreting? (3) discuss the value and use of different types of modes of interpreting? (4) apply basic interpreting techniques?	Objectives of the unit : To introduce the student to the practice of interpreting at various levels. Outcomes of the unit: The student/learner should be able to: (1) discuss the different modes of interpreting (2) discuss the similarities and differences between written translation and interpreting (3) discuss the value and use of different types of modes of interpreting (4) apply basic interpreting techniques

7.4 Application

- 1) The core syllabus proposed above can be implemented within the School of Language and Arts in the proposed BA Language Practice programme as one of the modules
- 2) Module title: Introduction to Translation Studies? Translation Studies
- 3) Core module for Translation Studies
- 4) NQF level 5 to 6
- 5) NQF Field: (4) Language and Communication
- 6) NQF Sub-field: People/Human-centred development
- 7) Number of credits

The units given in Table 7.2 can be grouped into different modules according to the need and preference of a specific institution or tutor. For example:

Units 1 to 20 for a two semester academic year course consisting of two modules of 16 credits each, total 32 credits. This will amount to 320 notional hours of study which can be roughly divided into 60 hours for theory (Band 1 activities), 200 hours practical translation exercises and 60 hours language specific work including grammar remediation and language skills (Band 2 activities).

7.5 Conclusion

In this chapter the contents of the proposed course in Translation Studies was discussed. The grid (Table 7.2) gives a broad overview of the topics to be discussed in each unit, a mentioning of the content of the unit, some tasks or assignments for the unit as well as the outcomes and objectives of each unit. The content discussed above is only for the course in Translation studies, which represents only part of the core modules within a proposed programme for a BA degree in Language Practice. Other skills and knowledge needed by the translator, such as linguistic skills or information processing skills must be included in the fundamental modules of the programme which serves as the theoretical and practical basis of the whole programme.

CHAPTER 8

CONCLUSION

8.1 Introduction

The incentive for this study came with the introduction of an undergraduate course in Translation Studies at the Potchefstroom University for Christian Higher Education. In view of the policy of eleven official languages sanctioned by the new South-African constitution, the design of such a course was problematic. Although such a variety of official languages could mean a boom in working opportunities for translators, the government's tendency to favour the use of English only in most official circumstances has put an end to such hopes.

In this study it was concluded that translators have to perform specific tasks in order to achieve specific outcomes. The proposed syllabus, therefore, fits in within the framework of a task-based syllabus as advocated by Prabhu (1984; 1987) and Breen and Candlin (1980) for the specific multilingual South-African situation. Diamond's (1989) system model for curriculum development was used as a framework for designing a syllabus in Translation Studies.

8.2 Conclusions

The following questions were formulated in chapter one:

- What type of syllabus would comply with the requirements for the training of translators?
- What should the content of such a syllabus be?
- How should the contents of a course for translator training be structured?

- Would it be necessary for translators in the South African context to be able to translate into a second language?

8.2.1 Aims of the study

The aims of the study were to establish

- the type of syllabus that would comply with the requirements for translation training,
- what the content of such a syllabus should be,
- how the content of such a course should be structured, and
- to indicate the necessity within the South African context of the ability to translate into a second language.

The study started from the premise that it would be possible to teach all the basic techniques, skills and theories which were needed to comply with the requirements of translation practice within a well-structured task-based syllabus.

By evaluating the current courses offered at South-African universities and technikons as indicated in chapters 2 and 4 in the course of the study, it was established what should be included in such a course. In chapter 3 the importance of the ability to translate into a second language, especially into English, within the present South African context, was discussed. In chapter 5 it was argued that the act of translating constitutes a task. By describing the task a translator should be able to achieve, it was found that translation fitted into the framework of a task-based syllabus, thus a Type B syllabus according to White's (1988) classification. However, the content to be taught, as discussed in chapter 2 and 7, fits better into White's (1988) Type A syllabus. This means that a hybrid type of syllabus, according to White's classification, had to be constructed to comply with the requirements of translator training. As also indicated in chapter 5 (cf. Section 5.7.1) the student should be able to achieve certain outcomes, representing a completed task

through which the student proves his/her ability to use acquired knowledge and skills. Outcomes can, therefore, be roughly equated with objectives in the achievement of a task. In this chapter it was also indicated briefly how the proposed course forms part of a proposed programme for a BA degree in Language Practice. Chapter 7 proposes a detailed description of the content of a course in Translation Studies and indicates how such a course should be structured, thereby indicating how the skills needed by a translator, as described in chapter 2, could be accommodated within the framework of a syllabus in order to achieve specified tasks and outcomes. In chapter 7 it was also shown how both the theory and practice of translation could be incorporated in the course.

8.3 Recommendations for future research

It is clear that the final word on the training of translators has not been said and that there still remains much scope for further studies on this subject as this study proposes only one way of structuring such a course. It should also be noted that this study only proposes a core syllabus for translator training and that the individual trainer using the course will have to adapt the course according to his/her own circumstances. The circumstances would include availability of time, resources, material, etc. The course could in effect be offered over a period of one year or three. Some topics could be left out while other topics could be expanded. The contents included in the proposed course represent the core material, topics and skills which are essential for the training of a competent translator.

Further studies could evaluate the implementation of such a course, even for differing target audiences, study certain aspects in more detail or could concentrate more on the approach used to determine content. The impact of such a course on the translation market could also be investigated.

What has been clearly established in this study, is that translators within the South-African context should also be trained to translate into a second language, especially in English, in spite of the eleven official languages sanctioned by the constitution.

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