

**TRANSLATION STUDIES: A PROPOSED CORE
SYLLABUS FOR UNIVERSITY TRAINING**

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TRANSLATION STUDIES: A PROPOSED CORE SYLLABUS FOR UNIVERSITY TRAINING

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OPSOMMING

[**Sleuteltermes:** Sillabus; Sillabusontwerp; Syllabus; Syllabus design; Task-based syllabus; Process syllabus; Vertaalkunde; Vertaling; Translation; Ekwivalensie; Equivalence; Culture; Translation & culture; Translation theory; Vertaalteorie.]

Die doel van hierdie studie is om 'n sillabus vir 'n voorgraadse kursus in Vertaalkunde te ontwerp met inagneming van die stand van vertaalopleiding in Suid Afrika tans en teen die agtergrond van 'n taakgebaseerde sillabusontwerp.

In hoofstuk een word die probleemstelling en die doelstelling sowel as die studieprogram van die studie aangedui.

Hoofstuk twee gee 'n oorsig van verskillende aspekte wat die vertaler mee te doen gaan kry en wat dus ingesluit behoort te word in so 'n kursus. Dit sluit in benaderings tot vertaling (vertaalteorie) en 'n kort oorsig oor die geskiedenis van vertaling, taal en kultuurdinge aspekte (Landeskunde) in vertaling asook die vaardighede wat die vertaler moet ontwikkel.

In hoofstuk drie word die noodsaaklikheid van die opleiding van vertalers om ook na 'n tweede taal te vertaal, bespreek. Daar word ook gekyk na sekere teoretiese konstruksies in tweedetaalverwerwing en vertaalvermoeë (translation competence) soos Intertaal, die Tekslinguistiek en taalvermoeë.

Hoofstuk vier gee 'n oorsig van die stand van vertaleropleiding in Suid-Afrika en 'n kort oorsig van vroeëre kursusse, en bespreek ook kortliks die noodsaaklikheid van vertaalopleiding in Suid Afrika. Die kursusse van drie prominente oorsese instellings word ook ter wille van verwysingsmoontlikhede oorsigtelik genoem.

Hoofstuk vyf bied die teoretiese agtergrond vir sillabusontwerp. Dit kyk oorsigtelik na

tipiese sillabusse en veral na die taakgebaseerde sillabusse van Prabhu, Breen en Candlin en Long en Crookes asook na die teoretiese basis daarvan. Dit gee ook 'n kort oorsig oor uitkomsgebaseerde onderrig soos tans deur die Departement van Onderwys vir skole en tersiêre instellings voorgeskryf.

Hoofstuk 6 gee 'n oorsig van die prosesse van kurrikulum- en sillabusontwerp na die voorbeeld van Diamond se prosedurale model vir kurrikulum- en sillabusontwerp wat dien as agtergrond vir die voorgestelde sillabus vir Vertaalkunde.

Hoofstuk sewe stel 'n sillabus vir Vertaalkunde op voorgraadse vlak aan 'n universiteit voor. Die inhoud word ingedeel in 'n aantal eenhede wat die kern vorm vir so 'n kursus waaruit die opleier dan vir 'n spesifieke kursus kan abstraher met inagneming van beskikbare tyd en die doel van 'n spesifieke kursus.

Hoofstuk 8 bied die gevolgtrekkings van die studie na aanleiding van die aanvanklike doelstellings.

SUMMARY

[**Key words:** Sillabus; Sillabusontwerp; Syllabus; Syllabus design; Task-based syllabus; Process syllabus; Vertaalkunde; Vertaling; Translation; Ekwivalensie; Equivalence; Culture; Translation & culture; Translation theory; Vertaalteorie.]

The purpose of this study is to design a syllabus for an undergraduate course in Translation Studies, taking into consideration the state of translator training in South-Africa at present and against the background of a task-based syllabus design.

In chapter one the problem statement, the aims of the study as well as the programme of study are given.

Chapter two gives an overview of different aspects the translator will encounter and which should therefore, be included in such a course. This includes approaches to translation (translation theory) and a brief overview of the history of translation, language and culture in translation (Landeskunde) as well as the skills the translator must develop.

In chapter three the need for the training of translators to translate into a second language is discussed. Some theoretical constructs in second language acquisition and translation competence such as Interlanguage, Textlinguistics and language competence are also discussed.

Chapter four gives an overview of the state of translator training in South Africa as well as a brief overview of previous courses. It also briefly focuses on the need for translator training in South-Africa. The courses offered by three prominent overseas institutions are also mentioned briefly for comparative purposes.

Chapter five gives the theoretical background to syllabus design. It briefly discusses types of syllabi, especially the task-based syllabi of Prabhu, Breen and Candlin and Long

and Crookes, as well as the theoretical basis thereof. It also gives a brief overview on outcomes-based education as prescribed for schools and tertiary institutions by the Department of Education.

Chapter 6 gives an overview of the process of curriculum and syllabus design according to the example of Diamond's system model for curriculum and syllabus design which serves as a background for the proposed syllabus in Translation Studies.

In chapter seven a syllabus for Translation Studies at undergraduate level at university is proposed. The content is divided into a number of units forming the core of such a course from which the educator/trainer can extrapolate a specific course, in consideration of the time available and the purpose of such a course.

Chapter 8 gives the conclusions of the study in accordance with the original aims.

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Problem statement

With the introduction of an undergraduate course in Translation Studies at the Potchefstroom University for CHE it was found, in spite of an extensive search, that no syllabus or eminently suitable textbook existed for the presentation of an undergraduate course including both theory and practice. All the other universities and technikons that offer a course in Translation Studies work with courses constructed for their own specific situations and purposes. Most of the courses are specifically designed for post-graduate diplomas or degrees which are based mainly on theory of translation or diplomas, aimed at the specific aims of the institution where they are offered. Parts of available standard works on translation theory or articles are used as texts with differing levels of usability. From in-depth conversations with members of the South African Translators' Institute (SATI) and information acquired from other trainers or translators at tertiary institutions in South Africa, it has emerged that there is a definite need for a core syllabus in Translation Studies for the training of both translators and interpreters.

From the new South African Constitution (1996) where equal opportunities and status are given to eleven South African languages, it is clear that the training of translators and interpreters is a definite priority and will become even more so in future. Although the new constitution allows each province a choice of at least two official languages, it seems that few of the provinces will be able to cope with only two languages. The Gauteng Legislature has already approved the use of four languages, that is Afrikaans, English, Sepedi and isiZulu (Landman, 1996).

With the language situation in South Africa in mind, this study investigates the format and content of a syllabus in Translation Studies. Apart from the general contents of such

a course, translation into a second language is also discussed. Because of the multilingual situation which exists in South Africa, translation into a second language is important. Tertiary institutions that train translators for the South African market should take into consideration the apparent preference of the government to use English as the main language, largely for practical reasons. Given this preference, translators from the eleven different official languages will also have to be able to translate into English in order to make a living.

Diamond's (1989) system model for course development is introduced as a point of reference for the proposed core syllabus in Translation Studies which is the main aim of this study. The model proposes two phases in the development of a course, namely phase 1, the design of the curriculum or syllabus and phase 2, which includes the production, implementation and evaluation of the curriculum or syllabus. Only phase 1 is dealt with in this study.

The translator is expected to perform certain specific translation tasks, such as translation, interpreting and bridge-building in a changed society. Therefore, the proposed syllabus is devised within the framework of a task-based syllabus taking into account the new vision for education (outcomes-based education) and the specific skills needed by the translator who has to perform certain tasks and achieve certain outcomes by using his/her translation skills. Breen (1987:160) describes a task-based syllabus as follows: "Task-based syllabus types ... organise and present what is to be achieved through teaching and learning in terms of *how* a learner may engage his or her communicative competence in undertaking a range of tasks."

The focus of this study is on the specific tasks and content (or form) of a syllabus in Translation Studies that would enable the translation student to learn the process of translation. As far as theory is concerned, it will only be brought in as a formative instrument in training the translator. The aim of this study is, therefore, not to discuss the theory of translation as such, but only to touch on those areas of theory directly pertinent

to this study.

In order to accomplish the specific tasks facing him/her, the translator must have certain skills. Necessary skills for a translator are, among others, interpretation, analysis, writing, reading comprehension, reading, listening, self-expression and communication skills. According to Vreken (1992), university students cannot communicate (read or write) and, in general, do not seem to have the basic skills expected of translators. Other aspects which must be included in such a course are sophisticated language skills in both source and target languages, because the translator keeps himself/herself busy with interlingual communication, as well as some underlying knowledge of the theories and approaches to translation (Komissarov, 1985; Viaggio, 1991; Youssef, 1987).

The following questions need to be addressed:

- What type of syllabus would comply with the requirements for the training of translators in South Africa?
- What should be included in such a syllabus and how should the contents of a course for translator training be structured?
- Why is it important for translators within the South African context to be able to translate into a second language?

1.2 Aims of the study

The aims of this study are to:

- establish the type of syllabus that would comply with the requirements for translator training;
- establish what should be included and how the contents of a course for translator training should be structured; and
- to indicate the importance of translating into a second language within the South African context.

1.3 Central theoretical statement

With the aid of a well-structured syllabus for the presentation of an undergraduate course in Translation Studies at university level, it should be possible for student-translators to learn all the basic techniques and skills enabling them, at entry level, to deal with translation tasks which comply with the requirements of translation practice.

1.4 Method of research

An overview of the available literature on syllabus design, and more specifically on Task-based syllabi, is given as well as an overview of the available literature on the theory, practice and teaching of Translation Studies. From the available literature, a syllabus is designed for the presentation of an undergraduate course in Translation Studies which would comply with the requirements of translation practice.

1.5 Programme of study

Chapter one contextualizes the problem.

Chapter two focuses on the approaches to translation and gives a broad overview of the field of translation and aspects that need to be addressed in a course in Translation Studies.

Chapter three addresses translation into the second language and its importance for the South African context.

Chapter four presents the present situation regarding translator training in South Africa and gives an overview of some courses offered at overseas translation schools as a background towards the development of a SA course in Translation Studies.

Chapter five focuses on the theory and approaches to syllabus design.

In chapter six, Diamond's system model for syllabus design serves as a point of reference for developing the Translation Studies course proposed in chapter seven.

In chapter seven the content of a syllabus for a course in Translation Studies at university level is proposed.

Chapter eight contains the conclusion and recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER 2

PRELUDE TO AN UNDERGRADUATE TRANSLATION STUDIES COURSE

2.1 Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to provide the background and context for an undergraduate course in Translation Studies. Some aspects of the theory and practice of translation such as the approaches to translation, especially the approaches focusing on translation as a process, the need for translating into a second language, as well as the skills needed to become a competent translator are discussed.

In this study the emphasis in the development of a syllabus for a Translation Studies course at undergraduate university level, falls on the **process** of translation which includes the skills and content necessary for the production of an acceptable final product.

Although the study of translation as a product is also important, it should rather be dealt with at post-graduate level because students should first learn to deal with the process (the concern of this study) before they evaluate the product of the process and how it fits in with the receiving culture and literature. Therefore, the theory of translation as such (on which much can be said) is not to be discussed in detail in this study, as it is primarily concerned with the content of a syllabus for an undergraduate course in Translation Studies. Theory will only be alluded to in so far as it has a bearing on the content of the syllabus for an undergraduate course in Translation Studies.

In this chapter the following broad topics are addressed:

- **The approaches to translation.** The approaches focusing on translation as a process

get special prominence and a brief overview of the history of translation is included in the discussion of target language and source language oriented approaches to translation (cf. Section 2.2).

- **Sociolinguistic considerations for translator training** (cf. Section 2.3).
- **Translation and culture (Landeskunde).** The role of culture and its implications for translation and translator training are discussed (cf. Section 2.4).
- **Modes and types of translation.** A brief distinction is given of different modes of translation and texts are classified according to certain types (cf. Section 2.5).
- **The translator and his/her skills.** This includes a brief discussion of the qualities as well as the skills needed by the translator (cf. Section 2.6).

2.2 Perspectives on translation

2.2.1 A brief overview of the history of translation

Several authors underline the ancient history of translation. Baker (1992:100) says that translation is as old as mankind itself; Van Slype *et al.* (1983:32) claim that translation is almost as old as history itself, while Newmark (1978:79) locates the first traces of translation in about 3000 BC. According to Steiner (1975:336ff), the history of translation can be divided into four periods:

- 1 The first period, when translation originated from practical translation, commenced with statements on translation made by Cicero and Horace (47BC) and extended up to Tytler and Hölderlin (1804) (approximately 1700 years).
- 2 The second period introduces the development of methodology and spans from Schleiermacher to Valéry Lambaud (1946) (about 150 years).
- 3 The third period starts with the introduction of structuralism and communication theory, from about 1940 till the present (about 30 to 40 years).
- 4 The fourth period, which overlaps with the third period, situates translation in a wider context and included a number of other disciplines.

Van Slype *et al.* (1983:31) remark that translation has only become more important during the last few decades when commenting on the “substantial growth which it has been particularly marked by since the middle of this century ...”. Van Slype *et al.* (1983:43) further underline the importance of translation today by stating that “translation is one of the principal techniques used to surmount the language barrier and to permit communication between individuals and organisations using different languages”. Schöffner (1991:111) supports this claim by stating that international communication is to a large extent “enabled by translators”. Van der Merwe (1958:237) also emphasises the importance of translation when he states:

Vertaling is die een groot middel wat die volke van die aarde aan mekaar verbind en die een groot draer van kultuurwaardes, kruis en dwars oor die aardbol heen. Dit is die een skakel wat nie kan ontbreek in die betrekkinge, die wisselwerking en wedersydse beïnvloeding onder die volke nie.

[Translation is the one big medium that binds the peoples of the earth to one another, the one major courier of cultural values across the whole universe. It is the one link which cannot be missing in the relations, the interaction and mutual influences between nations.]

Through the ages translators have contributed much to the cultural development of different peoples. According to Delisle and Woodsworth (1995), translators had an influence on the invention of alphabets, specifically translators such as Ulfila who used Greek and Latin characters (1995:9) to transcribe sounds from the Gothic, which at that time was only a spoken language. This transcription was essential for his evangelical task of translating the Scriptures. Mesrop Mashtots invented the Armenian alphabet between 392 and 466 A.D. (1995:11), also for the purpose of documenting and preaching the Scriptures. In Constantinople, at around 860 A.D., the brothers Cyril and Methodius developed the Glagolitic alphabet, the forerunner of the Cyrillic alphabet. Later on in history, in about 1840, a Methodist minister, James Evans (1801-46) translated the Bible

with the use of a syllabary into the Cree Indian language (1995:16-18).

Translators not only contributed to the development of alphabets and the spreading of religion, but also to the development of national languages and national literatures. So, for example, "reformist translators of the Bible into Swedish, in particular, contributed to promote the language. In Germany, too, it was the translation of Christian texts that sparked the development of a standard German language" (Delisle & Woodsworth, 1995:25-26).

Translators also had an important influence on the cultural development of different peoples. Delisle and Woodsworth (1995:26) state that: "As cultures and languages clashed and converged in Britain, translation played its usual role of mediation and cross-fertilization, especially when translators were in the position to alter the course of events, either through the position of authority they occupied, or through the influential nature of the work they accomplished".

The influence translators had on the establishment of national literatures can be seen in the activities of some well-known poets and writers: "For Chaucer, as for other early vernacular writers, there was an overlap between translation, compilation, rewriting and original authorship" (Delisle & Woodsworth, 1995:67). This overlap then contributed to the development of national literatures in that literature from other languages became part of the national inventory of many languages. Through their translations, translators also disseminated knowledge of other cultures and times as well as cultural values, as Delisle and Woodsworth eloquently express it:

Cultural values are embedded in discourses that are canonized to varying degrees in different societies, and these societies are often distant in time, space and tradition. When translators encounter these values, they are not just prospecting for differences, not merely exploring unknown cultural territories. Through the recognition of the Other, they also change the perspectives of their own communities, upsetting the “words of the tribe” to use Mallarmé’s well-known expression (1877). Translators do not simply import values, carrying out a unilateral transfer from a so-called source language or culture to a so-called target language or culture. Whatever they take hold of, they then put into circulation. Their work includes and induces transformations and manipulations. Beyond the prerogatives of patrons, clients and editors, beyond the materiality of texts, beyond the cost of their labour, translators cross and blur the lines between foreign culture and values and those of their own society. Boundaries, after all, are more fluid and less circumscribed than they are thought to be (Delisle & Woodsworth, 1995:191).

Without going into a detailed analysis of the history of translation, it is evident from the brief discussion above that translation has a long history and that many philosophers have thought and written about translation without really solving all the problems related to it. Because the approaches and attitudes to translation also varied through the ages like the swing of a pendulum, it is important to briefly focus on the different theories or approaches to translation.

2.2.2 Theory of translation

2.2.2.1 Introduction

Even though many authors on translation use the term **theory**, one cannot really talk of distinctive translation theories such as, for example, Chomsky’s (1965) Transformational Generative Grammar theory in Linguistics. According to Steiner (1992:xvi), “there are ... no ‘theories of translation’. What we do have are reasoned descriptions of processes”. Holmes (1988:56) defines a true theory as “a series of statements, each of which is derived logically from a previous statement or from an axiom and which together have a strong power of explanation and predication regarding a certain phenomenon”. According to this definition, most of the so-called translation theories are not really

theories. Dussé (1995:19) also states that "theories of translation can be viewed as different approaches". One should, therefore, rather talk about approaches to translation. Gentzler (1993) gives a detailed description of the growth of translation theory as a separate discipline after 1980. Translation theory has had many faces and some of the "theories" on translation would include the writings of the early American literary workshop members, such as Pound, Richards and Will. Gentzler (1993:40) states that: "What emerges from the American contribution to contemporary literary translation theory is less an articulated, coherent, rational theory and more a whole new set of questions." The more linguistically oriented theories, such as Nida's theory of kernel sentences and Catford's (1965) linguistic theory, Toury's (1980) polysystems theory, Nord's (1991) functionalist approach and the later Feminist translation theory, and the view of translation as a discourse of resistance as found in the work of Venuti (1995), all represent different attitudes toward the theory of translation (Wallmach, 1999).

Through the ages different approaches were developed, each specific to the vogue of the time. At first the source language-oriented approach was in fashion. According to this approach, all translations had to be true to the source text (ST), regarding form and content. At present the target language-oriented approach is favoured because this approach lends itself better to a more pragmatic (or sociolinguistic) type of translation. The target text (TT), the end result of the translation, is the important text as can also be seen from the importance of the study of translation as a product in more recent years. The text must, therefore, be translated according to the idiom and language norms of the target language but still retain the context and meaning of the original text. According to this approach the meaning of the text is usually of more importance than the form of the original text. Bassnett-McGuire (1980:74) states that:

It can clearly be seen that different concepts of translation prevail at different times, and that the function and role of the translator has radically altered. The explanation of such shifts is the province of cultural history, but the effect of changing concepts of translation ... will occupy researchers for a long time to come.

As with any scientific endeavour through the ages, some or other approach or concept or paradigm has always been in fashion, irrespective of the specific discipline. So, for example, structuralism early on in the twentieth century became the vogue in psychology, linguistics, literature as well as in the natural sciences. Translation theory also followed the same trend and kept up with the *Zeitgeist*.

When translation theory became important in the 1960s it also hooked on to structuralism, and from there developed with the times.

Initially translation theory was modeled on linguistic theories because it fundamentally worked with languages and was thus seen as applied linguistics. The linguistically oriented models of Catford (1965), Nida and Taber (1982) and Wills (1982) can be seen as examples of this stage.

Translation theorists became disillusioned with the outcomes of the theoretical endeavours of the time and wanted something better. This led to a change in the theoretical focus on translation. The process of translation, the how, became more important. Theorists wanted to know how the translator went about creating a translation: they were interested in the translator's thought processes. The process-oriented theoretical models of Krings (1986) and Bell (1991) reflect on this era when they describe step-by-step- experiments of how the translator translates. This was also the era when information processing became important.

Other theorists were more interested in how the translated text was perceived by the target language reader, and how it fitted in with the receiving culture at that specific point in time. With this in mind, literary translations became more important and researchers also became interested in how the translated literary text fitted in or contributed to the literary system of the target culture. Thus, the product of translation, the translated texts, received more attention. These researchers approached the translated texts from a literary

theoretical perspective and, therefore, moved into the realm of literary theory. Theorists such as Gentzler (1993), Hermans (1991), Even-Zohar (1990) as well as Bassnett and Lefevere (1990) can be seen as exponents of this model.

The role of culture in translation and the influence of translation on culture also received much attention, especially in the work of Bassnett and Lefevere (1990) and Venuti (1995) among others.

Eventually the function of a translation received more prominence. The message in the target language became the more important component of the process of translation. Reis and Vermeer (1984) and later Nord (1991) can be seen as exponents of this model when they introduced the function or the “skopos” of the translation in the target culture as the actual reason for translating.

Of course, the classification of translation theories can be done in different ways and the brief overview above should be seen as but one means of classification. In a course outline of translation theory UMIST (University of Manchester Institute of Science and Technology), for example, divides its syllabus into the following topics:

- Linguistic theories of translation;
- Situation-oriented theories: translation as a communication event;
- Process-oriented theories: translation as information processing;
- Cultural/Ethnographic theories of translation;
- Translation as political intervention: models based on cultural studies; and
- Translation as literary system: polysystem theory (UMIST, 1999).

How the translated texts (especially the literary texts) fit in with the literary repertoire of the receiving culture is also important. This approach has formed the bulk of theoretical

approaches to translation which have been developed since the early 1960s in the Creative Writing Programme at the University of Iowa. This work also incorporated translations of literary texts by international writers (Genzler, 1993:7).

It is interesting to note the similarities between linguistic theory, literary theory and translation theory and the impact they had on one another. Initially, linguistic theories had a great influence on translation theory as can be seen from the linguistically-oriented theories such as the work of Catford (1965) and later the work of House (1981) and Nida and Taber (1982). The swing of the pendulum concerning the approaches to translation as source or target text oriented can roughly be equated to similar periods in literary theory. According to Selden (1985), the author was initially more important in literary theory, while later the text became more important and still later the emphasis shifted towards the reader.

2.2.3 The approaches to translation

Although the systematic and scientific approach to translation gained momentum in especially the twentieth century, scholars have been reflecting on translation for quite a long time. Bassnett-McGuire (1980:39-75) gives a brief and insightful overview of the history of translation theory. What emerges from this overview is that perceptions on what would qualify as a “good translation” have changed through the ages. Nida’s (1976:60) comments on the different attitudes towards the literary and free translation of the Bible warn us to be careful not to see our present preference as the only true approach.

Not only the approaches and attitudes toward translation are confusing and ambiguous, but at times also the terminology used in the practice of translation. The term **translation** can refer to the transfer of a text or ideas from the source language to the target language in both written and oral communication (Bekker, 1983:100; Roberts, 1985:343; Van den Broeck & Lefevere, 1979:11). Written translation is usually referred to as translation

while oral translation is referred to as interpretation (Brislin, 1976:1; Bekker, 1983:100). Interpretation can, however, also refer to the “clarification of meaning” or according to Van Gorp *et al.* (1984:151) to the “explanatory analysis of meaning through a consideration of form and content”. Dussé (1995:17) states that: “The polysemous nature of the term translation is emphasised by the fact that translation can be considered as a product or a process.” Consider these examples:

- 1 I read a translation of the Hebrew text.
- 2 The translation of Hebrew into English is difficult.

He also says that:

The general use of the term Translation Theory (synonymous with the term Translation Studies) that refers to the problems raised in the production and description of translation, should not be confused with theories of translation in the narrow sense. In the narrow sense, theories of translation can be viewed as different approaches which are determined by 'different perspectives or foci of attention' (Nida, 1976:67). Theory of translation is also used by Newmark (1988:20) to refer to an appropriate method of translation for a specific text ... This implies that he is actually referring to a type of translation as it is used by House (1977:188), Toury (1984:74-75) and Van Gorp (1984:329). In this regard it is important to recognise that although Nida and Taber (1982:173) write about different kinds of translation, they use the term kind in the same sense as House, Toury and Van Gorp use the term type (Dussé, 1995:19).

Gentzler (1993) discusses the development of translation theory since the early 1960s to the present and differentiates between two approaches. The one approach, which he refers to as Translation Science, involves the use of linguistic theories such as De Saussure's Structural Linguistics and Chomsky's Transformational Generative Grammar, as expressed in Nida's (1979) theory of kernel sentences. According to these approaches, “translation essentially takes place in the area lying between two linguistic codes”, because training a translator is to “equip the novice translator to make linguistic choices in the process of postulating an equivalence” (Delisle, 1988:36).

The other approach, which he refers to as Translation Studies, involves the use of literary

theories influenced by Russian Formalism, New Criticism and Deconstruction. The Translation Studies approach focuses mainly on the translation of literary texts and Gentzler (1993:82) states that “the fundamental goal of literary translation is to achieve, whether by the same or by differing devices, the same artistic effect as in the original”.

For the purpose of this study, more attention is given to linguistically-oriented theories because translation is regarded as a process rather than a product (the focus of literary translation), and also because, according to Delisle (1988:45), the activity of translating from a psychological point of view “consists in untangling the complex web of logical relations that bind a text together. This distinction is of the utmost importance in the pedagogy of translation, where the point is not to compare performance (that is, to compare texts that have already been translated), but to give students a grasp of the process of semantic transfer”.

There are different ways in which translation theory or approaches to translation practice can be described. With the development of translation theory different approaches have been favoured and various researchers on translation theory have also suggested different classifications of theories. The oldest distinction was made between literary and free translation (Newmark, 1988:80). However, in more recent approaches Nida (1976:67) distinguishes between philological, linguistic and sociolinguistic theories of translation while Newmark (1982:38) distinguishes between a communicative and a semantic approach to translation. This list of classifications of approaches to translation can be expanded, but in essence it can be divided into two main approaches:

- 1 Translation theories/approaches oriented towards the source language.
- 2 Translation theories/approaches oriented towards the target language.

These two main orientations towards translation theory have alternated through the ages. At present the target-language oriented approach is the vogue.

2.2.3.1 Source-language oriented theories/approaches

In the past, both translation theory and practice favoured the original text to be translated as literally as possible. St. Augustine already favoured an approach which was “tenax verborum”, that is, “which adheres to the words” of the original text.

From Nida and Taber's (1982) discussion of equivalence one can distinguish two variants of this approach:

- 1 Translation aimed at a near absolute formal equivalence, and
- 2 Translation which has to be as literal as possible, but which does not violate the source language. (In other words, striving towards formal equivalence but with respect for the way in which a language utterance is made in the target text.)

The first variant is actually a theoretical and practical impossibility because languages differ too much in their structure. The transfer is done in a type of “in-between language”, something which Nida and Taber (1982) call “translationese”.

The arguments that favour an approach which adheres to the source language as far as possible, maintain that the original text and its historical context would be more accessible to the reader. An inherent problem with such an approach is that the second receiver/receptor often does not have enough common precognition (of time and culture) to make the communication really meaningful. This is where the concept “Landeskunde” becomes important (cf Section 2.4.2). This problem of not enough precognition can, of course, be partially overcome by making use of forms of metatext such as footnotes and explanatory notes, but many translators have serious doubts about solving the problem in this way. A better approach, according to the latest vogue in translation, is to acculturate the text so that it becomes part of the culture of the target audience. This would imply finding equivalences in the target culture, thus a target-language oriented approach. A balance should, however, be achieved because the text still remains the original author's

text. Too much interference from the translator in changing the message of the text to fit his/her own point of view will divert too much from the original message. This should then be seen as a new text and not a translated text, because the translator remains but a courier of the original message.

The source text oriented approach is in essence a text centred approach: The aim is to conserve what the original text says and the way in which it is said as accurately as possible in the target language text, but in consideration of the idiom of the target language. The old Afrikaans Bible translation of 1933 was translated according to this approach.

Such an approach has certain benefits but also certain limitations, and although it is not the most popular manner to do translations today, it should not be disregarded completely. Texts in which the surface structure is important, and in which the way something is said forms part of the total message of the text should be attempted without prejudice about its efficacy.

2.2.3.2 Target language oriented theories/approaches

Whereas the previous approaches represent a text-oriented approach, there are target language theories or approaches which are oriented towards the receiver in the target language. Here, different variants of the approach can be distinguished.

- 1 translation aimed at the achievement of dynamic equivalence,
- 2 paraphrasing, and
- 3 transposition.

2.2.3.2.1 Translation aimed at the achievement of dynamic equivalence

The translator uses dynamic equivalence (the term is discussed in more detail in Section 2.3.2) to try to achieve a similar effect on the target language reader than the effect

experienced by the reader of the text in the source language. The effect the source text has on the original reader is, however, difficult to determine and one can only assume the effect it might have. In order to transfer the same meaning in the target text, the characteristics of the form of the source language are usually restructured to conform to the target language. The aim is thus to bring the text to the reader, and everything is done to make the translated text as accessible as possible to the reader (Newmark, 1982).

This target language oriented approach is favoured today. The scholarly work done by Nida and his co-workers (Nida, 1959; Nida & Taber, 1982) has had a profound influence on this approach. One should bear in mind that the principle of equivalence remains a presupposition, because the exact effect the original text has on its reader cannot be known or emulated. Although the role of the receiver in the communication act is important, it must not be forgotten that the text is the intersection of the act of communication. As the effect the text probably has on the receiver can only be projected, it will, therefore, remain hypothetical in character because it is only a projection. Newmark (1982:51) makes the following remark in this regard:

The translation theorist has to raise the question, in considering Nida's dynamic equivalence, not only of the nature (education, class, occupation, age, etc.) of the reader, but of what is to be expected from them. Are they to be handed everything on a plate? Are they to make any effort? Are they ever expected to look a word up in a dictionary? ... However, I am writing against the increasing assumption that all translating is (nothing but) communicating, when the less effort expected of the reader, the better.

2.2.3.2.2 Paraphrase

Paraphrase is a free transfer of the source text to the target text. According to Newmark (1988:90), paraphrasing is "an amplification or explanation of the meaning of a segment of the text" to make it more understandable in the target language. A paraphraser can easily shorten the source text by leaving out parts which s/he deems unnecessary, s/he may add something, or in many cases rework the text. A paraphrase can be done with

many objectives but certainly the most probable would be to bridge the cultural and the space and time gaps between the source text and the target text. According to Nida (1976:50), the translator of the new "Cotton Patch" version of the Gospel made many drastic reworkings in his specific translation of the Gospel. The biblical milieu (Jerusalem) is exchanged for Atlanta; the apostle Peter becomes Rock Johnson, etc. The receiver's expectations of what a translation is or of what a good translation should be, would probably in this case result in diverse conceptions.

2.2.3.2.3 Transposition

Newmark (1988:85) describes transposition as "a procedure making a change in the grammar from the SL to the TL". This procedure or "shift" as Catford (1965) calls it, is usually used when the source language (SL) grammatical structure does not exist in the target language (TL). Furthermore, it is also used "when literal translation is grammatically possible but may not accord with natural usage in the TL" (1988:86). Transposition also refers to the replacement of a virtual lexical gap by a grammatical structure or can also be relevant simply because of stylistic considerations.

2.3 Sociolinguistic considerations for translation training

Nida (1976:48-49) indicates that the role of the message in translation is still the dominant element in discussions on translation, even to the extent that equivalence of form may be ignored. Although content and form can never be divorced from one another in reality, the message of the text must still be seen as the dominant or most important element of the text.

When dealing with the content of the text, the translator must clearly distinguish between the discourse itself and the cultural background in time and space. The translator then has to decide whether s/he will use the less understood cultural background of the source text, or the better understood but anachronistic cultural background of the target text. Nida's

(1976:50) reference to the “Cotton Patch Version” of the New Testament can be seen as an example.

The reason for translating the text will play an important role in the choice the translator has to make regarding the equivalence of the source text and the target text.

According to Nida (1976:50), the aim of the translation will determine the approach to be followed regarding the cultural background. Nord (1991) refers to the *scopus* of the translation which explicates the reason for translating a specific text and how it should be translated. When the translation has to evoke a specific action or behaviour with its readers, the translator will be justified in adapting or modifying the cultural background. If the aim of the translation is, however, to make the reader understand what happened at a specific time in history, the translator will have to reproduce the cultural background as realistically as possible.

Triandes (1976:229) differentiates between “emic” (culture-specific) and “etic” (universal) elements which the translator has to keep in mind when translating texts with specific cultural elements. Concepts such as fire, moon and sun are, for example, “etic”, while a concept such as “fairness” would be “emic”. “Etic” concepts will always be more easily translated, while “emic” concepts are by definition impossible to translate directly or perfectly - even mother-tongue speakers sometimes find it difficult to define such concepts. When the “emic” concepts are translated it is important to relate them to their context, to what precedes them as well as to any other situation in which they can be used. Within the South African context with its different cultural groupings, the translator will always have to be especially aware of the “emic” elements when translating a text.

Taking into account the sociolinguistic situation in South Africa with its eleven official languages yet also noting a marked trend towards the sole use of English as a virtual *lingua franca* (cf. Section 4.6), the translator should be able to translate into English as it

would be a second language to the majority of translators. Most of the translations which have to be done into the indigenous languages will surely also be from English original texts. It is, therefore, important that South African translators should be taught to translate, not only from, but also into a second language and more specifically into English as a second language within the present context. In chapter 3 translating into a second language is discussed in more detail.

2.4 Landeskunde

When referring to the term “Landeskunde” one is actually referring to one of the most problematic aspects of translation. Erdmenger and Istel (1973:10), who coined the term Landeskunde, define it as the explanatory description of the physical (“naturreäumlichen”) and cultural phenomena which are encountered in a specific country or land.

One could say that the term “Landeskunde” encompasses the whole context of a country or region, its language and its culture. This would include knowledge of the social, economical, political, geographical, historical, religious and monetary idiosyncrasies as well as the customs and traditions of the cultures of the source text and the target text.

Newmark (1988:94) defines culture as “the way of life and its manifestations that are peculiar to a community that uses a particular language as its means of expression”. Landeskunde, or regional studies, can, therefore, be seen as the study of a region's influence on the language of a given community living and working in a specific region. This would entail region-specific influences which differ from one region to another, especially if they are far removed from one another.

Postma (1995:48) points out that the content of Landeskunde entails “that different ways of thinking and different values are represented by different cultures”.

The translator would have to take note of the whole cultural framework of both the source and the target cultures. When talking about Bible translation, Nida (1964:223) also

emphasises the fact that the translator must have knowledge, not only of the language, but also of the culture in which the language is embedded. He states that “this cannot be done outside of the total framework of culture, of which the language in question is an integral part”. This would naturally apply to any translation. In order to be able to translate, therefore, “one must not only know a language, but also be familiar with the customs, mores and civilization of those who speak it” (Delisle, 1988:39), or as Lanham (1980:14) remarks, “culture does not exist apart from language”, which he calls “the agent of cultural transfer”. Landeskunde thus implies an interdisciplinary study, focussing on the differences between two cultures and how these differences are manifested in the different languages.

According to Newmark (1982:70-83; 1988:94-103) and Nida (1964), the translator must always keep certain cultural (Landeskunde) elements in mind when translating a culture-specific text. Table 2.1 presents the cultural aspects the translator has to take cognizance of:

Table 2.1: Important Landeskunde elements

CULTURE	History, traditions, customs
National identity Vs Foreign identity	Sociology: values, norms, taboos, laws, socially acceptable behaviour, punishments, politics, etc.
Dynamic culture	Food and clothing, family ties, status symbols, architecture, economy, art, literature, etc.
Cultural blending	Loan-words, neologisms, influence on customs, etc.
PLUS	
	Geography and climate Plants and the environment Animals and insects

PLUS

	Arbitrary characteristics of the language, Syntax, morphology, semantics, phonology Lexicon
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Von Humboldt (1988:152-153) states that a person's mother-tongue may somehow direct his/her way of thinking:

In their most primal relation to the nature of individuality, therefore, language and the basis of all nationality have a direct resemblance to one another. But the effect of the former is stronger and more evident, and the concept of a nation must chiefly be founded upon it. Since the development in man of his human nature depends on that of his language, the very concept of the nation is thereby directly given, as that of a body of men who form language in a particular way.

Any society orders its own reality by means of its language. Language is a structured unit which makes use of signs, and, therefore, is a semiotic system. When the translator wishes to translate a text (novel, or technical report) s/he must take cognizance of the way in which the source text community envisages reality in its own particular language system. This would enable him/her to transfer the text, as sender, albeit second sender, into the target language system in order to make the same reality accessible to the source language reader.

The following generalisations on language, also of importance to the translator, can be mentioned:

- Language is a product of the human spirit and stands in the service of communication;
- language is a sign system which came about through conventions of a speech community; and
- the sign system (language) stands in close contact with the extra-lingual surroundings as well as to other signs in the system (Erdmenger & Istel, 1973:13).

These relationships between the elements of the system are realised on all levels of

language analysis, thus on the syntactic, semantic and pragmatic levels (Erdmenger & Istel, 1973:13).

Knowledge of the cultural background of the source language is very important to the translator because translation is not only the replacement of one nomenclature with another. Although there might be words or terms that could apparently be replaced directly, each term carries with it a whole set of distinctive connotations. Compare, for example, the terms Christmas, Kersfees, Weinachten and Noël. All of them describe the festivity surrounding the commemoration of the birth of Christ and all of them are celebrated on the same date, but each nation or society has its own customs regarding the festivities. It is the task of the translator as first reader of the source text, to analyse and explicate elements in the source text that may be unknown or foreign to the target culture.

If the translator omits some of the connotations which may be important to the message of the text s/he can easily be typified as a "traitor".¹ The translator would have to find ways and means as to how to bridge the cultural gap between the source language and the target language.

Hafter (1984:29) suggests three basic methods of making the foreign elements more accessible to the target audience:

- the creation of a system of effective connotative cultural concepts in the target language, which boils down to the re-creation to something to reflect the same or near association in the source language;
- the introduction of meta-text, in the form of classifiers or explanations or annotations outside the text, such as the use of footnotes; and
- through adaptations, where the system/situation is substituted with something with more or less a parallel function in the target text.

When it comes to practical translation, the translator will quickly find that some elements

seem to be untranslatable. Van den Broeck and Lefevere (1979:61-66) give a number of translatability laws in order to establish the translatability of a text, thereby helping the translator in making decisions. They are:

- 1 The bigger the translation unit, the bigger the translatability and vice versa.
- 2 The less information is given, the less complex the structure will be and the bigger the translatability and vice versa.
- 3 Translatability is bigger when a contact exists between the source language and the target language.
- 4 Translatability is bigger when the source language and the target language are on an equal general-cultural level of development.
- 5 Translatability is bigger between two unrelated languages, provided that the conditions in 3 and 4 are applicable and care is taken of “faux amis” (false friends or apparent similarities). This “law” will pose problems in the South African situation because, although the different unrelated languages in South Africa do have some contact, they are not all on an equal level of development as far as general and cultural issues such as scientific language usage is concerned, because of the previous marginalization of the indigenous languages. Therefore, translation from English or Afrikaans into the black indigenous languages will pose problems for the translator.
- 6 Translatability is also influenced by the expressive ability of the target language.

Newmark (1988:7) states that when a text is translated there will always be loss of meaning to some extent:

if the text describes a situation which has elements peculiar to the natural environment, institutions and culture of its language area, there is an inevitable loss of meaning, since the transference to ... the translator's language can only be approximate.

¹ Here one could refer to the Italian expression “traduttore - traditori” (translator - traitor).

Newmark (1988:41) suggests that a cognitive analytical translation should first be done. This is a kind of “pre-translation” where the target language is first analysed. Newmark posits that “a cognitive translation may serve as a ‘tertium comparationis’ between texts with distant cultures and radically different language structures”. This suggestion seems to be on a near similar level as Nida and Taber’s (1982) suggestion of analysing the source text into kernel sentences (cf. Section 2.3.1.2.1.).

Newmark (1988:35,94-102) then goes on to give a number of practical tips for the translation of cultural problems which can be summarised as follows:

1 Proper names

They usually fall “outside” of the language and are usually untranslatable or difficult to translate and should not be translated. The only exceptions are names of, for example, cities which have an accepted translation in the target language. (One should also take note of the fact that in some cultures “parallel” names exist for certain town names, for example Tshwane for Pretoria, Thlokwe for Potchefstroom, etc., but these are not translations.)

2 Historical institutional terms

It is suggested that, unless accepted and established equivalents already exist, the terms should be kept in their original form.

3 International institutional terms

These terms are usually translated by official translators of international organisations and the translator should make sure of the acceptable term.

4 Cultural terms

According to Newmark (1988), such terms usually pose few problems as they are often used in order to “give colour” to the country of origin and to show respect for the foreign culture. The translator should, however, be very careful in making his/her decision and ensure that the terms will still be understood by his/her target readers.

Bassnett-McGuire (1980:14) makes the following remarks on the translation of cultural elements:

Language (then) is the heart within the body of culture, and it is the intersection between the two that results in the continuation of life-energy. In the same way that the surgeon, operating on the heart, cannot neglect the body that surrounds it, so the translator treats the text in isolation from the culture at his peril.

2.5 Modes and types of translation

When dealing with translation one can distinguish between different modes and types of translation.

When speaking about modes of translation one is referring to the medium in which the translation is done. The medium can either be written or spoken. The distinction between the modes of translation can be made between written translation, generally referred to as translation, and oral translation, generally referred to as interpreting.

There are various types of interpreting. Consecutive interpreting occurs when the interpreter (translator) translates the spoken text after the original speaker has ended his/her speech or pauses to allow the interpreter to translate. Simultaneous interpreting is used when the interpreter interprets or translates a speech into another language at the same time as the original speaker is speaking. Simultaneous interpreting is usually done at symposiums or conferences where the necessary facilities are available, or in the South African legislatures where different languages are accommodated. Another type of interpreting which can be termed two-way interpreting, includes liaison interpreting, court interpreting, sight interpreting, whisper interpreting and community interpreting. In this situation the interpreting is done to facilitate understanding between two or more speakers and it can be done consecutively or simultaneously, depending on the prevalent circumstances.

The translator of written texts may encounter texts that can be divided into different translation type categories according to the field or topic of the text. Each of these types of translation poses its own problems and necessitates a different approach to the text. It would be ideal for a translator if s/he could specialise in one or more fields.

For the purpose of translation, texts can be classified into the following translation types:

- Technical texts;
- Economic texts;
- Legal texts;
- Consumer-oriented texts;
- Scientific texts;
- Administrative texts; and
- Literary texts.

All these types of texts can be seen as technical texts. However, there is scope to categorise them into specific translation types because there are enough differences between the different types of texts in each category. As this classification would be done for practical reasons, there may be an overlap of categories in certain texts. So, for example, a legal text may have technical or economic contents, or a consumer-oriented text (advertisement) may have some technical or scientific data included in the text. These categories should be seen as broad categories for the purpose of accommodating the translators' fields of expertise.

All the texts categorised under specific translation types also belong to specific information types (or text types) which are categorised according to the types of information presented in the text. The main categories of text types, that is, artistic, informative and appellative text types can manifest in a variety of texts, not only because of the type of information carried by these texts but also because of the function of the language used in the text. Artistic texts include texts such as novels, dramas, poems, personal correspondence, etc., texts aimed at qualitative entertainment. Informative texts

include technical reports, textbooks, etc., texts whose main purpose is to inform the reader. Appellative texts include propaganda material, political speeches, notices and advertisements, that is, any text which has as its aim to change the reader's attitude or view.

Table 2.2 gives a schematic overview of different text and information types as well as language functions and some examples of text types.

Table 2.2: Text types, language functions and types of information

TEXT TYPES:

ARTISTIC/EXPRESSIVE TEXTS	INFORMATIVE TEXTS	APPELLATIVE TEXTS
Aesthetic literature texts:	Scientific textbooks	Notices
Poems Novels Dramas, etc.	Technological surveys	Propaganda
Authoritative texts: Political speeches	Reports	Sermons
Autobiographies	Commercial, economical and industrial reports	Advertisements
Personal correspondence		Newspaper reports
		"Pulp fiction"
(How it is said)	(What is said)	(How and what is said)

LANGUAGE FUNCTIONS:

Expressive function
Informative (referential) function
Appellative (vocative) function
Aesthetic (poetic) function
Phatic (relational) function
Metalingual (definitional) function

TYPES OF INFORMATION:

Syntactic information	(Deals with the RELATIONSHIP between signs)
Semantic information	(Deals with the SUBSTANTIAL ASPECTS of the signs)
Pragmatic information	(Deals with the EFFECT or COMMUNICATIVE EFFECT of the signs)

2.6 The translator and his/her skills

As indicated so far in this chapter, the translator is faced with many problems and decisions. It is clear, therefore, that the translator should be a person with specific qualities and skills. As the student translator should be sensitised to these qualities and skills, a discussion thereof should also be included in a course on Translation Studies. In the following section the qualities of the translator and the skills s/he needs are discussed.

2.6.1 The profile of the translator

When discussing the profile of the translator, one cannot say that only a person with specific abilities or characteristics can become a translator. There are, however, certain qualities in a person's character that would be conducive to his/her ability to translate.

Pinchuck (1975:6) mentions some qualities of a translator which include a knowledge of both his/her source and target languages. He refers to Wilson (1972) who claims that:

Speaking a language is important, nevertheless the true interpreter goes much further: he is concerned to mediate ideas, law custom, symbolism ... The mediator is concerned with a two way communication: he listens as much as he teaches, and the will to listen has been much rarer than the urge to expound. The mediator seeks to reconcile men, to achieve mutual understanding.

Wilson's view of the translator as mediator corresponds to the general feeling that the community interpreter acts as mediator in different cultural settings. This opinion was also expressed at the symposium on community interpreters held in Bloemfontein in 1997. Van Schalkwyk (1976:10) also refers to the translator as mediator, or in his words "tussenganger". Beukes (1992:1) emphasises the importance of translators and interpreters as facilitators when she says: "Taalwerkers, en in die besonder vertalers en tolke, moet as fassiliteerders van kommunikasie oor taalgrense heen, as diskoerstussengangers, taalgebaseerde ongelykhede in die nuwe demokrasie help uitskakel sodat strukturele gelykheid bevestig en bestendig kan word." In addition to the qualities mentioned above, "the translator must have a wide store of

knowledge and be insatiably curious about virtually everything. He must be versatile and at the same time accurate and persistent, able to work under pressure yet sensitively” (Pinchuck, 1975:6).

Pinchuck (1975:6-12) points out that the objective of the former Rhodes University course was “to turn out a translator capable of working independently” and who would “learn rapidly from practical experience”. He also mentions that prospective students had to pass an aptitude test to “establish whether the student has sufficient language and translating competence to benefit by tuition”. Pinchuck emphasises the importance of a theoretical component in the course “because only theory can provide the method, the systematic approach, the science as it were by which the practice can be handled most effectively”. The ideal translation student should be somebody who has the ability to learn how to analyse a problem, to understand it, and then to put the pieces together again.

Apart from the qualities mentioned above, the translator also has to be objective when dealing with a text. S/he should also have a good understanding of human nature, because although s/he should be able to work long hours in isolation, s/he also has to deal with human customers. S/he should also be imaginative in order to translate the message of the text in as appealing a manner as possible to the target reader. S/he should also operate with singleness of purpose and resolution because, more often than not, translation work is done under the pressure of an unrealistic pending completion date. S/he must also have a strong sense of competitiveness, should have a lot of patience and inspiration and should be willing to work hard. A knowledge of salesmanship and of typography and style would also benefit the translator. Furthermore, the translator should also have an inquisitive mind so that s/he can keep up with changes in and the concepts used in different types of texts.

2.6.2 Specific skills for translators

According to Steenkamp (1996), the translator needs specific skills to perform specific translation tasks. The translator should accomplish specific outcomes by using these skills, depending on the reason for and the audience of the translation.

In order to accomplish the specific tasks and specified outcomes, the translator must have certain skills. The Oxford Compendium (1997) defines the term skill as “expertness, practised ability, facility in an action; dexterity or tact”. The skills the translator need are, amongst others, interpretation, analysis, writing, reading comprehension, reading, listening, self-expression and communication skills.

Most of these skills are, according to Marx (1997), the basic and critical outcomes to be achieved in the learning area "Language: Literacy and Communication" for the proposed Outcomes-based Education Syllabus of the Department of Education and Training.

Meintjes (1992:18), when referring to the role of translation in the new South African dispensation, adds to and emphasises these skills when she states that “translators have to have the ability to interpret, rewrite, reformulate, annotate, and comment. They have to have exceptional linguistic skills and cultural as well as linguistic sensitivity to respond to the differing demands of different texts. These skills can only be developed through training and practical experience”.

2.6.2.1 Interpretation

Both the terms interpretation and translation are very complex phenomena. The term translation may have different interpretations as pointed out in Section 2.3.2. The term interpretation/interpreting also has different connotations. Usually, within the context of translation, the term interpreting is used for oral translation while written translation is referred to as translation. For the purpose of this study, both written and oral translation

(translation and interpreting) are included in the act of translating.

The Oxford Compendium (1997) defines the term interpret as: “explain, explicate, clear up, clarify, elucidate, illuminate, throw *or* shed light on, simplify, decipher, decode, define, spell out, make sense (out) of, translate, paraphrase: *Would you interpret this clause of the agreement for me?* understand, construe, take (to mean), read, figure or work out, sort out, unravel: *I haven’t any idea how to interpret this poem.*”

The skill of interpreting will be taken to mean the first part of the definition above, that is, to explain, explicate, decipher, understand, make sense out of the meaning of, etc. The term in the context of skills will convey the meaning of understanding fully. Peck and Coyle (1984:134) see the term as meaning “the clarification of meaning” and Van Gorp *et al.* (1984:151) explain the term as an “explanatory analysis of meaning through a consideration of form and content”. The translator, therefore, must be able to interpret the content of the source text in order to convey the correct message of the source text to the target text.

2.6.2.2 Analysis

The translator is also expected to analyse the source text s/he is working with before translating it into the target text, because through his/her analysis the translator will have to make sure that all the elements of meaning in the source text are conveyed to the target language without deviating from the real meaning. The Oxford Compendium (1997) defines the term analysis as: “**a** a detailed examination of the elements or structure of a substance etc. **b** a statement of the result of this”. It can, therefore, be interpreted as “To take to pieces; ... to separate, distinguish, or ascertain the elements of anything complex ... or statement, a sentence, a phrase, word, conception, feeling, action, process, etc”. and the term analysis as “The resolution of anything complex into its simple elements”. The translator, therefore, has to have a good knowledge of both the source and target languages in order to analyse the text so that s/he can convey the content of the message

without losing, or to lose as few as possible of the complexities of the source text when translating into the target language.

2.6.2.3 Reading comprehension

The Oxford Compendium (1997) defines the word comprehend as: “understand, see, grasp, conceive, take in apprehend, realize, fathom, perceive, discern, absorb, assimilate, appreciate: *Do you comprehend how serious the matter has become?*” and also as “grasp mentally, understand (a person or thing)”. This skill then entails that the translator should be able to grasp and understand the context and the meaning of the text s/he is working with in order to render an accurate translation into the target language.

2.6.2.4 Self-expression

The Oxford Compendium (1997) defines the term expression as: “verbalizing, airing, representation, declaration, utterance, assertion, enunciation, ... communication, voicing” thus, the action of representing in words or symbols. This can be interpreted as meaning that the translator should be able to transfer the meaning in the source language to the target language in such a way that it is clear and understandable to the target audience or reader. Thus, expressing him/her-self in such a way that target reader understands the message fully.

2.6.2.5 Communication

Th Oxford Compendium (1997) defines the term communicate as: “transmit or pass on by speaking or writing (communicated his ideas) ... succeed in conveying information, evoking understanding etc. (he communicates well)” and also “get or put across, make understandable, get through to, reach ... make oneself understood”. It is clear that the translator should be a good communicator in order to convey the message of the original text into the target language. S/he should be able to communicate the full spectrum of

meaning and contents of the original. The translator should, however, always remember that s/he is but a second sender in the communication process and should, therefore, be true to the original act of communication as manifested in the original text.

2.6.2.6 Reading, writing, listening and speaking

These four skills can be taken for granted, because it is expected of a good translator (or any student at tertiary level) to be able to read the original written text or listen and comprehend the original oral text in order to communicate it to the target audience either in writing or in speech. These skills can be enhanced by practical exercises in the class.

2.7 Conclusion

From the aspects discussed in this chapter it is clear that translation is a process with many problems and that the translation student should be made aware of this. The translator should also remember that s/he is busy with the continuation of an act of communication, and should also take cognizance of the communication process. Within the South African context, specifically, communication into a second language becomes very important. The student should also be made aware of the multitude of decisions s/he will have to make when translating a text and the pitfalls s/he will encounter. Therefore, emphasis should be placed on the importance of the specific skills required by a translator.

In chapter 3 translating into a second language is discussed.

CHAPTER 3

TRANSLATING INTO A SECOND LANGUAGE

3.1 Introduction

In this chapter the following issues are discussed: translating into a second language, the importance of such an approach in the South African context and a model of translation competence. The discussion concentrates on a study conducted by Campbell (1998) in Australia. It concerns the training of an Arabic emigration minority to translate into English as a second language to gain access to employment in an English dominated society.

The training of translators to translate into the second language is “an area largely ignored by applied linguistics in general and by the literature of translation studies in particular” because it “do(es) not fit easily into the framework established by orthodox translation studies, which tends to assume that all translators work into their first language” (Campbell, 1998:1). Campbell (1998) argues for a translator-centred approach to the study of Translation Studies rather than the text-centred or system-centred approaches which Translation Studies have followed up till now. He also introduces the term **translation competence** as an analogy to language competence.

According to Campbell (1998), translation competence is the competence of a translator to translate into a second language, which indicates a strong link with second language acquisition. Campbell (1998) researches the translations of a group of students translating from an Arabic source text into English, and pays special attention to a number of elements that determine translation competence. These elements are, translation competence and grammar, translation competence and lexis and the translator’s monitoring of translation performance. From these elements Campbell proposes a model for translation competence which implies a translator-centred view of translation (Campbell, 1998:152-176).

Campbell (1998:22-29) gives reasons why it is necessary to train translators to translate into the second language:

Translation is, of course, a consequence of bilingualism; in a sense, it is the essential bilingual act, the moment when both languages are simultaneously in play. But bilingualism is not politically, socially or economically neutral - the world is not constructed in such a fashion that each language has equal status. Except for some notable examples where official language planning has conferred 'equal' status on two languages, for most bilinguals in the world one of their languages will be characterized as having lesser status in some sense. Similarly, the relationship between source and target languages in translation are [sic] seldom in balance except in those rare cases where 'equality' is legislated, such as the case of English and French in Canada. Apart from these cases, the political and social asymmetry of source and target language is guaranteed by the phenomena of immigration, colonialism, international trade and geopolitics (Campbell, 1998:22).

The situation in Australia as sketched by Campbell (1998), also applies to the South African situation. In the following paragraph the reasons for training translators to translate into a second language are discussed.

3.2 Relevancy of training translators to translate into a second language for the South African situation

South Africa is a country with eleven official languages but a number of other languages such as European languages and some Asian languages are also used. Because of South Africa's British colonial past, English became a dominant language in South Africa. Even after colonisation, during the previous era of the National Party government in South Africa when English and Afrikaans were the two official languages, English retained its dominance. After the transition to the New South Africa in 1994, with a constitution which affords equal status to eleven languages, English can still be seen as one of the most dominant languages. As will be pointed out in Section 3.6, it would seem as if the government is moving towards a monolingual policy with English as the official language for government purposes (Du Toit, 1998; De Klerk & Bosch, 1998; Verhoef,

1998). The demand for translation services in South Africa is much bigger than can be accommodated by the small percentage English mother tongue speakers. Therefore, the need to train translators who can translate into a second language, and in the South African context that would be English, is of great importance. This means that special provision will have to be made in a course in Translation Studies for the educational needs of translators working into English as a second language, because most of the translation students might not be English mother-tongue speakers.

A training programme for translation students would not only have to focus on the acquisition of exceptional language competence in their first language, but also in their second language. As this would be English, in the majority of cases, they would also have to acquire exceptional translation competence.

3.3 What is translation competence?

In order to establish what translation competence is, a few related fields in linguistics such as language competence, second language acquisition and interlanguage as well as textlinguistics have to be investigated.

Translation competence relies heavily on second language competence because the translator who works into his/her second language is expected to have an excellent command of the second language. Campbell (1998:1) sees the study of translation competence as a special type of *second language acquisition*, because the translator who translates into the second language is at an advanced level of learning the second language. The level of second language acquisition also relates to what Selinker (1992) terms *interlanguage*.

Selinker (1992:247) summarises his view of the Interlanguage (IL) hypothesis as follows:

The IL hypothesis, as I currently see it, states that in attempting to express meaning in an L2 and in attempting to interact verbally with native, as well as other non-native, speakers of that L2, at least the following occur:

- (1) People create a (partly) separate linguistic system.
- (2) In that system interlingual identifications and language transfer are central.
- (3) One selectively uses the NL (Native Language) by context.
- (4) One fossilizes at least part of the IL.
- (5) One selectively fossilizes differentially according to linguistic level and discourse domain.
- (6) The IL one is creating is susceptible to the force of several types of language universals, as well as interlanguage universals.
- (7) The IL one is creating is susceptible to the training and learning strategies that are adopted.
- (8) The IL one is creating is susceptible to simplification and complexification strategies.

The interlanguage, or the learners' use of the second language, represents the level of competence in that language. The degree of competence can be assessed on a scale from not knowing the language to near mother-tongue competence of the language.

As the translator working into the second language will have to work with texts, knowledge of the structuring of a text above the sentence level will also be important. This then brings the role of *textlinguistics* into play in the determination of translation competence. Another important issue that has to be taken into consideration is the *level of language competence*, because the translation profession has deep concern about the accreditation of translators and the setting of standards (Campbell, 1998:2).

3.3.1 Second language proficiency and translation competence

According to Campbell (1998), the translator's second language competence will have to be of a high quality when translating into the second language. The quality of translation produced by the translator will depend on his/her second language proficiency. When writing a text in a second language, the writer can hide his lack of knowledge of that language by only writing what s/he knows, keeping within the boundaries of his/her second language abilities. The translator as second sender is, however, bound by the

language used by the original sender or author of the text and is forced to reveal his/her inabilities if s/he cannot express him/herself in the second language.

A course in Translation Studies, especially when it is intended to train translators to translate into the second language, would have to incorporate techniques for the teaching of second language proficiency. Special attention would also have to be given to the differences between spoken and written language. The designer of a course in Translation Studies would have to take note of the many studies such as Firbas (1992) and Geluykens (1994) already done on the difference between spoken and written language.

3.3.2 Interlanguage and translation competence

Since the translator who translates into the second language could by definition also be seen as a learner of the second language, a description of his/her translation competence could be discussed under the umbrella of interlanguage studies. Working within the interlanguage framework also draws on related areas such as contrastive analysis and second language acquisition.

The term interlanguage (IL), first used by Selinker (1972) refers to the learner's use of an intermediate language system when learning a new language. His/her knowledge of the language system would range from no knowledge at all to a knowledge compatible with that of a mother tongue speaker. Nemser (1971) calls this system an "approximative" system. Corder (1971) uses the term "idiosyncratic dialect" and talks about the learner's "transitional competence" or "transitional dialect". According to Selinker (1972:214), the "set of utterances" produced by the learner of the Target language (TL) "is not identical to the hypothesized corresponding set of utterances which would have been produced by a native speaker of the TL", and one has to acknowledge the existence of a separate linguistic system based on the speech of the learner. This system is called Interlanguage. Selinker *et al.* (1975:140) emphasise the fact that an IL "is not an exact translation of the

TL, that it differs from the TL in systematic ways, and that the forms of the utterances of the learner are not random”. A learner’s interlanguage can be seen as a developmental process. Appel and Muysken’s (1987:83) views seem to be in contrast with Selinker’s original concept of what IL is. They state that: “Although the term seems to imply it, interlanguage is not a kind of language somewhere between the first and the second language with structural features from both, but rather an intermediate system characterized by features resulting from language-learning strategies”. Corder (1971:90) stresses the developmental aspect of the system when he states that it is “a dynamic, goal-oriented language system of increasing complexity”.

With regard to interlanguage studies, one can say that the translator's second language competence at a certain stage, would determine his/her command of the second language, his/her interlanguage, when translating into it. The second language competence of the student translator would also have to be improved.

3.3.3 Textlinguistics and translation competence

Hatim and Mason (1997) argue for the inclusion of textlinguistics when designing a syllabus for Translation Studies because the translator works with texts. De Beaugrande and Dressler (1981:3) state that: “A text will be defined as a communicative occurrence which meets seven standards of textuality. If any of these standards is not considered to have been satisfied, the text will not be communicative.” Textlinguistics studies the text as a unit which should comply with a number of standards of textuality in order to be accepted as a text. The seven standards of textuality are: cohesion, coherence, intentionality, acceptability, situationality, intertextuality and informativity. According to De Beaugrande and Dressler (1981:19),

the mechanisms which combine texts as single contributions into discourses are sets of mutually relevant texts directed to each other, reveal major factors about the standard of textuality. **Cohesion** is affected when surface structures are shared or borrowed among separate texts. **Coherence** of a single text may be evident

only in view of the overall discourse. **Intentionality** is shown in the goal-directed use of conversation, and **acceptability** in the immediate feedback. The role of **situationality** is particularly direct, and the whole organization illustrates **intertextuality** in operation. The selection of contributions to conversation can be controlled by the demands of **informativity**.

Carstens (1987:27) explains the process of creating a text according to the standards of textuality as follows:

Ons kan argumentsonthelwe kyk hoe hierdie standaardbeeld angewend word by die 'skep' van 'n teks: die skrywer het byvoorbeeld die bedoeling of intensie (i.e. **intentionality**) om 'n gedig te skryf oor een of ander tema. Die aangesprokene wat die gedig lees/gaan lees, aanvaar (i.e. **Acceptability**) dat die skrywer van die betrokke gedig iets aan hom wil oordra, d.w.s. sekere informasie gaan uitgeruil word (i.e. **informativity**). So 'n informasie-oordrag is moontlik omdat daar 'n sekere sosiale konteks (i.e. **contextuality**) geplaas is/word. Op grond van sy kennis van vroeëre soortgelyke tekste (i.e. **intertextuality**) sal die aangesprokene in staat wees om die bedoelde informasie in die relevante sosiale konteks te kan interpreteer (of nie-interpreteer). Al hierdie (pragmatiese) faktore sal bepaal of die aangesprokene daarin sal kan slaag om die inhoudelike/tematiese samehang (i.e. **coherence**) van die teks te snap. Die inhoudelike samehang word grootliks versterk indien daar duidelike strukturele/linguistiese samehang (i.e. **cohesion**) tussen die woorde van die sinne van die 'teks' is.

A text is written (or spoken) for a specific reason, illustrating the standard intentionality, and the reader (or listener) accepts that s/he is to learn something, illustrating the standard acceptability, that is, some new information is to be received, illustrating the standard informativity. Such a text always occurs within a certain context, illustrating the standard contextuality. Because of the reader's (or listener's) previous knowledge of similar texts s/he will be able to interpret the message, illustrating the standard of intertextuality. All these factors will determine whether the reader (or hearer) will be able to understand the thematic unity of the text, illustrating the standard of coherence. The coherence will be greatly strengthened if the text has clear structural elements linking the words and the sentences of the text, illustrating the standard of cohesion. On the basis of the discussion above, Carstens (1997:82) defines a text as a unit of language usage which is experienced by the text participants as a unit and is accepted on syntactic, semantic and pragmatic

grounds.

The seven standards of textuality as discussed by De Beaugrand and Dressler (1981), De Beaugrande (1980), Halliday and Hassan (1989) and Carstens (1997) can be explained in the following way:

Cohesion: The manner in which the elements of a text are combined. De Beaugrande & Dressler, (1981:3; 49) define it as: “The surface text, i.e. The words we hear or see, are mutually connected within a sequence. The surface components depend upon each other according to grammatical forms and conventions, such that cohesion rests upon grammatical dependencies”. Cohesion, therefore, is the actual grammatical organisation of the text and includes mechanisms such as recurrence, parallelism, paraphrase, ellipses, tense, aspect, junction and intonation in the spoken text, which serve to connect the different parts of the text.

Coherence: It is the way in which concepts and relations of the textual reality are made mutually accessible and combined. This indicates the cognitive content activated by the interlocutors. De Beaugrande and Dressler (1981:84) state: “We would define this continuity of senses as the foundation of coherence, being the mutual access and relevance within a configuration of concepts and relations.” This implies the logical continuation of a theme, the fitting together of consecutive sentences and paragraphs of the text.

Intentionality: It indicates that the writer/speaker intends to convey a message to the reader/hearer. A text without any intention would, therefore, not constitute a text.

Acceptability: It indicates that the message conveyed should be acceptable. The reader/hearer could expect that s/he will receive a coherent, understandable message. The message should also be structured according to Grice’s (1981) conditions of conversation, quantity, quality, relevance and manner.

Informativity: It is the measure in which the text is expected to convey new information. It does not only refer to the informativity content of the text, but also to the novelty or unknown content of the text. De Beaugrande (1980) distinguishes three orders of informativity: the first order informativity reflects the lowest degree of informativity for which any other alternative would be possible; the second order informativity is seen as the normal standard for textual communication, which may seem to be predictable but less probable alternatives and the third order informativity refers to options of information outside the normal or probable which could lead to interesting but less understandable texts.

Contextuality: It refers to the factors which make the text relevant to the situation or context in which it occurs. Halliday and Hassan (1989:6-7) distinguish two types of context, namely, the context of the situation, and the context of the culture in which the situation occurs. Contextuality then refers to the aspects that make the text relevant in a specific occurrence of use, such as the time and place of the communication, the participants, the form of language used and shared background knowledge.

Intertextuality: It refers to the factors that make the use and understanding of the text dependable on one or more known, existing or similar texts that the language user has encountered before. Intertextuality creates certain expectations as to how the text should be understood and to what it may lead. It also plays an important role in the classification of text types.

As the translator works primarily with texts, his/her capacity to deploy grammar and lexis above the level of the sentence, thus in a complete text, is of great importance. Campbell (1998:60) refers to this knowledge as the translator's textual competence. Bachman, (1990:88) defines textual competence as follows: "Textual competence includes the knowledge of the conventions for joining utterances together to form a text, which is essentially a unit of language – *spoken or written* – consisting of two or more utterances that are structured according to the rules of cohesion and rhetorical organisation."

3.3.4 Language competence and translation competence

The translator's translation competence is intertwined with his/her language competence. For the translator who translates into the second language, his/her second language proficiency or competence is crucial to his/her translation competence. Campbell (1998:58) sees this as a very special variety of second language proficiency and states that

the second language translators have to work within the limitations of their second language repertoire, and the stages of individuals' language development must be reflected in the quality of their translation. But the translators also have to work within the limitations of the source text, and it is this that makes translation into the second language a very special variety of second language writing.

As the translator works primarily with written texts, as opposed to the interpreter who works with spoken texts, the translator's written language proficiency in the second language should be of a high quality. That is, it must display a good grasp of the use of language and its relevance to the specific social context.

Chafe and Tannen (1987) review studies done on the difference between written and spoken language and come to the conclusion that there are no vast differences between the two language modes but that the differences rather relate to the medium of language use. The most important differences can be tabulated as follows (cf. Table 3.1).

Table 3.1: The differences between written and spoken language

Written language	Spoken language
Written language is more permanent and can easily be collected, stored, examined, manipulated and analyzed.	Spoken language is more transient and special means have to be devised to collect data.
Written language is usually better structured and less complex.	Spoken language is usually more complex in terms of embedment and verb structure.

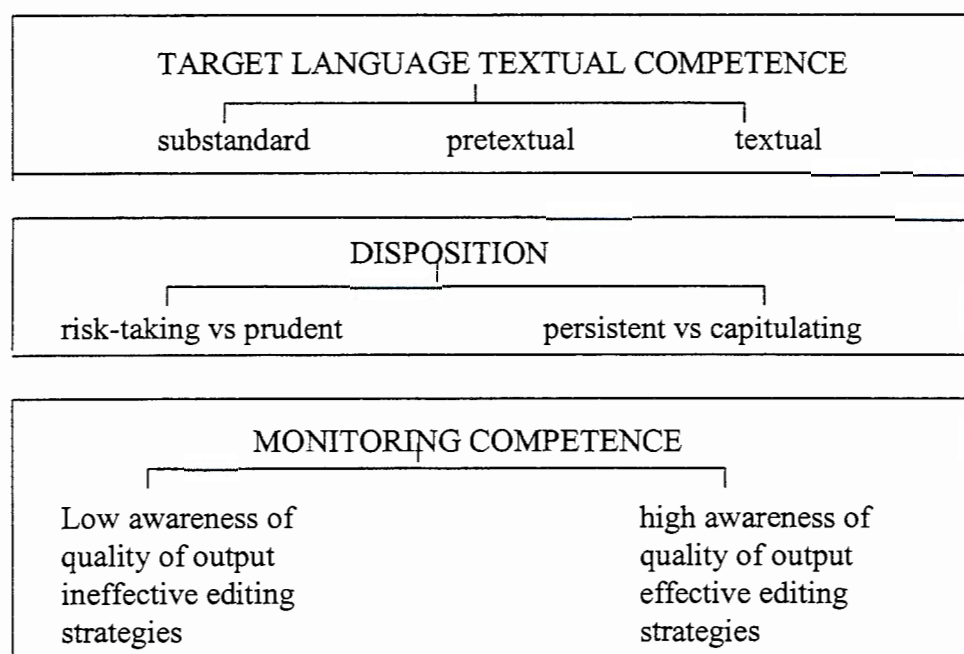
The themes used are usually higher in thought content, have better sentence structure and fewer grammatical errors.	Makes more use of imperatives, interrogatives, exclamations, first and second person pronouns and refers more to the audience and situation.
Greater density in the use of nouns, adjectives, prepositions and articles.	Higher in the use of pronouns, verbs, adverbs and interjections.
Use more adverbial and adjectival clauses.	Uses more subordinate clauses.
Uses greater lexical diversity, more difficult words, more simple sentences and is more comprehensible in the use of long words.	Uses more self-reference, and qualifications, simpler vocabulary and is more comprehensible when short words are used.
Uses more gerunds, participles, attributive adjectives and passives.	Uses more clauses and infinitives.
More formal and integrated.	More detailed and uses more tense switching.

3.4 A model of translation competence

Translation competence can be seen as the translator's competence to work in the second language and the manner in which s/he produces translations of quality. The higher the quality of the translation, the better his/her translation competence. This would also imply that the translator working into the second language has a proficient command of the second language which should be as close as possible to the language proficiency of a mother-tongue speaker of that language. It would also imply that s/he has a competent command of writing in the second language.

Campbell (1998) proposes a model of translation competence as shown in Diagram 3.1.

Diagram 3.1: A model of translation competence



(Campbell, 1998:154).

According to Campbell (1998:152), a model of translation competence should be able to:

- show whether translation competence is divisible into components, and if so describe those components and their interrelationships;
- describe the developmental pathway taken in learning how to translate; and
- include means of describing the differences between the performance of different translators.

The model shows the three components of translation competence, that is: The Target Language Textual Component, Disposition and Monitoring Competence. It is important to note that translation competence, especially when translating into the second language, relies heavily on the ability of the translator to manipulate the genre potential of the target language by developing grammar and lexis above the level of the sentence.

The first component deals with the translator's language or second language competence and shows three levels of competence, ranging from low competence (substandard) to

high competence (textual) that reflects the translator's second language textual competence. The second component deals with the translator's disposition, his/her attitude or approach to the task while the third component deals with the monitoring competence of the translator. A translator with a high level of second language competence would monitor more because of his/her better knowledge of the second language and would use more effective editing strategies, showing a higher awareness of the quality of his/her output. On the other hand, a translator with a low level of second language competence would monitor less and also use less effective editing strategies showing a low awareness of the quality of his/her output.

With regard to requirement b) the model shows a development in translating competence reflected by the increasing skills acquired by the translator who progress to a higher level of translation competence.

Each of the components deals with a different facet of the translation process. Campbell (1998:155) states that:

The textual competence component is a facet of target language competence – in fact, the ability to deploy the resources of the target language in a highly specialized way. The disposition component reflects individual characteristics of the translator unrelated to language competence, and the way in which these characteristics impact on the job of translating. The monitor component has to do with both target language competence and individual approach. Indeed, these three components could be rephrased as three everyday questions that one might ask about a potential translator (especially a potential translator into the second language): (a) Can they produce translations in stylistically good English? (b) Do they have the right personality for translating? (c) Can they turn out text that needs the minimum of revising?

The optimum combination for a good translator appears to be high textual competence and a risk-taking but persistent disposition. The textual competence component of the model focuses on the development of language competence above the level of the sentence, thus on the textual level. Student translators should be trained to be able to deploy English (or any other second language) sentences in a way that resembles the

formal written genre required by the source text.

With regard to the third requirement, the model includes the means to describe differences between the performance of translators because it locates the development of the translator on a pathway of competence development in the optimum use of the second language. The model, therefore, gives answers to how and why the abilities of translators differ and develop (Campbell, 1998:158).

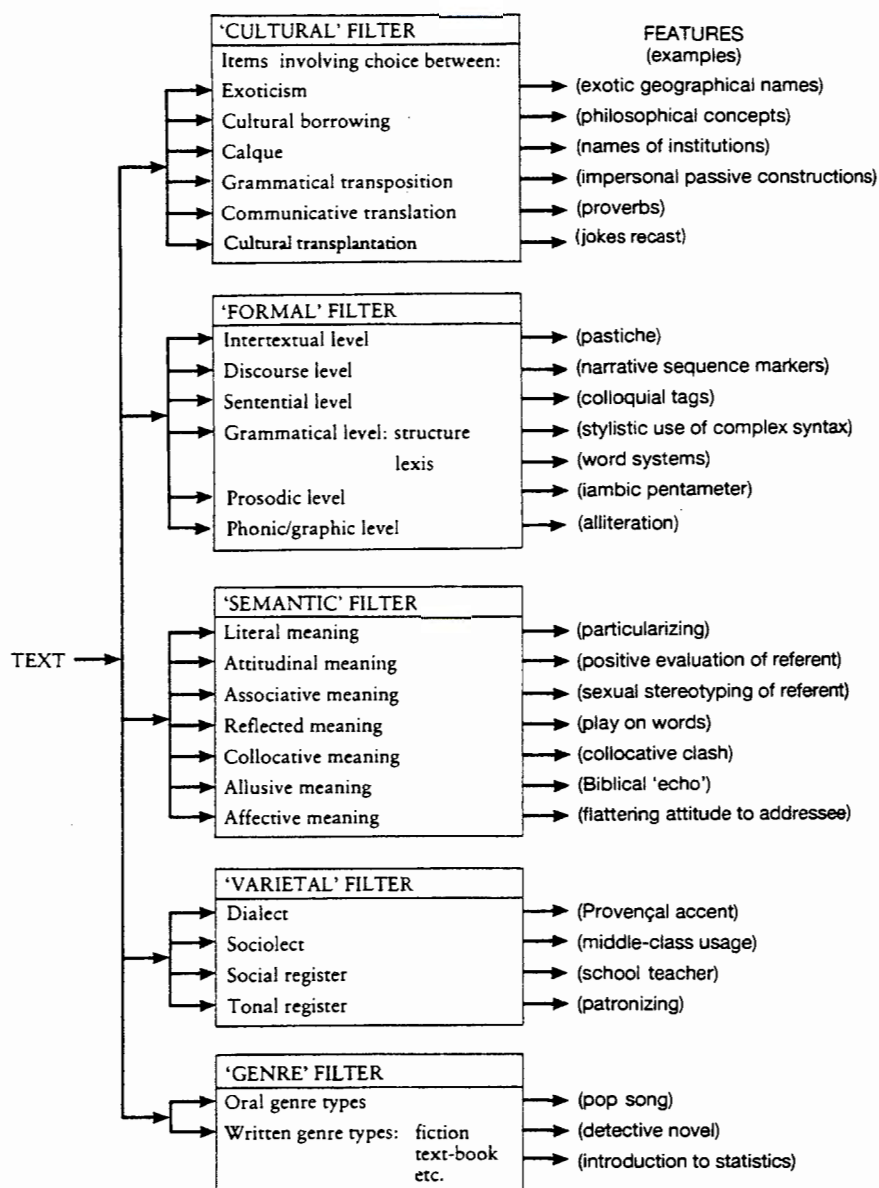
There are, however, some aspects of importance in translation that are not covered by the model. The model does not consider the target language competence at the level of the sentence and below. If, however, the model considers the target language competence on a level above the sentence it could be assumed that the translator will also be competent in the target language at the level of the sentence and below. Furthermore, it does not consider real-world knowledge, a study of cohesion, a matching component, first language interference and the stamina of the translator to keep producing well-formed language under pressure. All these aspects are important in translation.

Hervey and Higgins (1992:246) propose a schema of textual filters which can be used to measure translation competence regarding the formal properties of the text (cf. Diagram 3.2):

3.4.1 Applicability of the model

Although Campbell's model was constructed from a narrow set of data derived from a specific text genre translated from Arabic into English as a second language, the model could also be applied by examining different language combinations, different subjects, different genres and translation into the first language. The model could also be applicable to considerations of translation pedagogy and translation assessment. The applications are discussed in the following paragraphs.

Diagram 3.2: Schema of textual filters



(Hervey & Higgins, 1992:246).

3.4.1.1 Translation competence and translation pedagogy

As indicated in Section 3.4.1 a model of translation competence can be divided into relatively independent components that could be useful as building blocks in designing a

curriculum or syllabus for a course in Translation Studies. It is important that such a course should include the different components of the model, especially in the training of translators translating into a second language, such as English. Depending on their linguistic skills in the second language students are likely to attain different levels of achievement in the various components of translation competence. After establishing the level of translation competence of the student translator, specific strategies can be employed to remedy his/her skills level. A model of translation competence could also be instrumental in profiling the competence of the learners rather than assessing the quality of the translation by measuring the quality of the learner's output. By drawing up a profile of translation competence a model of translation competence could also be used to provide the students with a source of knowledge about their level of achievement. In accordance with the assessment requirements within an outcomes-based approach, a portfolio of a student's work could be compiled. Although the feedback would be slower than in the marking of an individual translation task, it would show the student's development because of its incremental character. The information gained from a translation competency profile could be used for feedback and would be instrumental in shaping the way students learn. Furthermore, it could also be used to diagnose student problems and serve in the design of individualised teaching and learning strategies.

3.4.1.2 Translation competence and translation assessment

Profiling the translation competence of a student by making use of a portfolio of tasks can provide an extra source of student assessment. A combination of marks given for individual assignments and the student's developmental profile, could lead to a more objective professional judgment of tests and examinations. Within the scope of the National Qualifications Framework (NQF), the framework for assessing student performance for qualification purposes within the outcomes-based approach to teaching, accepted by the South African National Education Department, profiling the translator competence of a student in Translation Studies will provide for performance indicators (cf. Section 5.9.1.1.).

Performance indicators provide the details of the content and processes the student has to master to achieve a specific outcome and to show achievement. By profiling the student's work in a portfolio which indicates his/her translation competence, an assessment scale could be devised through which the student's performance and mastering of the process of translation can be assessed.

3.5 Conclusion

When considering translation within the context of second language acquisition, the lecturer should be able to gain fruitful insight into the performance of the students, especially when the focus is put on translation as a process and not merely as a product. More effective and better targeted strategies could then be put into place in the training of translation students because the assessment of the student's development would be much easier, as it would provide information on the way in which students of translation should be taught translation skills.

In this chapter translation into a second language is discussed and its relevancy to the South African multilingual situation is highlighted. A model of Translation Competence, suggested by Campbell (1998), is evaluated against the background of Translation Competence in interaction with a number of fields of study including Second Language Acquisition, Interlanguage, Textlinguistics and Language Competence. Lastly, the applicability of the model in the teaching of translation is investigated. It is found that Campbell's proposed model of Translation Competence can be effectively applied in the teaching of future translators.

In chapter 4 a brief overview is given of the status of translation courses in South Africa, and the translation courses of a few international schools of translation are discussed.

CHAPTER 4

AN OVERVIEW OF NATIONAL AND INTERNATIONAL TRANSLATOR TRAINING

4.1 Introduction

In this chapter the situation regarding translator/interpreter training in South Africa (past to the present) is discussed. The language situation in South Africa and some problems it poses for translator training are briefly discussed. An overview of translation courses presently taught at South African universities and technikons is given and the courses offered at some overseas translation schools are discussed. The latter serve as background for the proposal of a course in Translation Studies which would meet the requirements of the present situation in South Africa.

4.2 Translator training in South Africa

4.2.1 An overview of the history of translator/interpreter training in South Africa

The training of translators and interpreters at academic institutions is well established in Europe and America. Although translation is a very old discipline (cf. Section 2.2), even these continents only relatively recently started with the academic training of translators. According to Pinchuck (1975), an institute for the training of translators in Heidelberg Germany was instituted in 1930 while most of the other translation schools in Europe came into being in the 1940s and later. The first academic programme for the training of translators in South Africa started at Rhodes University in 1975 with the introduction of the one-year post-graduate diploma in translation. Pinchuk (1975:2) points out that, although the overseas experience in translator training has been helpful it is not necessarily relevant to the South African situation and consequently, “We must beat out a path of our own” (Pinchuck, 1975:2). While the course offered at Rhodes University has since been discontinued, various other

South African universities have started with translation courses, offering them at different levels, but mostly at post-graduate level. The contents and the types of courses offered at South African universities and technikons are discussed in Section 3.2.

4.2.1.1 The former Rhodes University course in translation

As previously mentioned, the Rhodes University course in translation, which was started in 1975, has since been discontinued, but most of Pinchuck's (1975) information about the former Rhodes diploma course is still relevant for a course in Translation studies. A brief overview of the contents of the course is given below.

In a paper read at the South African Translation Institute (SATI) conference in 1975 (then SAITINT) Pinchuck gave an overview of the course offered at Rhodes University. Pinchuck (1975:3) states that “experience has shown that bilingualism and a language degree do not necessarily mean an ability to translate”. A translator must have a particular type of bilingual competence. A translator should not merely render one language utterance into another, but “Among other things, the translator’s talent is the ability to render a content expressed in L1 by an **appropriate** utterance in L2. This is a strange and rare ability, much rarer than bilingualism”.

According to Pinchuck (1975:9), an introduction to Linguistics is an essential component of the course. Pinchuck states that translation “can be seen in terms of interaction between persons in society, as a social process expressed through texts”. He includes communication theory and sociolinguistics as essential components of the course, emphasises the importance of a background in grammar and the distinction between different functional styles and their role in communication. He remarks that: “Without a background in grammar, however, it would not be possible to characterise these styles and one would be confined, ... to vague generalities. The importance of familiarising the student with the discrepancies between style levels and roles in different languages can hardly be stressed” (Pinchuk, 1975:9). This underlies the need for students to have

knowledge of language and text types and functions. A study of documentation principles, history of translation, theories about translation, translation processes, equivalence, the question of translation units as well as elements of lexicography and the principles of terminology, and of course, practical translations are also included in the course. Students are also required to do composition exercises, lead seminars and compile their own terminological card index. Pinchuck (1975:11) sums up the objectives of the course as follows:

At the end of the course, the students should have the basic terminology of translation theory and practice and should be able to keep up with developments. The students should understand the basic theory and concepts and their practical application, and the relationship of translation to various disciplines, its social functions and the translator's expectations and responsibilities. ... The students should be able to express themselves in a range of styles in their TL and recognise the different styles in the SL and to relate these to the corresponding styles in the TL. They should understand how to find the information needed for a translation, how to use dictionaries, bibliographies, libraries, documentation systems and live reference sources. The student should be able to co-operate with colleagues and to work alone. An almost pedantic concern for accuracy and detail should have been developed.

Although all the skills mentioned above are very important for the translator, they cannot all be accommodated within a Translation Studies course. Therefore, a module in Information Studies which includes the use of libraries, documentation systems and references in more detail, will be included as a fundamental module within the proposed BA (Language Practice) (See Section 5.9.1).

4.2.2 Review of translation and interpreting courses offered in South Africa

Kruger and Groenewald (1997) conducted a survey of training courses in translation and/or interpreting at South African universities and technikons. According to their survey, 14 of these higher education institutions offer some or other course in translation and/or interpreting.

Most of these courses offered at a university are at post-graduate level as a post-graduate diploma or an honours or masters degree in Translation and/or Interpreting. Such courses are offered at the University of the Free State, the Rand Afrikaans University, the University of South Africa, the University of Stellenbosch, and the University of the Witwatersrand. The University of the North offers one paper in Translation (Language, Translation and Interpreting) as part of their honours curriculum. The University of Port Elizabeth offers translation as part of their honours courses in the Department of Afrikaans and Dutch with the co-operation of other language departments. The University of Natal (Durban campus) and the University of the Witwatersrand offer translation as a part of their BA courses in languages, but do not offer Translation Studies as an independent subject or major in any of their undergraduate courses. The University of the Witwatersrand also offers an undergraduate diploma in Interpreting. The Cape Technikon, Technikon South Africa, Technikon Pretoria and Technikon Free State all offer a three-year National Diploma: Language Practice, which includes a module or modules in Language and Translation Practice. Most of the Technikons also offer further qualifications such as a M Tech. and D Tech. in Language Practice which could be equated to a post-graduate course at a university. According to Kruger and Groenewald (1997), the Potchefstroom University for CHE is the only university which offers Translation Studies as a major subject for a B.A course. The University of Natal (Pietermaritzburg campus) also offer an undergraduate course in Translation Studies. The course is part of their curriculum for Afrikaans, but as from 2000 an independent course in Translation Studies with a language and Translation Studies as a major will be offered. Apart from the undergraduate course in Translation Studies, the Potchefstroom University also offers post-graduate courses in Translation Studies as well as papers in Translation and Interpreting as part of their Honours course in English. In addition and in co-operation with the Department of Justice, the university's Telematic Learning Systems programme also offer a three-year undergraduate Diploma in Legal Interpreting with different exit levels. A diploma course for Legal Interpreters is also offered at the Universities of the Free State, Port Elizabeth and the Witwatersrand (SATI, 1998:1).

Although there are a number of translation courses offered at South African universities and technikons, only one course is offered as an independent BA course and that is at the Potchefstroom University. All the other courses offered at universities are at a higher level or only feature as part of another course. The diplomas and degrees offered at technikons in South Africa are also complete courses aimed at the training of translators.

The aim of this study is then to develop a core syllabus for Translation Studies as a major course in a BA curriculum at under-graduate level.

4.2.3 An overview of the present syllabi taught at universities and technikons

Entrance requirements for all the courses include a proven proficiency in one or more languages, a specified level of academic study depending on the course enrolled for, as well as an entrance or screening test. The under-graduate courses and diplomas require a Senior Certificate or equivalent qualification while the post-graduate diplomas and degrees require a Bachelors degree or equivalent tertiary qualification.

All the syllabi include (cf. Table 4.1) an overview of the Translation and Interpreting profession, and/or an overview of the field and scope of Translation and Interpreting Studies, Theory of Translation and Interpreting, Practical Translation and/or Interpreting. To a lesser extent Linguistic background, methods in translation, terminology, culture and translation, skills and principals of Translation and/or Interpreting and computer literacy as well as some special field or fields of translation and/or interpreting are also included. The Technikon diplomas include specialised areas such as Business Administration, Public Speaking, Practical Language courses and Journalism Practice and Information as options for the course. A number of the advanced qualifications also include a module on Research methodology and require a thesis or dissertation.

A survey of the contents of the different qualifications as given by Kruger and Groenewald (1997) shows that there are certain core elements that are included in all the

courses. Such elements should of necessity have to be included in a core syllabus in Translation Studies. Table 4.1 shows only the elements included in the different syllabi as indicated by the various institutions. Because all the categories are not specifically mentioned, it might be that certain elements might be included in a course although they are not explicitly mentioned in the report by Kruger and Groenewald. The report does, however, give a broad overview of the contents included in the syllabi which might be taught more extensively in some syllabi while it might only be toughed on or mentioned in other syllabi. The overview in Table 4.1 should, therefore, not be seen as an exhaustive overview of the contents of syllabi at South African universities and technikons, but only serves as a broad indication of the contents included which have a specific bearing on Translation Studies.

Table 4.1: Contents of translation courses at different universities and technikons in SA

Content element of course	University										Technikon			
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	1	2	3	4
Overview: Translation/Interpreting Profession	X	X	X					X		X				
Overview: Scope of Translation/Interpreting	X	X			X			X	X	X				
Theory of Translation	X	X	X		X	X	X	X	X	X				
Theory of Interpreting		X						X						
Practical Translation		X	X			X	X	X	X		X	X	X	X
Practical Interpreting		X						X						
Linguistic background		X	X			X	X	X	X					
Terminology			X					X						
Language practice		X	X			X		X			X	X	X	X
Lexicography			X			X								

Content element of course	University										Technikon			
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	1	2	3	4
Computer Literacy		X				X		X			X	X	X	X
Terminology								X						
Methods in Translation	X	X	X		X			X	X					
Methods in Interpreting		X						X						
Skills and principles		X						X	X					
Text analysis	X		X		X									
Language editing	X		X		X	X		X						
Evaluation of translation								X		X				
Processes of Translation		X	X		X			X						
Language functions, text categories and functions			X					X						
Research methodology		X												
Translation aids		X						X		X				
Client contact											X	X	X	X
Stylistics						X	X							
Translation: specialised fields			X		X		X	X	X	X				
Supplementary contents						X					X	X	X	X
Specialised translation									X					
Specialised interpreting		X	X											
Dissertation/Thesis		X						X						

Universities:

- | | | | |
|---|----------------------------|----|-------------------------|
| 1 | Univ. of Natal | 2 | Univ. of the Free State |
| 3 | Rand Afrikaans Univ. | 4 | Univ. of South Africa |
| 5 | Univ. of Port Elizabeth | 6 | Univ. of Stellenbosch |
| 7 | Univ. of the Western Cape | 8 | Univ. of Potchefstroom |
| 9 | Univ. of the Witwatersrand | 10 | Univ. of the North |

Technikons:

1	Cape Technikon	2	Technikon South Africa
3	Technikon Pretoria	4	Technikon Free State

From Table 4.1 it can be concluded that most of the universities include sections on translation theory, practical translation, language editing, the processes and methods of translation, translation and culture as well as an overview of the profession and the scope of translation in their courses. Only some of the institutions offer training in interpreting, probably because it is such a highly specialised activity. Most of the universities do, however, touch on interpreting. A linguistic background to translation is also generally included in the courses. However, little attention seems to be given to the specific skills as discussed in chapter 2 of this study, and except for the technikons, it is not clear whether much is done about the language competence, and especially linguistic competence in the second language of the students. A new course in Translation Studies as proposed in this study would, however, not differ radically from the courses presented at present. There would, however, be a change in focus as it would be important to train students in the present South African context to be able to translate into the second language, in most cases English, as discussed in chapter 4. Certain core elements that already form part of the present syllabi taught at South African universities and technikons, as well as at overseas institutions, should be included in any course in Translation Studies.

4.3 The need for and critique of translator training programmes

When considering the aspects discussed in seminars on translation training and the critique universities have received on the content of their training courses, most of the aspects included in the former Rhodes University course would have to be included in a new course. However, special attention will have to be paid to the specific skills translators should have as well as to language competence in both the source and target languages. The demands set by the changed South African context would also have to be considered when proposing a course in Translation Studies.

Decisions about the contents of a course in Translation Studies at undergraduate university level should also take into consideration some of the important sentiments expressed in 1993 at an international conference on the training of translators and interpreters held in Pretoria. Some of the ideas presented at the conference will now be discussed.

Beukes (1993b:1) remarks that, "because of the unique demands of our devastated economy, employment conditions, a new T/IT (Translator/Interpreter Training) system could obviously not be based either on our present domestic situation, or on Eurocentric or Anglo-American models". She continues by saying that "the harsh reality of the discourse requirements of our rapidly changing polyglossic South African society **dictates** the need for institutionalised training of translators and interpreters" (Beukes, 1993b:2).

Beukes (1993b:2) further emphasises the need for translator and interpreter training at different levels, because: "Since the inception of T/IT in this country in 1975 it has been firmly based on post-graduate, university training alone." She also mentions criticism against the training of translators and says that the most frequent complaints are "the inadequate language proficiency of graduates and the practical ineffectiveness of theoretical models of translation" (Beukes, 1993b:2). Participants such as McLachlan, (1992) and Pinchuck (1986) also emphasised these kinds of complaints.

Beukes (1993:4-7) mentions the status of translators and the importance of translation as a crucial human activity which could only be understood and enhanced by adequate training of translators and interpreters. Beukes (1993a) also emphasises the importance of fostering a positive attitude towards multilingualism, the importance of critical language awareness and the relationship between language and power which should be included in a translation course so as to promote social transformation in a changing South African community.

The first report on the training of translators and interpreters which appeared in South Africa was the Marais Report which was published in 1968. Kruger (1992b:2) reports that “when the HSRC (Human Sciences Research Council) started a comprehensive investigation into language in the labour situation in 1981, they planned to include a survey on language practitioners (translators, interpreters, editors, proof-readers, language advisors) ... this culminated in the Pinchuck report (1986)” on the training of translators and interpreters in South Africa. Morris (1987) summarises the problem areas pinpointed in the Pinchuk report as well as the recommendations made. Comments made by Morris (1987:37) include the following: “The problems concerning the type, number and content of courses can only be solved by the universities themselves, since they have autonomy in these matters.” Concerning the need for in-service training and the length of such training she says: “It is generally recognized that there is an organisation-specific knowledge which any newcomer has to acquire, but that much time also has to be devoted to improving the newcomer’s **linguistic knowledge, translating techniques and information accessing skills**”, thereby indicating that linguistic knowledge, translation techniques and information accessing skills should, however, be taught by universities and technikons in their training programmes.

According to Heese (1984:6-9), “most interpreting difficulties in South African courts arise from cultural and legal aspects, terminological problems and the linguistic competence of available interpreters. It is, therefore, essential to develop legal terminologies in the indigenous languages. ... Without sufficient support from the linguistic community, any effort in this direction (the development of legal terminologies in the indigenous languages) would probably fail, and new ways would have to be found to alleviate the linguistic communication problems in South Africa’s courts of law”. This emphasises the importance of studying terminology in a translation course.

4.4 Monolingualism, bilingualism and co-lingualism in South Africa

According to Beukes (1992:2), in the past language policy in South Africa basically

rested on the principle of linguisticism, that is, the domination of one or more languages at the expense of the rest of the indigenous languages. In the case of South Africa English and Afrikaans were the dominant languages. This led to a hegemony of bilingualism which is the root of the present inequality of languages in South Africa. Beukes (1992) remarks that none of the previous government's language policies since the colonisation of the country recognised the fact that this is a **multilingual** country.

Co-lingualism refers to a linguistic dispensation in a multilingual country where the co-existence of different languages are recognised. Such a situation is the ideal and should be the norm considering the statements in the preamble to the South African Constitution (SA, 1996).

In describing language policy in education, the *Draft White Paper on Education and Training* states:

The rights to language and culture:

Every person has the right to instruction in the language of his or her choice where this is reasonably practicable.

Every person (including a 'legal person') has the right to establish, where practicable, an educational institution based on a common culture, language or religion, provided that racial discrimination is prohibited.

Every person has the right to use the language and participate in the culture of his or her choice.

The diversity of language and culture is acknowledged and protected, and conditions for their promotion shall be encouraged.

Afrikaans, English, isiNdebele, Sesotho sa leboa, Sesotho, siSwati, Xitsonga, Setswana, Tshivenda, isiXhosa and isiZulu are official South African languages at national level and conditions shall be created for their development and the promotion of their equal use and enjoyment.

Provincial legislatures may declare any of the national languages to be official languages in their province, and differences between provincial language policies are permissible.

15 These constitutional provisions do not in themselves define a policy on language in education, but they state principles which must underpin such a policy. National policies which establish norms and standards for language use and language teaching in educational institutions will be required to aim

positively at the promotion and development of all official languages, equal respect for official languages, and multilingualism. National norms and standards will also have to accommodate provincial language policy decisions. Distinct provincial policies are specifically protected, so long as they observe the language policy principles declared in the Constitution (SA, 1996:24).

This situation would, of course, make translators and interpreters very important professionals in the New South Africa. The privileging of a foreign colonial language, English, and only one of the indigenous languages, Afrikaans, in the previous dispensation, had inevitably led to the gross linguistic impoverishment of the majority of the South African population. According to Van Rensburg (1991) and Ndebele (1991), it is estimated that approximately 80% of the South African population could not command one of the previous official languages well enough to participate in the administration and economy of the country. This fact, of course, impacted negatively on their communication with the state, legal system, education and employment possibilities as well as participation in the national political processes, thus restraining them from what Fairclough (1989:63) terms the "discoursal positions of power".

Kruger (1992b:10) states that "it would seem that the different speakers of the African languages tend to favour English as a medium of intercultural communication". This seems to be reflected in the Government's apparent move towards virtual monolingualism.

Concerning the status of the indigenous African languages, Schutte (1990:3) mentions certain factors which "can ensure the development, modernisation, maintenance and 'upward mobility' of a language ..." and claims that the absence or inoperativeness of such factors could stunt or halt these processes. Schutte (1990) refers to the economic status and the associated social status of a language by stating that: "Where the speakers of a language have low economic status there is a tendency for them to shift towards a language with higher economic status, even if that language is not a majority language". He also emphasises the socio-historical status of a group which is derived mainly from the group's struggle in the past to defend and maintain its culture, ethnic or linguistic

identity, as well as factors which he describes as “institutional support factors” which include “the mass media, governmental/administrative services and education”.

Schutte (1990:3) also mentions the importance of standardisation in the success of developing a nation. In South Africa, English and Afrikaans, the two former official languages, have standardisation institutions such as the *English Academy of South Africa* (Combrink, 1995) and the *Taalkommissie* of the *SA Akademie*. According to Bekeweni (1995), the *Language Boards* of the old dispensation which regulated the standards of the Bantu languages were viewed with contempt by the speakers of African languages. In the words of Mrs. Winnie Mandela (1994): “The term language board though conjures bad memories. We are reminded of the language boards in the apartheid era. Language boards which were not structured and created democratically. Language boards which were not accountable to anybody. Language boards which prescribed terms for use on radio and television without consulting the users of the languages themselves” (quoted in Bekeweni, 1995:1).

Tollefson (1991:201) warns against the pragmatism of English as an only official language when he says: “The hegemony of English, or of other languages, is not merely tolerated by the ‘developing’ world; it is considered a legitimate model for society. In many newly independent states, a tiny English-speaking elite controls state policy-making organs while the masses of people remain excluded”.

Voices of concern have been raised that South Africa is also moving toward a policy of monolingualism. Du Toit (1998) writes that more and more translators fear that they will become redundant if the government moves to a policy of monolingualism. Du Toit (1998) also quotes the chairperson of the South African Translators' Institute who expresses a concern that South Africa is slowly moving towards monolingualism: “'n Aanhoudende erosie van meertaligheid is aan die gang, dit kan nie ontken word nie. 'n Duidelike en onmiskenbare neiging is waarneembaar dat Suid-Afrika al hoe meer 'n eentalige land word”. In the same letter it is indicated that parliament had a large

translation section in the past which has since been discontinued. There is also no fixed policy for the translation of official documents into the nine official indigenous languages.

De Klerk and Bosch (1998:43), also endorse researchers such as Pennycook (1994) and Veltman (1983), who claim that there is convincing evidence of a world-wide steady shift in language allegiance in favour of English, which in extreme cases may result in the abandonment of the mother tongue. This trend is becoming noticeable in South Africa as well. They report on a case study of a 10-year old Afrikaans-speaking boy who was moved to an English-medium school and conclude that:

Over the year M has changed from seeing himself as an Afrikaans-speaking child temporarily placed among English speakers to regarding himself as part of an English world which he does not want to leave; without any change in geographical location, in religion, or in home life, he has managed to shift to a world where his friends, his learning experience, his thoughts and even his dreams are English ones ... Learning the appropriate linguistic habits has involved more than learning the language, it has involved social and psychological adaptation, changes in beliefs, attitudes, values and other behavioral patterns" (De Klerk & Bosch, 1998:49-50).

Verhoef (1998:45) reports on a survey conducted in the North West Province about the attitudes of school children towards English. She reports that 64.4 % of the respondents favoured English as their favourite school subject. They cite various reasons for their preference for English, among others that it gives them entrance to tertiary education, they see it as a uniting language in the South African context, they find the English culture attractive, and because the international status of English empowers them. Verhoef (1998:39) also states that in spite of an official multilingual policy, the tendency towards a monolingual English society becomes more and more evident at all levels of society. Because of the legacy of the former NP government, many black parents and pupils today have a pertinent preference for English as medium of instruction (Verhoef, 1998:41). According to Mawasha (1986), language proficiency in English is generally accepted as a sign of political, social and economic empowerment.

If this trend of educating children in English continues, it may lead to a shift in language allegiance to English which might have the effect that, within a generation or two, English might become the only official language in South Africa.

One can only hope that the present government would not revert to what Beukes (1992) refers to as linguicism, and would not lean too heavily on the words “where practically possible” in the Constitution, but that they would rather adhere to, as stated in the ANC language policy guidelines, “the removal, from all spheres of the nation’s life, of linguistic barriers, to understanding and participation” through the development of language services such as the provision of interpreting and translation (Meintjes, 1992:14).

4.5 Translation courses in Europe and England

In this section a number of translation courses offered at selected universities and institutions in Europe and England are discussed.

4.5.1 The St Andrews Course

Hervey and Higgins (1992) give the outline of a twenty-week translation course offered at the University of St. Andrews in England which focuses on the translation from French to English. As the course was adapted for the teaching of translation from German to English and from Spanish to English, it should also be possible to adapt the course for other language combinations. Hervey and Higgins (1992:13) state that learners can acquire proficiency in translation. They emphasise that when they talk about proficiency in translation they are “no longer thinking merely of the basis of natural talent an individual may have, but of the skill and facility that require learning, technique, practice and experience” (Hervey & Higgins, 1992:13). This statement implies that, contrary to the belief that a translator is born with natural talents, a translator can ideally be trained to combine their natural talent with acquired skills to become a good translator.

The St Andrews course is structured as a number of units dealing with specific topics that are supplemented by practical sessions in which the topics are applied to selected texts.

The units dealt with in the course are given in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2: The St Andrews translator training course

Unit	Topic	Practical
1	Preliminaries to translation as a process	Practical translation exercise Gist translation
2	Preliminaries to translation as a product Equivalence and translation loss	Practical translation exercise - explain decisions made to minimise translation loss
3	Cultural issues in translation, compromise and compensation Cultural transposition	Study translated text Discuss compromise in translation loss and compensation
4	The formal properties of texts: intertextual, inter-sentential and sentential issues in translation	
5	The formal properties of texts: grammatical and lexical issues in translation	
6	The formal properties of texts: prosodic and phonic/graphic problems in translation	
7	Literary meaning and translation problems	Practical translation exercise and discussion on loss of meaning
8	Connotative meaning	Grouping and discussion of types of meaning in a given text
9	Language variety in texts: dialect, sociolect and code-switching	Video: identify, translate, and discuss dialectal and sociolectal features
10	Language variety in texts: social register and tonal register	Practical translation exercise: identify and discuss salient features of language variety
11	Textual genre as a factor in translation: oral and written genres	
12	Genre marking and the crossover	Video: TV interview, students to

	between oral and written genres	write sub-titles in target language
13	Technical translation	Practical translation exercise: technical text - discuss problems and explain decisions made
14	Translation of consumer-orientated texts	Practical translation exercise: consumer-oriented texts - compare and contrast same text in source and target language
15	Stylistic editing	Translated text to edit
16	Contrastive topics	Practical translation exercise: Translations to and from the target language

The course differentiates clearly between translation as a process and a product. It also pays much attention to the formal properties of texts as texts are the main entity the translator works with. Furthermore, it deals with different types or genres of texts and places emphasis on practical translation exercises in order to train the translator to achieve a specific task or outcome, while making use of different skills to produce a well translated text.

The St Andrews course as proposed by Hervey and Higgins (1992) can be adapted for different language pairs and, because of its practical nature, seems to be a very helpful frame of reference for a course in Translation Studies.

4.5.2 The Erasmus Hogeschool course

According to their information brochure, the Hogeschool Erasmus offers a four-year degree course in translation and interpreting which leads to a licentiate in Translation and a Licentiate in Interpreting. The course accepts a small number of students, and groups usually consist of 8 to 16 students. Students have to take three language courses consisting of the target language, Dutch, and two foreign languages. They have a choice of foreign languages divided into two groups, the so-called B-languages and C-languages.

The students can choose either two B-languages or one B-language and one C-language. The B-languages offered are German, French and English, and the C-languages are Danish, Italian, New Greek, Portuguese, Russian and Spanish. In addition to the three language courses they also take general subjects such as Philosophy, History, Economics, Law and a course in Scientific and Technical problems the translator/interpreter may encounter. The first two years of the course is the same for all the students. From the third year they specialise either in translation or interpreting. The course can be schematised as follows (cf. Table 4.3):

Table 4.3: The Erasmus Hogeshool translator training course

First year	1 st Semester H/week	2 nd Semester H/week
Dutch		
Language theory	2	2
Grammar	1	
Synthesis		1
Oral language competence	1	
Written language competence		1
Foreign language 1		2
Grammar and exercises	2	3
Language and translation exercises	3	1
Oral language competence	1	
Foreign language 2	2	2
Grammar and exercises	3	3
Language and translation exercises	1	1
Oral language competence		
General subjects	1.5	
Philosophy	1.5	1
History	1	1.5
Economics and exercises		
Law	1.5	
Scientific and technical problems		

Second year	1 st Semester H/week	2 nd Semester H/week
Dutch		
Language theory	2	2
Grammar	1	
Synthesis		1
Oral language competence	1	
Written language competence		1
Foreign language 1		2
Grammar and exercises	2	3
Language and translation exercises	3	1
Oral language competence	1	
Foreign language 2	2	2
Grammar and exercises	3	3
Language and translation exercises	1	1
Oral language competence		
General subjects		
Encyclopaedia of translating		1.5
Stylistics	1	
International organisations		1
Economic geography and exercises	1	1
History of economic thought	1	
Law	1.5	
Scientific and technical problems	1	
An optional course in informatics		

Third Year	1 st Semester H/week	2 nd Semester H/week
First Licentiate Translator		
Dutch	1	1
Linguistics and translation Studies	1	1
Foreign language 1		
Knowledge of the land, people and	2	1
Translation of specialised texts	3	3
Translation	1	1
Oral resumé	1	1
Communication skills	1	1
Applied linguistics	1	
Foreign language 2		
Knowledge of the land, people and	2	1
Translation of specialised texts	3	3
Translation	1	1
Oral resumé	1	1
Communication skills	1	1
Applied linguistics		1
Optional subjects *		
Mini-dissertation		

* The students have to take two optional subjects with a minimum credit of 15 hours per year from Aesthetics, Informatics, International Politics, Sociology, Sociolinguistics, Technical and Scientific Terminology.

Fourth Year Second Licentiate Translator	1 st Semester H/week	2 nd Semester H/week
Dutch	1	1
Deontology	1	
Foreign language 1		
Knowledge of the land, people and	1	1
Literature	1	1
Translation of specialised texts	3	3
Translation	1	1
Working with a text	1	1
Foreign language 2		
Knowledge of the land, people and	1	1
Literature	1	1
Translation of specialised texts	3	3
Translation	1	1
Working with a text	1	1
Informatics		
Mini-dissertation		
Additional subjects		

Third Year First Licentiate Interpreting	1 st Semester H/week	2 nd Semester H/week
Dutch	1	1
Linguistics and translation Studies	1	1
Foreign language 1		
Knowledge of the land, people and	2	1
Translation of specialised texts	3	3
Communicative skills	1	1
Applied linguistics	1	
Consecutive interpreting	2	2
Simultaneous interpreting	1	1
Foreign language 2		
Knowledge of the land, people and	2	1
Translation of specialised texts	3	3
Communicative skills	1	1
Applied linguistics	1	
Consecutive interpreting	2	2
Simultaneous interpreting	1	1
Optional subjects *		
Mini-dissertation		

* The students have to take two optional subjects with a minimum credit of 15 hours per year from Aesthetics, Informatics, International Politics, Sociology, Sociolinguistics, Technical and Scientific Terminology.

Fourth Year Second Licentiate Interpreting	1 st Semester H/week	2 nd Semester H/week
Dutch	1	1
Deontology	1	
Foreign language 1		
Knowledge of the land, people and	1	1
Literature	1	1
Translation of specialised texts	1	1
Consecutive interpreting	3	2
Simultaneous interpreting	3	2
Foreign language 2		
Knowledge of the land, people and	1	1
Literature	1	1
Translation of specialised texts	1	1
Consecutive interpreting	3	2
Simultaneous interpreting	3	2
Informatics		
Mini-dissertation		
Additional subjects		

The Erasmus Hogeschool translator training course incorporates a thorough study of both the student's source and target languages. It also includes both oral and written language competence. Special attention is paid to knowledge of the people, country and culture of the target language. Furthermore, the students are required to accumulate credits for a number of general subjects such as International Politics, Sociolinguistics, Terminology, etc., all subjects aimed at enhancing the general knowledge of the students, especially in the fields they would like to specialise in

4.5.3 The Hogeschool Maastricht course

The Hogeschool Maastricht (HM, 1995) offers a four-year degree course in translation and interpreting. In the first year the students study their mother tongue plus two foreign languages that they can choose from English, German, Dutch as a foreign language, French, Spanish, Portuguese, Italian and Russian. With the chosen language subjects they also have four additional subjects which are: An introduction to the fields of Economics, Medicine and Biology, Law and Technics. Furthermore, they also have to take two supporting subjects which are Text-Processing plus Documentation and

Translation Studies plus Terminology. The mother-tongue language course consists of a section on language competence and a section on linguistics. The two foreign language courses comprise translations to and from the foreign language and the mother-tongue, language competence, communication and writing skills in the language as well as knowledge of the country of origin. In subsequent years the content increases in complexity. During the second semester of the third year, the students have to do practical work in the country of their major foreign language. In the South African context students should also be exposed to practical translation situations, not only in the classroom but also in the marketplace. The possibility for translation students to do some kind of internship, for example working for a number of hours per week under the guidance of a working translator or in a translating office, should be investigated. In such a setup the student would encounter many issues which might not represent themselves in a classroom situation. During the third year the students also choose one of the additional subjects as an additional major subject to specialise in. In the fourth year students can also choose to specialise in interpreting. In the interpreting course various modes of interpreting, such as, consecutive interpreting, simultaneous interpreting and whisper interpreting are studied.

4.6 Conclusion

In the courses discussed above it is clear that special emphasis is placed on language competence in both the source and the target languages. It is, therefore, clear that special attention will have to be given to the development of language skills in courses offered in South Africa.

In this chapter an overview is given of translator training in South Africa at the present as well as in the past. The need for translator training as well as practising translators' critique of the translation courses offered at universities in South Africa is discussed. An overview is also given of the prevailing linguistic situation in South Africa and the problems facing the translator in the multilingual South African situation are highlighted.

To end the chapter, a brief overview is given of the translator and interpreter courses offered at selected British and European institutions.

From the content of the chapter it becomes clear that certain basic issues which are addressed in all the courses discussed, need to be included in a course on Translation Studies at undergraduate university level in order for it to be a comprehensive and inclusive Translator Studies course. These issues, include an overview of the translation/interpreting profession, theory of translation and practical translation, a linguistic background, translation and culture language skills and other skills among others. Much of the content of the courses discussed in this chapter can be incorporated in the proposed Translation Studies course at undergraduate university level.

In chapter 5 the design of a syllabus is discussed.

CHAPTER 5

SYLLABUS DESIGN

5.1 Introduction

In this chapter the terms **curriculum** and **syllabus** as well as the different types of syllabi are discussed. Because translation is seen as a process in which the student translator has to complete certain tasks in order to achieve certain outcomes, special attention is given to task-based and outcomes-based syllabi in order to establish a theoretical framework for the development of a suggested core syllabus for Translation Studies. The discussion of the definitions of the terms curriculum and syllabus is followed by a short discussion on types of syllabi, especially process and task-based syllabi. Lastly, the new outcomes-based education approach as implemented by the South-African National Qualifications Framework (NQF) is briefly overviewed.

5.2 Definitions of the term curriculum

The term curriculum is derived from the Latin word *currere* (to run). It is also related to the word *currus* (chariot). According to Moodley (1947:42), the predominant image of a curriculum is a race or an ongoing process. The curriculum can be seen as the process to finish a race or the process to finish a degree. The latter represents the finishing line for a specified time of study in which a certain prescribed number of courses form part of, or, are included in, the process.

Much has been written on the term curriculum, and many writers on the topic give different definitions of the term. The reason for this is that different writers have different approaches to the term, and that the term curriculum is, therefore, defined from different points of view.

Good (1959) views curriculum as a list of subjects as part of a course unit, for example, including all the subjects which form part of a BA degree. Good (1959:13) states that, "a systematic group of courses or sequences of subjects required for graduation or certification in a major field of study, for example, social studies curriculum, ... ". According to De Vaal and Van den Berg (1977:11), the curriculum is "... the various subjects or subject choices and all the requirements in connection with them which are prescribed by the education authorities ...". Squires (1991:11) sees the curriculum as the content of what should be taught: "The fundamental curriculum design is what to teach". Taba (1962) has a broader view of the term curriculum and sees it as the learning content selected to achieve certain aims/goals. Johnson (1967) states that the curriculum should describe the expected results/outcomes of teaching and learning and not the manner of teaching or the contents of what is to be taught.

A fairly general view of the curriculum is that it includes all the learning experiences presented by an institution. According to this general view, the curriculum should not include only the experiences to do with the content of a subject, but should also include other activities such as the contents of other subjects, sport and extra-curricular experiences. Krüger (1980:7) says: "Die onderrig is daarop ingestel dat die leerder die werklikheidgegewe denkend moet verwerk en telkens tot nuwe insigte kom. Feite leer word vervang deur die naspeur van samehange en die lê van verbande."

Some authors also see the curriculum as the total of all learning experiences. Diamond (1989:3) states that: "Optimum learning requires a rich social, cultural, and physical environment. Such a setting does not happen by chance; it must be nurtured and planned and must involve the participation of staff from the offices of student affairs, residential life, and numerous other offices throughout the institution." Preller (1976:208) states that: "Die kurrikulum omvat al die ervarings van die student wat onder die beheer van die universiteit is. Dit is die volle amptelik georganiseerde en voorgeskrewe universiteitsloopbaan van 'n student en sluit inhoud, metode, tegnieke, leermiddele en aktiwiteite in wat nodig geag word vir die bereiking van 'n bepaalde stadium van

ontwikkeling."

The curriculum can, therefore, be seen as the overall plan of a course or qualification consisting of the syllabi of the specific subjects or programmes included in the course or qualification as well as all the extra-curricular elements which form part of the total learning experience prescribed for the attainment of the qualification.

5.3 Definitions of the term syllabus

Much has been written on the syllabus, and most writers view the syllabus as a discussion of the content of a specific course. In the following paragraph some views on the syllabus are listed:

Eaton (1975:57) views the syllabus as "a list of the contents of a course". According to De Vaal and Van den Berg (1977:11): "The concept 'syllabus' implies a coherent whole of orderly arranged, selected and defined subject-matter contents for each school subject with which a pupil is confronted in the course of his school career in order to master the cultural heritage of the adult world." This would also apply to the subjects taken by a student at university. Pauw (1976:46) states that the syllabus is, "an indication of what is to be done in a specific subject at a particular level during a prescribed period of time." According to Good (1959:544), it is "a condensed outline or statement of the main points of a course of study or of books or of other documents". Corder (1973:296) defines the syllabus as "the overall plan for the learning process. It ... must specify what components, or learning items, must be available, or learned by a certain time; what is the most efficient sequence in which they are learned; what items can be learned 'simultaneously'; what items are available from stock, i.e. already known; and the whole process is determined by considerations of how long it takes to produce or learn, a component or item." Strevens (1977:25) describes the syllabus as follows: "It is the document in which is listed, ideally, the items to be taught, in a particular course, to a particular set of defined learners, on a given number of occasions per week or day, in a

given sequence, with the aim of achieving stated interim and final goals or objectives, and (usually) according to particular teaching techniques for each and every item." Van der Walt (1981:27) says that "the syllabus is a statement for the plan for a part of the curriculum of a course. It is important to note that a syllabus cannot specify only the 'content' part of a curriculum. Content cannot be divorced from the other elements of a curriculum: the elements preceding it (i.e. the situation analysis, the aims and objectives) will have a direct bearing on the nature of the content. The content specified will also influence the learning activities and the methodology. A syllabus will, therefore, have to include all the elements mentioned."

From the discussion above it is clear that the term *curriculum* should thus be viewed as a broader term than the term *syllabus*. The syllabus should, therefore, be seen as part of the curriculum, as many of the outcomes of a total learning experience will also have a bearing on the syllabus (content specification) of a specific course. Because it is the aim of this study to develop a proposed syllabus for the training of translators, the focus is on the syllabus. Accepting the broader view of the curriculum, the existing curriculum at the Potchefstroom University for the general BA degree is accepted as given.

The curriculum for the BA degree at the Potchefstroom University consists of a number of modules, each module being a semester course in a subject according to a number of packages for specific BA degrees. For the regular BA degree, a student must have 23 modules of which at least four must be at third-year level and at least six at second-year level. A student may also combine two modules from different courses. For example, a student doing a degree majoring in languages would take ten modules at first year level: English 111 and 121, Afrikaans-Nederlands 111 and 121, German 111 and 121, History 111 and 121 and Philosophy 111 and Library Science 122. In his/her second year the student would, for example, take: English 211 and 221, Afrikaans-Nederlands 211 and 221, History 211 and 221 and Biblical Studies 111 and Computer Literacy 122 (six modules at second year level and two modules at first year level). In the third year s/he might take English 311 and 321 and Afrikaans-Nederlands 311 and 321. A student may

also take an additional module or two but s/he must have at least 23 modules for the degree. For some of the specialised degrees, certain subjects or modules may be compulsory. For example, for the BA degree in Translation Studies the student must take six language or language-related subjects such as Creative writing or Communication Studies at first year level and s/he must major in at least one language, for example, English. The four Translation Studies modules taken in the second year (Translation Studies 211 and 221) and the third year (Translation Studies 311 and 321) are compulsory for the specific degree. The remainder of the 23 modules may be made up of other modules according to the student's choice provided they fall within a specified BA package and include the prescribed number of modules at second and third year level.

5.3.1 Types of syllabus design

White (1988) distinguishes between two types of syllabus design which he calls Type A and Type B syllabi. Type A syllabi are those which are more concerned with content, while Type B syllabi are more concerned with process. If translation is to be viewed as a process rather than a product, a syllabus for a course in Translation Studies will be a Type B syllabus.

5.3.1.1 Type A syllabi

Although Type A syllabi may appear to have little in common with each other, "the basis for such syllabi remains essentially the same, however, it is on objectives to be achieved, content to be learned. Indeed, any such syllabus will be based on lists of items to be learned, whether these are grammatical structures, categories of communication function, topics, themes or communicative and cognitive skills" (White, 1988:46).

Type A syllabi will, therefore, include syllabi such as the structural syllabus, the functional-notional syllabus, the situational syllabus as well as topic-based and skills-based syllabi.

5.3.1.2 Type B syllabi

According to White (1988:46), the Type B syllabi can be contrasted with the Type A syllabi in that, the content of the Type B syllabus is subordinate to the learning process and pedagogical procedure. The concern of the syllabus designer is with 'How' rather than 'What', where the Type A syllabus will be more concerned with the 'What', that is, the content of the syllabus. Type B syllabi would include procedural and task-based syllabi.

Although White (1988) categorises syllabi into two types, Type A and Type B, this should not be a rigid classification because the syllabus is a document to aid the teacher or instructor. Depending on the needs of a course, the syllabus designer should then be able to select aspects of different types of syllabi in order to compile a syllabus which is custom-made to the needs of a specific course.

As it is the aim of this study to create a syllabus for the training of translators at university level, it seems necessary to put more emphasis on a Type B syllabus, because the translation student will be expected to perform certain tasks based on specific skills. However, the content of the syllabus, as discussed in chapter 2, will fall under a Type A syllabus and will also be important. Therefore, a hybrid type of syllabus, according to White's classification will have to be constructed. The proposed syllabus will have to include the content of the proposed course and should provide for the development of the specific skills needed by the translator to achieve both critical and specific language and translation outcomes.

Translators should be trained to satisfy certain needs in the marketplace and for that purpose they should be equipped with particular skills to perform specific tasks to achieve specific outcomes. To train a good translator, emphasis will have to be placed on syllabi which satisfy or enhance the specific skills, tasks, processes and outcomes.

It will, therefore, be necessary to discuss the different skills-based, task-based, and process syllabi as well as the new outcomes-based educational approach in South Africa.

5.4 Skills-based syllabi

The translator's language skills are very important. Both the formal syllabus and the functional syllabus mentioned in the following paragraphs aim at enhancing the learner's language skills, or speech acts, that is, especially what s/he does with language, and how s/he controls the language when using it for a specific purpose or task. The learner will have to develop language skills in order to perform language tasks and eventually to achieve language outcomes.

5.4.1 The formal syllabus

The formal syllabus, sometimes also referred to as the structural or grammatical syllabus, has its roots in the description and analysis of the ancient classical languages and relies strongly on the academic work of descriptive linguists. Its main focus is the systematic and rule-based nature of language in all the subsystems such as phonology, syntax, and morphology. It also adopts Halliday's (1973 and 1978) distinction of the three main functions of language, that is, especially the textual, as well as the ideational and interpersonal functions. It is, therefore, concerned with the language learner's underlying knowledge of the linguistic code. The formal syllabus imposes order on the learning experience by focussing on the correct usage of language according to the inherent logical form of the language.

5.4.2 The functional syllabus

The functional syllabus can be seen as an alternative to the formal syllabus which focuses on the inherent knowledge a learner has of a language, the so-called competence of the speaker. The functional syllabus relies on sociolinguistics (i.e. the discipline which

investigates the social structure and use of language) as well as on pragmatics. The functional syllabus takes into account the use of speech acts, thus the actual meaning the speaker or hearer attaches to a linguistic utterance and the intended meaning of an utterance. It differs from the formal syllabus in that it does not focus on the inherent system of the language, but rather on the purpose of the language and how it can be realised through the correct use of the linguistic code.

5.5 Task-based syllabi

Breen (1987:160) describes a task-based syllabus as follows: "Task-based syllabus types ... organise and present what is to be achieved through teaching and learning in terms of *how* a learner may engage his or her communicative competence in undertaking a range of tasks."

As a background to the study, the theoretical basis for a task-based approach is investigated and specific attention is paid to Prabhu's (1984) procedural syllabus, Breen and Candlin's (1980) process syllabus and Long and Crookes' (1992) task-based syllabus.

5.5.1 The theoretical basis of the task-based syllabus approach

A number of theories provide the theoretical basis for a task-based syllabus. In the following paragraphs these theories are discussed.

5.5.1.1 Input theory

Krashen (1981) includes a number of hypotheses in his creative construction model. His input hypothesis states that learners can't benefit from input if they do not understand most of it. The input should be slightly higher than the learner's present level of understanding, thus $i + 1$, in order for acquisition to take place. The learner's affective filter should also be as low as possible to allow him to absorb the input. The learner

should comprehend the input in order to acquire new knowledge. Candlin (1987) differentiates between classroom and non-classroom input. Although non-classroom input is more varied than classroom input he states that, especially beginners, would benefit more from classroom input than from non-classroom input because classroom input is more structured and because regular comprehension checks ensure progress.

5.5.1.2 Output theory

The learner's output also plays an important role in acquisition. Output is, however, only possible after some acquisition has taken place. According to Candlin (1987), the more interaction there is between the learner and the teacher, the more learning will take place.

5.5.1.3 Discourse theory

Widdowson (1979:72) emphasises the importance of output, especially in a discourse situation. Due to the unpredictability of discourse Widdowson says that the creation of discourse "bring(s) new rules into existence. In language learning, especially in second language learning the learner is forced through communication to extend himself and thereby to develop further than his present level". Widdowson (1978:64-74) emphasises the importance of language usage for communication purposes in a real communicative context, because he sees second language learning as a recoding of already known first language knowledge, thus "... not as the acquisition of abilities which are new but as the transference of the abilities that have already been acquired into a different means of expression". In order to develop the learner must be challenged through content that interests him/her and may also be useful in other subjects. As translation skills are to a great extent the re-coding of language skills, elements of language learning and acquisition may also be of importance in the development of translation skills, because the translator will be coding and re-coding information into and from the target and the source language. Widdowson (1978:22-55; 1979:139, 249) also emphasises the importance of the fact that language has meaning potential when teaching. The learner,

and also the translator should be aware of the intricate interaction between interlocutors. Meaning potential includes what is meant to be understood although it is not always understood because of the illocutionary and interactive functions of language. It is important that the context, the social environment of the discourse should also be considered, because it contributes to the understanding of the discourse. Widdowson (1979:138) uses the following example to illustrate this point:

A: "Doorbell!"

B: "I'm in the bath."

A: OK, I'll get it."

The language user should infer from the context that B is unable to answer the door and because A realises that from the situation, A then answers the door, although the command to open the door was not explicitly stated in B's reply. Widdowson thereby emphasises the importance of tasks that expose the learner to a variety of contexts which force him to use the new language creatively in order to be able to use it as a communicative tool.

5.5.1.4 Language and thought theory

When discussing language and thought theory one has to look back to Jean Piaget's theory on the developmental stages of thought. According to Piaget (Bybee & Sund, 1979:34), the child's cognitive development proceeds through a number of stages, namely, the **sensorimotor period** which occurs in further sub-stages from birth to about 24 months of age. According to Bybee and Sund (1979:47), "it is a time of transition from innate reflexes to intellectual representation; it is a time of transition of biological foundations of behaviour to psychological foundations of behaviour; it is a time of transition from a reality that only is self to a reality that includes others and the environment". The second period, the **preoperational period** occurs from ages two to seven. Bybee and Sund (1979:65) state that: "Between the ages of two and seven, children break the bond with infancy. ... In five years the child extends social

interactions beyond the immediate family, acquires the formalities of language, increases self-care skills, and starts school". The third period is the **concrete operational period** from about age seven to eleven. According to Bybee and Sund (1979:97): "It is called *concrete* because children's thought is restricted to what they encounter through direct experience. They think about existing objects and their properties (e.g. weight, color, and texture), and they think about the actions they can do with these objects. Moreover, during these years, children slowly develop reasoning strategies". Then follows the **formal operational period**. Bybee and Sund (1979:125) state that: "Sometime during the secondary school years formal patterns of thought may emerge from the concrete foundations of the last period. According to Piaget, formal operational thought is the summit of cognitive development. Individuals demonstrating this level of thought reflect on their thinking, reason abstractly, and resolve problems through systematic consideration of possibilities".

This development of cognitive theory also implies an equivalent type of language development. Vygotsky (1967:56-60) criticises psycholinguistic studies that do not take the interrelationship between thought and language into account. Vygotsky (1967:58) says that word meaning forms the basis of all study, because word meaning unites thought and speech into verbal thought. Because meaning is an act of thought and an inalienable part of words, it belongs to the realm of thought and language. Britton (1994:262) sums up Vygotsky's thinking when he says that "... human consciousness is achieved by the internalisation of shared social behaviour". Schmidt (1973:123) emphasises the dual nature of language and thought by explaining that: "The language we use in communication and the one we use in thinking is, after all, the same language. It is not either a means of communication or an instrument of thought; it is both." It can be said that, according to Vygotsky's theory, language should be seen as "an instrument of mental regulation and refinement of individual behaviour" (Vygotsky, 1986:12-57). Foley (1991:63) also remarks that: "Speech is used to control oneself or others." De Villiers (1997:119) concludes that: "The maintenance of individuality through language lies in three types of regulation in communicative tasks:

- object-regulation (the person who uses language is directly regulated by the environment to fix attention on an object or objects, and cognition is dominated at that moment by object-regulation;
- other-regulation (the person is dominated by others and uses language to fix attention on others. Paralinguistic features like facial gestures also fall in this category), and
- self-regulation (the person uses language to control others and self. This is often done by self-directed utterances).

The learner, therefore, uses language and thought to achieve certain tasks in communication. Task-based approaches to learning focus on how something is done. Getting something done through the use of communication can, therefore, be seen as a linguistic task.

5.5.1.5 Functional theory

Halliday's (1985) views on functional grammar have also had an influence on the task-based approach. Halliday and Martin (1981) see language as an integral part of the social environment in which the speaker or learner functions. They also state that we encode reality and our understanding of it through the use of language. The language user can, therefore, not be detached from the social context, because 'giving meaning' is socially directed. The interpretation of meaning does not only depend on existing knowledge (pre-knowledge), but also on situational and contextual knowledge.

Halliday (1985: xiii) views language as a means of cultural transfer. The potential for language is inborn and has to be developed by learning from the cultural environment. Children learn how to produce meaning and the progressive mastery of meaning includes the means of translating meaning into form. The speaker/learner uses language functionally, because language gives a schematic knowledge of the language including ideational, interpersonal and textual knowledge which corresponds to the functions of

language. This knowledge develops through socialisation and is culturally driven. The second language learner draws on the communicative skills of the first language, that which is already known (pre-knowledge) which is then substituted for the data of the second language. In the same way the translator would encode his/her knowledge of the source language and decode it in the form of the target language.

5.5.1.6 General learning theory

Learning through doing has been advocated for many years. As early as 1903, Dewey (1903:27) said that learners should be confronted with problems that they should try to solve on their own. For this they should choose the correct solution to the problem from different possible solutions.

Various researchers such as Piaget (1954), Bruner (1960), Lavatelli (1970), Flavell (1971), and Meyer (1987) were advocates of this approach to learning which can be described as "discovery models" which advocates a cognitive approach to learning instead of the behavioural models where children were seen as empty vessels into which knowledge had to be poured.

Task-based learning theorists such as Hamachek (1975), Mayer (1987), Dembo (1991) and Notterman and Drewry (1993) also subscribe to the cognitive approach to learning where learners learn through their own mistakes and thereby seek other options to solve problems. The latter is one of the important underlying principles of learning through tasks.

Andrews and Crow (1993:24) also favour the cognitive approach when they say that "Action learning is based on real-life problems and is designed for learning from experience. Learning by doing prepares learners for the real, practical world where problems are often unstructured".

The structuralists, such as De Saussure (1916), Bloomfield (1933) and Korzybski (1933)

stress the importance of structure which can be defined as the relation between existing parts. The structure is the framework that supports a complex of ordered and interrelated parts. Reality, as well as language is not an unstructured loosely-connected array of facts, but a coherent whole where everything is interrelated with the other.

De Villiers (1997:130) sums up the ideas of Hamachek (1975), Mayer (1987) Dembo (1991) and Notterman and Drewry (1993) when she says:

Discovering faulty judgement or error is an important ingredient of task-based learning. As the discovery is made by the learner himself through testing assumptions or solutions against a criterion he wants to reach, acknowledgement of the error may facilitate better alternative solutions to the problem. Learners are taught to accept responsibility for their own learning, judgement and behaviour. Instead of a passive recipient of knowledge, the learner becomes an active participant in organising and managing learning. Affective filters are lower and learners mediate solutions in interactive tasks in the classroom.

5.5.1.7 Elements effecting task-based learning

De Villiers (1997) lists the findings of empirical studies which underscore the claims of proponents of task-based learning. These are:

- retention of learning content is improved, because declarative knowledge (about things) and procedural knowledge (how to do things) are integrated;
- transfer of knowledge to new situations is facilitated, but declarative knowledge is easier to transfer to other problem-solving activities than procedural knowledge;
- if the transfer task is more advanced, task-based learning is relatively more effective;
- learning through task-based approaches accommodates later transfer more effectively;
- school-like materials are learnt better through task-based learning;
- task-based learning seems to be more effective than other types of learning if there is background knowledge of the subject matter;

- task-based learning is relatively more effective for less able students than other types of learning;
- reflecting on the learning experience facilitates better short and long-term learning results; and
- a reasonable degree of guidance is preferable to little guidance in task-based approaches (De Villiers, 1997:131).

5.5.2 What is a task?

In the literature various definitions of the term "task" are given. Long and Crookes (1992:43-44) define a task as "a piece of work undertaken for oneself or for others, freely or for some reward. Thus, examples of tasks include painting a fence, ... in other words, by 'task' is meant the hundred and one things people do in everyday life, at work, at play, and in between", and also as "a piece of work or an activity, usually with a specific objective, undertaken as part of an educational course, or at work". Translating a text would, therefore, also be a task, according to Long and Crookes' definition. Clarke (1987:63) describes a task as something which involves "information-processing mechanisms at some depth". Doyle (1983: 161) says that a task focuses the attention on products, processes and resources that are available to learners. Candlin (1987:10) sees a task as a sequential problem-solving social activity that requires the application of existing knowledge. Prabhu (1987:24) defines a task as an activity that requires the learners to arrive at an outcome through a process of thought. Breen (1987:23) also emphasises the achievement of a definite outcome as a prerequisite for a task.

A task can, therefore, be seen as something which is done through the processing of thought and resources by applying existing knowledge to arrive at an outcome.

5.6 Specific task-based syllabi

In the following sections the task-based models for syllabus design of Prabhu (1987), Breen and Candlin (1980), and Long and Crookes (1992) are discussed.

5.6.1 Prabhu's procedural syllabus

Prabhu's (1987) procedural syllabus was a reaction against the functional-notional syllabus because it seemed that learners were not equipped with the necessary fluency in different contexts. Prabhu (1982:2) states that form is best learned when the learner focuses on the meaning of a purposeful activity. This activity must be some or other task which should produce an outcome. According to Prabhu (1987:138) tasks for a language-learning project were established around specific problems requiring the use of English, for example, constructing or comparing timetables, finding and describing specific locations on a map, etc. The achievement of the outcome, the objective, indicates a procedure that may be followed, thus the name procedural syllabus. Prabhu (1987:91) states that the aim of language learning is "to enable the learner to acquire an ability to employ language for a meaning exchange and, in the process, to achieve conformity to linguistic norms". The learner has to interpret the language data in order to complete a task. Tasks are, therefore, adapted to the changing needs as specified by the situation.

The task is preceded by a pre-task, where the teacher performs a task similar to the one the learners have to perform, in order to give the learners the necessary support by indicating how to proceed with the task. Learners start off with simplified language which becomes progressively less simplified according to the level of language usage the learners have. The task should be reasonably challenging and interaction is seen as a vital ingredient in the process.

Prabhu (1987:89) points out that grammar is not formally taught because the learning of a language is seen as a process of organic growth. Prabhu (1987:29) states that the prerequisite of a task is that it must create a need to communicate and it must support the learner's attempt to infer meaning. He further states that the inference of meaning leads to the acquisition and comprehension of the second language because the "set of explicit frames of reference, rules of relevance, recurrent procedures and reasoning patterns, parallel situations, and problem and solution sequences ..." all facilitate comprehension.

Prabhu's (1987:87-88) tasks are graded according to the cognitive complexity of the task. He names the different aspects which have a bearing on the difficulty of the tasks:

- 1 The information provided. The less information given, the more difficult the task.
- 2 The reasoning required. The larger the number of cognitive steps needed to complete a task increase, the more difficult the task.
- 3 Precision needed. The more precision is needed to complete the task, the more difficult the task.
- 4 Familiarity with concepts. The less familiar the learner is with the concepts involved in order to complete the task, the more difficult the task.
- 5 Degree of abstraction. The more abstract the concepts are, the more difficult the task.

Learners should start off with easy tasks and the difficulty of the task should be increased as the learner develops.

According to Prabhu (1987:46-47), there are three types of activities that are used, namely:

- Information-gap activities (e.g. When a learner has to make a holiday booking and a second learner has the necessary information needed by the first learner).
- Reasoning-gap activities (e.g. Where a learner has to prepare a timetable taking all the available information such as sporting activities, extra-mural activities, etc. into account).
- Opinion-gap activities (e.g. Where a learner has to verbalise a personal opinion or preference).

Of these three types of activities, Prabhu (1987:88-89) regards information-gap activities to be easier than reasoning-gap or opinion-gap activities, and also that spoken tasks are easier than written tasks. He prefers reasoning-gap activities because they pose the bigger challenge.

5.6.2 Breen and Candlin's process syllabus

According to Breen (1987:160), the process syllabus "represents how something is done". It thus addresses "three interdependent processes: communication, learning, and the group process of a classroom community" (Breen, 1987:161).

Breen and Candlin (1980:90-100) subscribe to Halliday and McIntosh's (1966) three functions of language in communication (i.e. the ideational, the interpersonal and the textual functions), because learners use their linguistic knowledge to communicate within a social environment. Therefore, the second language syllabus should have a communicative purpose in the second language environment. When learning a second language the learner uses or applies his communicative abilities and skills acquired from his first language.

Breen (1987) does not only address the outcomes of learning, but also the process to achieve the outcomes. Content and methodology interact with each another. This means that the process syllabus aims at achieving communicative competence rather than communicative performance. The learner must also learn the communicative procedures needed for the execution of a task (Candlin, 1987:6), as well as accurate, appropriate and fluent language usage.

Candlin (1987:15-16) proposes the following types of tasks to enhance specific skills:

- Learner training (skills that enhance language awareness, learner's needs and the utilisation of sources).
- Information sharing (communicative skills).
- Research and argumentation (critical and inferential skills).
- Learner strategy (attending, transferring and generalisation skills).

These types of tasks are ideally suited for the specific skills the translation student will have to master and must, therefore, be included in the proposed syllabus.

Candlin (1987) also provides a proposal for the grading of tasks. The difficulty of the task will depend on the cognitive load of the task, the more difficult the cognitive load, the more difficult the communicative task. This means that learning procedures, the manner in which to complete a communication task, must be included in the syllabus.

According to Breen (1987), the syllabus designer provides a plan relating to the major decisions in the classroom and a bank of classroom activities which are made up of sets of tasks. Breen (1984:50) states that: "Perhaps the most meaningful and accessible syllabus will be one which deliberately provokes the shared creation of the real syllabus by the classroom group". According to Long and Crookes (1992:38), the focus of the process syllabus is not the language or language learning, but the learner and the learning process. One can, therefore, concur with Breen's (1987:43) statement that "the implementation order and sequence of the tasks rest entirely with the teacher and learners".

5.6.3 Long and Crooke's task-based syllabus

Long and Crookes (1992:34) state that "language learning is a psycholinguistic process, not a linguistic one, ...". The cognitive input of the learner is seen as very important. Long and Crookes (1992:34-47) say that task-based approaches analyse language learning not in terms of linguistic features such as form, notion or function alone, but in terms of meaningful activities that generate chunks of language.

Long and Crookes (1992:43) further state that:

There is no suggestion that learners acquire a new language one task at a time, any more than they do (say) one structure at a time. It is claimed, rather, that (pedagogic) tasks provide a vehicle for the presentation of appropriate target language samples to learners - input which they will inevitably reshape via application of general cognitive processing capacities - and for the delivery of comprehension and production opportunities of negotiable difficulty. New form-function relationships are perceived by the learner as a result. The strengthening

of the subset of those that are not destabilised by negative input, their increased accessibility and incorporation in more complex associations within long-term memory, adds to the complexity of the grammar and constitutes SL development.

Long and Crookes (1992:43-44) emphasise the fact that tasks “always focus on something that is done, not something that is said”. It is, therefore, clear from these statements that tasks develop the cognitive skills of the learner.

Long and Crookes (1992:44) further state that “once target tasks have been identified via the needs analyses the next step is to classify them into (target) task types”. They also give examples of task types. So, for example, a trainee flight attendant would be given tasks such as serving breakfast, etc. which can be classified under serving food and beverage tasks.

The learner translator might then be given tasks such as translating a given text for a specific target audience in which s/he would have to interpret (decode) the meaning or message of the text and then rewrite it in a way that would be understandable to the target audience without losing part of the meaning of the message.

When discussing the grading of tasks, Long and Crookes (1992:45) state that: “The number of steps involved, the number of solutions to a problem, the number of parties involved and the saliency of their distinguishing features, the location (or not) of the task in displaced time and space, the amount and kind of language required, the number of sources competing for attention, and other aspects of the intellectual challenge a pedagogic task poses are just a few of the grading and sequencing criteria that have been proposed. The grading and sequencing of pedagogic tasks is also partly a function of which various pedagogic options are selected to accompany their use.” The process of grading tasks should then be negotiated between the learner and the teacher.

De Villiers (1997:147) summarises the similarities of the three task-based models discussed above as follows:

- tasks are the unit of organisation in syllabi;
- learning and language learning are not separate issues;
- language is both the object and vehicle of learning;
- the theoretical division between content and methodology has disappeared;
- language learning is best served through purposeful learning tasks;
- the objectives of the syllabus are reflected in the tasks;
- tasks require the description of behavioural objectives;
- task-based language syllabi are analytic in nature;
- tasks may be taken from real life situations or may be designed to teach a specific pedagogic point;
- the syllabus does not focus on the learning of discrete grammatical points, but rather on meaning, with an ensuing mastery of language form, and
- task execution is accomplished by interaction with peer and media.

Because tasks have to produce or realise a specific outcome, it will also be necessary to look at outcomes-based education.

5.7 Outcomes-based education in South-Africa

After the transition of the South African government from the National Party government to the Government of National Unity in 1994, proposals were made for a new education system. The different education departments of the old system were all incorporated into one national education department with nine provincial education departments, one for each of the nine provinces of the new SA which all fell under the national department.

Because of the paradigm shift the national Minister of Education, Prof. S.M.E. Bengu, approved a new curriculum to be phased in from 1998, the so-called Curriculum 2005, a new curriculum for the twenty-first century based on the ideal of life-long learning for all which includes recognition of different qualifications and skills acquired at differing levels of education as well as in the workplace. This new approach necessitated the

development of a national framework within which all qualifications and skills could be accommodated. The South African Qualification Authority (SAQA) was established in 1995 (SA., 1995). This authority or board consists of 26 members of whom 20 are representatives of statutory bodies and institutions while six members are nominated by the Minister of Education. SAQA's mandate is to develop and maintain the National Qualifications Framework (NQF), policy and criteria for the registration of education and training bodies, to accredit monitoring bodies and see to it that the NQF also, among other things, registers national standards and qualifications. The NQF would be a framework on which all qualifications on different levels of education offered by all institutions would have to be registered. This framework should also lead to the acknowledgement of learning acquired outside the formal education and training institutions and the integration thereof by means of credits and qualifications.

The proposed structure of levels of qualification on the NQF is presented in Table 5.1.

The South African Qualification Authority (SAQA) was established in 1995. This authority or board consists of 26 members of whom 20 are representatives of statutory bodies and institutions while six members are nominated by the Minister of Education and Training. SAQA's task is to develop and maintain the NQF, policy and criteria for the registration of education and training bodies, to accredit monitoring bodies and see to it that the NQF also, among other things, registers national standards and qualifications.

Diagram 5.1: The structure of the NQF

School grade	NQF level	Band	Types of Qualifications and certificates	
	8	Higher Education and Training Band	Doctorates	
			Further Research Degrees	
	7		Higher Degrees	
			Professional qualifications	
	6	Training Band	First Degrees	
			Higher Diplomas	
	5		Diplomas	
			Occupational Certificates	
		Further Education and Training	Certificates	
12	4	Further Education and Training Band	School/College/ Training Certificates	
			Mix units from all (NGO's)	
11	3		School/College/ Training Certificates	
		Training Band	Mix units from all (NGO's)	
10	2		School/College/ Training Certificates	
			Mix units from all (NGO's)	
		1 + General Education	and Training Certificates = 4	
9	1	General Education and Training Band	Senior Phase	ABET Level 4
8				
7			Intermediate Phase	ABET Level 3
6				
5			Foundation Phase	ABET Level 2
4				
3			Pre-school	ABET Level 1
2				
1				
R				

(BAS, 1999:2)

5.7.1 Outcomes within the new learning paradigm

5.7.1.1 What is an outcome?

There are two kinds of outcomes, namely essential or critical outcomes and specific outcomes. These differ in the breadth of the context to which they apply. Critical outcomes express the intended results of education and training in a broad sense whereas

specific outcomes express the results of more narrowly defined aspects of the education process and are context-linked (Department of Education, 1996:17).

An outcome can, therefore, be seen as a completed task through which the learner proves that s/he is able to use acquired knowledge and skills to perform a specific task in order to achieve specific outcomes.

(i) Critical outcomes

"The critical outcomes ... are the broad generic cross-cultural outcomes ... These outcomes will ensure that learners gain the skills, knowledge and values that will allow them to contribute to their own success ..." (Department of Education, 1997:14). The following critical cross-field outcomes have been approved by the SA Qualifications Authority for use in South African schools and tertiary institutions:

Learners will:

- 1 Identify and solve problems in which responses display that responsible decisions using critical and creative thinking have been made.
- 2 Work effectively with others as members of a team, group, organisation, community.
- 3 Organise and manage oneself and one's activities responsibly and effectively.
- 4 Collect, analyse, organise and critically evaluate information.
- 5 Communicate effectively using visual, mathematical and/or language skills in the modes of oral and/or written presentation.
- 6 Use science and technology effectively and critically, showing responsibility towards the environment and health of others.
- 7 Demonstrate an understanding of the world as a set of related systems by recognising that problem-solving contexts do not exist in isolation. (Department of Education, 1997:15).

(ii) Specific outcomes

Specific outcomes are context-specific. They are contextually-demonstrated knowledge, skills and attitudes reflecting essential outcomes (OBE in SA, 1997:4). The specific outcomes are determined for each individual learning area or field in order to facilitate the knowledge, skills and attitudes necessary to complete specific tasks within a specific learning area or field.

These language outcomes are directed at an “ideal language user” as they relate to all languages and all levels of language learning (Department of Education, 1997:LLC6). The above-mentioned seven outcomes are achieved through the integrated use of listening, observing, speaking, signing, reading and writing skills (Department of Education, 1997:LLC7).

These outcomes can be seen as skills which form the stepping stones towards the effective use of language at higher levels, for example, levels 6 to 8 (Higher Education and Training).

5.8.1 Learning areas/fields

The different subjects as taught in schools in the past have been replaced by learning areas. Eight learning areas have been established on the NQF levels 1 to 4, which includes the different education phases up to what is called further education and training. The latter include schools (Level 1), colleges and training institutions (Levels 2-4) which will offer certificates. The eight learning areas listed below cover the whole spectrum of learning which the learner on these levels must be exposed to. They are:

- Language, Literacy and Communication
- Human and Social Sciences
- Technology
- Mathematical Literacy, Mathematics and Mathematical Science

- Natural Sciences
- Arts and Culture
- Economics and Management Science
- Life Orientation.

(Department of Education, 1997:10).

The Regulations governing the NQF (SA, 1998) prescribe eight levels of learning.

Levels 1-4 stretch from initial pre-school education up to further education and training.

Levels 5 to 8 represent qualifications offered at universities and technikons and other institutions of higher education. The learning areas in Higher Education are divided into 12 fields.

The fields are:

- (a) Field 01: Agriculture and Nature Conservation
- (b) Field 02: Culture and Arts
- (c) Field 03: Business, Commerce and Management Studies
- (d) Field 04: Communication Studies and Language
- (e) Field 05: Education, Training and Development
- (f) Field 06: Manufacturing, Engineering and Technology
- (g) Field 07: Human and Social Studies
- (h) Field 08: Law 7 Military Science and Security
- (i) Field 09: Health Sciences and Social Sciences
- (j) Field 10: Physical, Mathematical, Computer and Life Sciences
- (k) Field 11: Services
- (l) Field 12: Physical Planning and Construction

5.9.1 Learning programme

The term **learning programme** to some extent replaces the term **syllabus**. One can,

therefore, say that the learning programme for a specific learning area or qualification is the syllabus for that learning area. According to the booklet Curriculum 2005 (Department of Education, 1997a:13): "A learning programme is a set of learning and teaching activities and ways of assessing a learner's achievement. These learning programmes will be based on national guidelines. These guidelines will replace what we know as the 'syllabus' or 'syllabi'."

There are a number of definitions for the term learning programme, such as: "Hence learning programmes will [...] guide the work of learners and teachers in meeting the nationally agreed outcomes. They will include learning outcomes and assessment guidelines. They might also include specific learning contents, tasks and activities, a range of support materials and advice on teaching approaches" (Department of Education, 1996).

Another definition of "learning programme" is evident in the NQF document which states that: "Learning programmes consist of relevant unit standards as well as possible learning materials and methodology by means of which learners can achieve agreed learning outcomes" (NQF, 1996:7).

The most recent and popularised definition is: "A learning programme consists of courses or units of learning (learning material combined with methodology), by which learners can achieve agreed-upon learning outcomes" (OBE in SA, 1997:37).

According to Kilfoil (1999:5), a learning programme is "a planned combination of fundamental, core and elective modules that leads to a qualification such as a BA". The main goal of a learning programme will then be to provide learners with learning experiences. It encompasses all the various things learners will come into contact with during their education. A course in Translation Studies at university level is a major learning experience that consists of a number of smaller experiences, a number of appropriately varied learning experiences.

If one considers the use of the term programme and its definitions within the context of a BA programme in Language Practice, it becomes clear that some confusion still exists concerning the use of the terms syllabus and curriculum as indicated earlier. According to the discussion in sections 5.2 and 5.3, a programme should not be equated to a syllabus but to the curriculum for a specific qualification.

5.9.1.1 A proposed learning programme for BA (Language Practice)

According to the White Paper on Education 3 (Department of Education, 1997c:12), the preamble to the Higher Education Act (Act 101 of 1997) it is stated that: "A programme-based higher education system which is planned, governed and funded as a single, coherent, national system will enable many necessary changes to be undertaken." Some of these changes in higher education will include the flexibility of the system, articulation, differing entrance and exit levels in programmes, the recognition of previous learning, mobility between institutions of higher education, as well as the recognition of social and economic needs. Each university will, therefore, have to plan the programmes to be offered by the institution. This will imply radical rethinking by curriculum designers and a renunciation of old habits.

A course in Translation Studies within the framework of outcomes-based education will, therefore, have to fit within a specific learning programme. As much planning still needs to be done and many uncertainties still have to be addressed, only a tentative programme can be developed at this stage. In the following paragraphs a framework for a proposed programme for a BA degree in Language Practice, which will include some modules in Translation Studies is proposed.

According to the SAQA regulations, as published in the Government Gazette of 28 March 1998, all qualifications will have to be registered and they will have to comply with certain specifications.

An application for the registration of a programme must include:

- the NQF level on which the qualification or programme will be registered;
- the field of learning;
- the number of credits;
- the purpose of the programme;
- the specified outcomes to be achieved (critical outcomes as well as specific outcomes); and
- it should also be stated how the achievement of the required outcomes will be assessed.

In the SAQA document (SA, 1998:3) a programme is defined as "a structured set of learning offerings and related assessment and attainment requirements within a particular field of learning which leads to a qualification". A qualification is defined as "the formal recognition of the achievement of the required number and range of credits and such other requirements at specific levels of the National Qualification Framework as may be determined by the relevant bodies registered for such purpose by the South African Qualifications Authority" (SA, 1998:4). All qualifications must be registered with SAQA on the NQF and a number of qualifications can be obtained within the same programme. So, for example, a learner may achieve either a certificate, a diploma or a degree within a learning programme, depending on the number of credits completed. University qualifications are no longer time driven, but credit driven.

Each qualification within a learning programme will consist of a number of different modules. The programme will contain **core modules**, which will be the essential modules for a specific qualification containing the compulsory learning outcomes which are contextually relevant to that qualification. So, for example, modules in Translation Studies will be core modules in the BA programme in Language Practice. Translation Studies, together with other modules will make up the essence of the qualification, for example, modules in Language Editing.

The programme must also include **fundamental modules**, which include specific knowledge seen as the foundation or basis for the qualification. So, for example, specific language modules, such as English, Setswana, etc. will be fundamental modules with other modules which directly support the core modules.

A programme may also contain **elective modules**. Elective modules constitute a variety of additional credits on the specified NQF level from which a learner can choose in order to ensure that the goal of the qualification is achieved. Elective modules can be seen as supporting modules. So, for example, a module in Entrepreneurship may be included because such a module will help the learner in setting up a translation business.

A programme should have different entrance and exit levels, each linked to a specified number of credits. One credit represents 10 notional hours of learning. According to the SAQA regulations (SA, 1998), a national degree would require a minimum of 360 credits of which at least 72 should be acquired at NQF level 6. To obtain a national diploma the learner must acquire at least 240 credits, and to obtain a national certificate the learner must acquire at least 120 credits. The staggering of credits creates mobility for different qualifications within the higher education and training band. By awarding different qualifications (certificates, diplomas or degree) for the acquisition of a certain number of credits, the new programme approach allows for more mobility and more entrance and exit levels in a programme.

In the following paragraph a programme for a BA (Language Practice) is proposed. The programme is structured according to the above-mentioned SAQA guidelines for registration of a qualification with the NQF. Table 5.2 gives an outline of the proposed programme for BA (Language Practice).

Table 5.2: Proposed programme for BA (Language Practice)

Year 1		Year 2		Year 3	
Philosophy of Science M1 (F)	8			Language Editing M1 (C)	16
Language 1 M1 (F)	16	Language 1 M1 (F)	16	Language Editing M2 (C)	16
Language 1 M2 (F)	16	Language 1 M2 (F)	16	Translation Studies M1 (C)	16
Language 2 M1 (F)	16	Language 2 M1 (F)	16	Translation Studies M2 (C)	16
Language 2 M2 (F)	16	Language 2 M2 (F)	16	Language 1 M1 (F)	16
Language 3 M1 (F)	16	Translation Studies M1 (C)	16	Language 1 M2 (F)	16
Language 3 M2 (F)	16	Translation Studies M2 (C)	16	Philosophy of Science M2 (F)	8
Computer Literacy (F)	8	Language Editing M1 (C)	16	Lexicography (F)	16
Cultural Studies (F)	8	Language Editing M2 (C)	16	Entrepreneurial Studies (E)	8
Information Studies (E)	8				
	128		128		128
					384

M = Module

(C) = Core module

(F) = Fundamental module

(E) = Elective module

This proposed programme is made up of 384 credits, the minimum recommendation adopted by the Potchefstroom University (BAS, 1999:9), and will be presented over a period of three years. As the programme gives the learner a qualification in language practice, the subjects or modules of Translation Studies and Language Editing constitute the core modules of the programme, while the language courses as well as the compulsory modules in the Philosophy of Science at the Potchefstroom University and a module in Lexicography make up the fundamental modules which provide the theoretical basis or grounding of the programme. The programme focuses on language practice which requires a sound knowledge of languages. The remainder of the modules can be seen as elective modules which contribute to the rounding off of the qualification to help the learner achieve the outcomes of the specific programme for which s/he qualifies.

A programme, such as the proposed BA (Language Practice), represents the curriculum for the whole qualification. The different syllabi of the subjects or modules to be included in the programme must be worked out individually. In chapter 7 of this study a proposed syllabus for a course/modules in Translation Studies is discussed.

5.10 Conclusion

In this chapter an overview of the terms **curriculum** and **syllabus** was given and the task-based syllabi were discussed in more detail. An overview of the basis of the new outcomes-based education system adopted by the new South African Education Department, as set out in the National Qualifications Framework, was also given. In the next chapter, Diamond's system model for the design of a syllabus is discussed briefly as a framework for the proposed syllabus for Translation Studies.