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Issue 1/2020 Innovative Teaching Methods in Translation and Interpreting: Traditions, Revolutions and Perspectives

Edited by Emília Perez and Soňa Hodáková

Submitted papers investigate innovative teaching methodologies in translator and interpreter training, focusing primarily at the areas:

- Training digital technologies
- Current translator and/or interpreter profile and practice-oriented training
- Employability and employment as a training reflection
- Translation service provision competence and its development
- Collaborative training, learning and development

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Articles

‘Blended Learning’ in the Training of Professional Translators

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Abstract

The translation and interpreting (T&I) profession worldwide is undergoing fundamental changes as a result of globalization and rapid technological developments. It is essential that university training programmes prepare T&I graduates for this new environment through an approach to curricula and pedagogy that combines vocational, academic and transferable skills, responding to the diversity of both the students themselves and their potential future employment contexts. The ‘blended learning’ methodology, which integrates online and face-to-face teaching and learning activities, has been gaining prominence as an effective driver of student-centred, active learning.

Using the example of an MA programme in Australia, this article will show how the application of blended learning in T&I training can facilitate the development of skillsets necessary for 21st century translators. In particular, the case studies demonstrate, with reference to student satisfaction surveys, that the structuring of pre-class, face-to-face and post-class (assessment) activities enhanced students’ ability to engage in discussions and peer-to-peer collaborative tasks, reflect on their learning, apply theory to practice and benefit from a range of formative feedback.

Introduction

The impact of globalization and technologization within the translation and interpreting (T&I) industry has affected T&I training programmes globally. Programmes are now pushed to face the mix of challenges presented by the profession, addressing them directly within the teaching and learning context. The MA in Interpreting and Translation Studies (MITS) at Monash University (Melbourne, Australia), established in 2004[1], presents an example of a course responding directly to such needs. With a diverse student cohort – students from as many as 15 countries and up to 9 languages other than English (LOTE)[2] are enrolled in the same suite of units – the MITS engages directly with the idea that students will likely practice in a range of different global environments: in the Asia-Pacific, Asia, Australia, Europe, North America and South America. Like many other post-graduate programmes offered throughout the world, the MITS must not only provide the necessary cultural, linguistic and skills training to future professional translators and interpreters, but respond to the reality that its graduates will be working in an array of markets, as well as linguistic and geographical spheres.

Within the tertiary training sector, one of the major shifts in 21st century teaching and learning has been driven by so-called 'virtual learning environments' (VLEs), operated by 'learning management systems' (LMS), which are being used by universities to drive more student-centred learning. It has been well-acknowledged that the use of a particular technologies in the teaching and learning environment actually improves learning (Beynon, 2007; Clark, 2001; Kozma, 2001), with some scholars arguing that it is not the technology itself, but the way in which activities are designed and students engage, that create the best outcomes (Kozma 2001). VLEs and LMSs have become key access points for both students and academics:

[1] In Australia, T&I training is offered in a pool of around ten institutions. All programs are taught at MA level.
[2] In both interpreting and translation, Monash offers Chinese Mandarin, Japanese, Korean, Indonesian, Russian, German, French, Italian and Spanish.

students use them to retrieve teaching and learning resources, whilst academics deposit lecture material and readings online, post to and/or communicate with students through forums and provide online video content.

Moodle powered by Blackboard is the primary VLE utilised by Monash University. Monash has over 70,000 enrolled students and teaching spaces are now in great demand, therefore the role of Moodle as an extension of the classroom rather than as a mere file repository has become paramount. One of the major results of the globalised education sector has meant increased student mobility and greater numbers of fee-paying students, mainly from South East Asia (Gardner, 2016). This, coupled with the so-called 'massification of higher education' and the 'shift to provide higher education to a larger proportion of the population in recognition of the need for higher skills for future employment' (Gardner 2016), has drastically changed the teaching and learning landscape in Australia and, arguably, much of the world. In many universities, digital platforms are now being pushed as a way of moving towards a more student centred learning model, as outlined by the Vice Chancellor of Monash in 2016:

The future is clear […] Education will become more flexible, more formative, more personalised. The 'flipped classroom' is on its way to being more common than the large first year lecture. It uses online content to reduce lecture time, allows more group interaction, building problem solving skills. The online platform for holding content and assessment allows for more formative assessment and more ability to interact on the areas that are most important to improve student motivation and learning. In other words, digital disruption and harnessing its possibilities is vital to providing much better teaching and learning in universities in this time of globalization and massification, for here is the promise of better education for our students (Gardner, 2016).

However, as colleagues from Monash have noted, "academics have limited access to training in the effective use of Moodle and this combined with a busy teaching and research load means that we find, unsurprisingly, that Moodle is used in a very basic way" (Gleadow et al 2015, 4). Academics need to understand that changes to teaching and learning practices in the globalized world need not be radical. Instead, if shifts to teaching approaches are done with pedagogies in mind that change according to the unique needs of the learners' (Osguthorpe & Graham 2003, 227), aiming for a 'blend that favours the learner and plays to the strengths of different media in different contexts' (Donnelly & McAvinia 2012, 6), then academic adoption of technology-enhanced delivery becomes more attractive, easier to implement and more productive for all involved.

Blending learning or "flipping the classroom" is the combination of face-to-face and online learning (Auster 2015; Brown 2013; Garrison and Kanuka 2004; Millichap and Vogt 2012). The idea is to promote blended learning principles that complement existing teaching practices, instead of radically altering personal teaching approaches, in order to improve student learning. Though the notion of what constitutes blended learning in terms of technology-enhanced delivery (e.g. pre/in/post-class learning activities) is well researched (Laurillard 2012; Gleadow et al. 2015), it is important to emphasise that academic adoption – as shown in the case studies presented later on – is reliant on moulding the technology to the units' specific needs, and by providing tailored solutions for individual areas of study. Most importantly, innovators need to be supported and "share their practice with others" (Gleadow et al. 2015), for example, through the publication of their experiences in academic journals. The proliferation of information technology in the tertiary education setting is by no means a new phenomenon (Warren and Holloman 2005; Richardson 2009; Toni Mohr et al. 2012; Porter et al. 2014), but it seems like it is here to stay.

This article aims, through a description of how blended learning was implemented across two units within a MA of T&I Studies, to show how

specifically T&I training programs may respond to some of the new demands of the profession through blended learning practices. The student responses featured in this article highlight how a shift in the mode of teaching can have direct benefits on student learning experiences and, potentially, graduate outcomes.

Background: the effect of globalization on higher education and on T&I training

Whether in translation or in interpreting, practitioners, educators and researchers have had to adapt to ever-changing markets and environments because of globalization and technological developments. The industry at large has faced multiple challenges and opportunities, and is now a multifaceted sector. Because of the internationalization of the economy, of global migration, or of technological advances (be it Artificial Intelligence-enhanced tools, Neural Machine Translation for translators or more and more performant platforms to offer Distance Interpreting), T&I professionals of the 21st century are subjected to pressures that their predecessors would not have known, and to various types of professional demands. In a fragmented (and largely unregulated) global market, they are expected to show adaptability and versatility (Orlando 2016, 17-24), while the variety of modalities and contexts of work in which they have to provide their services (Setton and Dawrant 2016, 11) demands a broad palette of aptitudes.

As a result, training contexts are vastly different to those of one or two decades ago (Hurtado Albir 2007), with an increase in the use of technology, diverse student cohorts, more theoretical engagement and greater emphasis on graduate outcomes. Furthermore, as noted by Kearns (2008), Kelly (2008) and Pöchhacker (2016), training contexts have changed with the granting of university status to former vocational institutions or higher education institutions and universities absorbing T&I schools and institutes that used to provide professional training.

Internationally, T&I training today is provided mainly by universities, and even if T&I curricula remain to a certain extent the same, they have been turned into Master's degrees. Internationally, MA degrees have mushroomed and are now structured in line with new qualification frameworks, appropriate to the country in which they are based (Pöchhacker 2016). These frameworks have also meant that training is no longer solely vocational and most T&I students are required to fulfil a research component of the degree. As reported by Pym and Torres-Simón, 'at least 85 percent of the [EMT] programmes offer theory courses and 90 percent include research work of some kind.' (2017, 17). Students in T&I Studies today are more exposed to theory and research in their field than T&I students were twenty or more years ago (Gile 2009; Pöchhacker 2010). Even if the number of credits allocated to research/theory seem to vary from one institution to the other (Pym & Torres-Simón, 2017), T&I curricula must reflect the need for marrying the vocational and the academic. Research activities such as writing research abstracts, essays, projects and major theses that complement the more practical elements of the training help students and staff to theorise, self-reflect and re-conceptualise some aspects of the profession. Because of the shift towards more postgraduate training within universities, as well as major developments within the discipline of T&I Studies over the last 20 years or so, students in T&I Studies today are much more exposed to theory and research in their field than T&I students of the past.

Scholars working in the area of translator training like Kelly (2005) or Gouadec (2007) have been somewhat hostile to the idea of translators being trained in a specific kind of university environment – and even more against translators being taught by academics only (a 'preposterous' idea, Gouadec 2007, 355) – based on the notion that universities cultivate academic rationalism/conservatism and do not respond to today's society training needs. Despite such views, there is much to be said for the blending of academic and professional skills training, producing graduates who are

better-rounded, and who understand both the profession and the disciplinary background from which it stems. As such, translator training will very likely remain in university environments. Indeed, even if translator training is an activity 'falling firmly within the purview of vocational technical colleges', the 'harmonization of higher education under the Bologna Process will inevitably involve re-conceiving undergraduate and graduate studies in many ways' and will 'challenge directly many of the preconceptions of academic rationalism' (Kearns 2008, 186). Following the implementation of the Bologna Process and of its framework, even beyond European boundaries, as well as the desire to internationalise the activities of universities and to establish cross-border transparency of qualifications, transnational improvement of quality assurance and interregional mobility of scholars and students, many institutions have had to re-evaluate their practices in T&I training.

Today's T&I curricula are designed to reflect the need for both the vocational and the academic. The vocational/academic dichotomy in T&I courses has been already discussed (Orlando, 2016: 48-54), and it is important to note that universities today need to also respond to societal demands and have to include vocational, experiential components in their programmes (Kiraly et al. 2016). Training in T&I must be market-oriented, and still focus on specific competence, skills, and specialisations (Liu & Hale 2018). Tertiary education institutions are expected to provide graduates with skills that can be applied immediately in specific work environments (Echeverri 2017; González-Davies & Enríquez-Raído, 2016; Way 2008). Moreover, universities also have to ensure they teach transferable skills, seen as preparing the student to be mobile and adaptable between various jobs, whereas traditional vocational skills equip the student for a more specific job (Calvo 2011: 11).

Rationale: supporting student learning

In addition to the above, exploring ways to better support student learning and empowerment in T&I has also been dealt with by various trainers such as Kiraly (2000), Gonzalez-Davies (2004) and Choi (2006), who indicate that the emancipation of trainees depends on their capacity to reflect on their progress and their practice, and to become agents in the learning process. It was our view that, in order to gain this aptitude, metacognitive and self-regulation strategies needed to be introduced into our MITS curriculum, especially in practice-led units. The rationale is that trainees will better understand and conceptualize the practice of T&I if they understand the learning and acquisition process of T&I competence and skills, as well as the way in which theory participates in the acquisition of such competence and skills. In a classroom where students come from different continents, countries and academic backgrounds, proficient in a range of different languages, such a strategy allows for a better 'learning equilibrium' to be achieved.

One of the ways this can be achieved is by use of metacognition strategies: the awareness of the learning process by the learner and the ability to adapt to challenges that occur during this process through effective strategies. *Metacognitive knowledge* and *metacognitive skills* are complementary components of the broader notion of metacognition (Veenman 2006). Metacognitive knowledge refers to the information learners acquire about their learning, while metacognitive skills, i.e. strategies for planning, monitoring and evaluating, are general skills through which learners manage, direct, regulate and guide their learning. Students who develop their metacognitive knowledge and skills better understand the difficulties they may have with specific tasks (metacognitive knowledge) and are able to adopt strategies (metacognitive skills) to monitor and improve their performance. As feedback is central to any metacognitive approach, teaching and learning activities should be organised around metacognitive skills (as opposed to metacognitive knowledge) which 'have a feedback

mechanism built-in' (Veenman 2006, 5). In the MITS curriculum, this is done through collective, peer or individual assessment and feedback activities that facilitate and improve remediation strategies, using for example process-oriented activities with digital pen technology in interpreting practice (Orlando 2010), or rubric-based formative/process-oriented and summative/product-oriented evaluations grids in translation practice (Orlando 2011).

As for challenges pertaining to the use of English as a *lingua franca* (ELF), it is also vital that T&I curricula prepares students to cope with the variety of 'Englishes' they would have to deal with in their future professional practice. ELF is thereby considered 'a dynamic and hybrid language whose complexity cannot be fully grasped without taking into account its interaction with other languages and cultures' (Taviano 2013, 156). For Taviano, 'the spread of English, combined with globalization processes and practices, should encourage us to reflect on what translating means today and to rethink our pedagogical approaches from new and more challenging perspectives' (2013, 156). Like her, we believe that, to do so, translation and interpreting curricula should maintain a balance between theory and practice, and that 'students need to become aware of and reflect on the rapidly changing nature of their future profession'. In addition, 'one major consequence of the impact of ELF and globalization on translation is that traditional notions of texts written in a clearly identified language and addressed to a specific culture and readership are no longer valid, and translators are hence more often than not required to translate hybrid texts.' (Taviano 2013, 160). In the MITS, dealing with such considerations was facilitated by the fact students come from various countries, that instructors are not all English native speakers, and that the course is taught in language groups always paired with English. Collective T&I activities in English allow therefore an exposure to all sorts of accents, writing styles, syntactic and grammatical particularities, etc.

At a course design level, two new units were consequently recently added, which again responded directly to desired graduate outcomes: 'Global Translation and Interpreting Professional Practices', which teaches vital project management and business skills, applicable in different global contexts, and places translation and interpreting students together with various industry representatives and stakeholders at various touch-points over the semester; and 'Translation Trends in the Digital Age', which not only teaches students to use CAT tools and translation memory software, but explores the challenges and ethical dilemmas of translating in the online sphere, including collaborative translation practice, international and technological frameworks for translation in a digital age, knowledge about the localization industry and helps students develop expertise in multimodal translation and the associated requirements, sensitivities, and opportunities. So-called 'Work Integrated Learning' (WIL) also forms part of the MITS curriculum for all students, who are required to undertake 50 hours of professional (remote or on-site) practical work experience alongside the degree. Students are encouraged to source out WIL opportunities by themselves from potential future employers in Australia but also in their native country, or in countries where T&I work in their language pair(s) is required.

Findings: blended learning implemented in the MITS

Therefore, in the MITS, we married these new educational approaches with challenges posed by the globalization and technologization of the profession: our aim was to trial blended learning approaches across three core units, forcing students to increase their interaction with online spaces and to drive their own learning. The benefits of blended learning have been well-documented, as summarised below by Ally (2008):

For learners, online learning knows no time zones, and location and distance are not issues. In asynchronous online learning, students can access the online materials anytime, while synchronous online learning allows for real-

time interaction between students and instructors. Learners can use the Internet to access up-to-date and relevant learning materials, and can communicate with experts in the field which they are studying. Situated learning, or the application of knowledge and skills in specific contexts, is facilitated, since learners can complete online courses while working on the job or in their own space, and can contextualize the learning (17).

In the units selected, we replaced the traditional lecture with online seminars, which were pre-recorded by the academic, and released week by week to students. Removing the face-to-face lecture allowed for more practical, hands-on workshops and "situated learning", directly benefitting students' translation and interpreting skills training. In such cases, the online seminar acts as a 'pre-class activity', and students are expected to come to class prepared to put into action their prior learning, thus using an asynchronous approach (Ally 17). Across the MITS, major curricular changes were also made to respond to contemporary training and education realities, in particular around metacognitive activities and feedback, assessment, or the consideration of English as a *lingua franca* (ELF) in the course.

We also implemented changes to assessment. As Bryan and Clegg note, "the context in which universities operate has changed enormously, yet the traditional architecture of assessment holds firm" (2019, 1). Graduate outcomes now form major part of the student learning experience and, as such, the nature of assessment can be a real "game-changer" for graduates entering the "highly competitive" job market (Bryan and Clegg 2019, 1). In this vein, exams were removed (except in the case of the practical translation and interpreting units), and traditional essays have been replaced with reflective pieces, podcast and vodcast assignments are used in place of group presentations (which also take up valuable class time), and research masterclasses, collaborative translations, student-led project management assignments, the formation of Linkedin pages, as well as interdisciplinary situated learning activities with students from Medicine and

Health Sciences, Law and Social Work were added. These assessments, we believe, will better prepare students for the challenges that lie ahead in the 21st century workplace.

The following two case studies illustrate some of the changes made to teaching and learning practices in the MITS, focussing on building the kinds of skills required by the profession in the 21st century, as well as doing so via a shift to blended modes of content delivery. Students were asked to fill out online surveys (one was administered by the Arts Faculty Educational Designers, the other 'SETU' survey is administered each semester by the University, to elicit student satisfaction of units undertaken)at the end of each semester to elicit their satisfaction with the approaches taken. Students may elect to answer the survey, and are asked to providing a rating on a five-point Likert scale. In the survey data used in this paper, 14 out of 32 (44%) students responded in s1 2017; and six out of ten students responded (60%) in s2. In the qualitative part of the University-wide SETU survey, students are asked a number of questions such as, *Which aspect(s) of this unit did you find most effective?; Would you suggest any changes to enhance this unit in the future?.* They are also asked to comment on the clarity of learning outcomes, instructions for assessments, usefulness of feedback, resources and activities, as well as overall satisfaction of the unit.

The survey administered by Faculty Educational Designers probed specifically into the value of the blended approach, and to discover areas we could amend or improve upon in the next iteration of the unit. Students were surveyed in s2 2017, with two out of ten responding (20%). Similar to the SETU survey, we used a five-point Likert scale. The survey included the following nine questions: *Please comment on the use of videos to deliver content and activities before the workshop (e.g. do you find it convenient to be able to watch them in your own time, did you find it useful to watch the videos more than once, rewind or pause);. Do you find the video format appealing (e.g. the video player, that lectures are broken down into sections) and easy to view/use?; As there is a lot content to cover in*

weekly video lectures do you find the specific mention of textbook readings in the online lectures useful to further clarifying key topics in your learning?; What factors motivate you to watch the video lectures, do you find the videos engaging?; Please comment on the workshops (e.g. how is the time used in workshops, are you better prepared to undertake practical tasks in light of having been exposed to theoretical considerations prior to the workshop?; How do you think the preparatory tasks included in your video lectures impact your face-face workshop time (e.g. the activities provide interesting conversation points, do they prepare you for the sorts of tasks undertaken in the workshops?); Do you feel the workshop length (2 hours) is adequate to apply theories learnt online to practical translations in class?; Do you find the overall teaching approach in APG5875 to be clear (e.g. what is expected of you and what you need to do)?; In terms of undertaking a Master program do you think the 'blended' teaching approach (e.g. online video lectures and workshops) offers you a flexible learning approach that is beneficial for your studies?; Do you have any further suggestions or comments about improving the teaching and learning approach used in APG5875?

In the case of both survey types, students were emailed a link to the survey (they were not instructed to complete during class) by a person who was not involved in the teaching of the units, and were free to choose whether they engaged with the survey. This meant that comments were more likely to be objective.

Case study 1: Introduction to Interpreting and Translation Studies

As a core unit in the MITS, this introductory theory unit provides students with a comprehensive overview of theoretical approaches to translation studies within one 12-week semester. As mentioned earlier, new educational frameworks have meant that T&I training is no longer viewed as solely vocational, with most T&I students required to fulfil a research component of the degree. Most T&I training courses include an introduction

to the area of 'translation studies', which is 'the now established academic discipline related to the study of the theory, practice and phenomena of translation' (Munday 2016, 1). At Monash, this unit is taught to students in their first semester of study, which allows for the vital contextualisation of their practice into a theoretical study area. Students are not only exposed to a range of traditional theories, including many recent 'shifts' in 21st century translation studies, but asked to practically apply these approaches to their own translation practice or experience. Writing in 2013, Saldanha & O'Brien note that with the 'increase in the number of translation training programmes across the world', there has been an 'explosion in the number of masters and doctoral students and […] a concomitant move towards explicit forms of research training in Translation Studies' (Saldanha & O'Brien 2013, 1). Theoretical units such as this one are therefore vital in helping to form the basis of students' exposure to relevant theories, debates and discussions in the area of translation studies.

As mentioned, like many similar post-graduate programmes in T&I Studies, the MITS attracts a highly diverse local and international student cohort, which results in great cultural and linguistic diversity, and varied learning styles. Moreover, such MA programmes are now marketed to students from an array of different academic backgrounds: Engineering, Law, Medicine, Fine Art, Accounting, Business, Education, as well as Humanities. It is likely that, in light of the aforementioned massification of education (Gardner 2016), T&I training programmes all over the world will soon find themselves in similar waters: student learning styles and preferences can be vastly different, creating great challenges to delivery of content according to the needs of all students. Given this diversity, as well as the often complex content of theoretical units, we had previously struggled with student engagement and performance in this unit.

As with other units taught in the MITS, the theory unit was traditionally delivered in the traditional mode of a weekly 2-hour seminar and 2-hour workshop. Our aim was to experiment with a blended approach, moving the

‘seminar’ (lecture) content to an online mode, whilst maintaining weekly face-to-face workshops. The pedagogical premise behind this shift was very clear: to consolidate a wealth of complex material into a more compact 45-minute online seminar, allowing students to watch, pause and replay at any time, to take notes at their own self-determined speed, and to view the material as many times as needed for clarification if required (this would particularly benefit non-English-speaking-background students). Students were provided with PowerPoint slides, which they could follow while watching. The approach would then encourage more active learning in the workshop, allowing the lecturer more productive one-on-one time with students. The first hour would be spent on activities completed during the online seminar, asking students to form discussion groups. The second hour was used to undertake additional activities prepared and lead by the Lecturer, which are also undertaken in pairs or groups. Importantly, a 20% mark was awarded for completion of these activities. As Ally cautions: “the [blended] delivery method allows for flexibility of access, from anywhere and usually anytime, but the learning must use sound instructional design principles” (2008, 16). Therefore, we enlisted the support of Educational Designers to assist us with employing design principals that would best match our Learning Outcomes and student needs.

We traced responses from students in the first two semesters of implementation. Students were overwhelmingly positive about the blended approach, offering comments such as: ‘(*it was) flexible to fit around schedule, ability to pause, rewind and replay’*, ‘*the video lectures accompanied by written explanations and examples are informative and engaging’*, ‘*Discussion time is fun and valuable. Quite enjoy it’*, ‘*Activities and workshop tasks are highly related’*, and ‘*(The Lecturer) set a good example of the blended teaching and learning approach’* (Feedback on Teaching Approach for APG5875, Arts Faculty Education Designers 2017). The shift towards a more practical application of theory was also appreciated by students, with one commenting: ‘*I liked the online lecture*

delivery and the activities, I think they were useful. I liked the way we went through the key theory of translation studies in a clear and insightful way with plenty of real-life examples' (Monash University, Faculty of Arts, SETU APG5875, s2 2017). Negative comments were few, but included responses related to the content of the seminars, such as: '*Too many theories are not clearly explained in seminar or lecture'* and '*If more examples can be given during the online seminar presentation would be great to help students better understand these theories'* (Monash University, Faculty of Arts, SETU APG5875, s1 2017).

Results indicate that students were, on the whole, satisfied with the shift to blended mode, and appreciated the more active, user-oriented approach to theoretical engagement. Their comments indicated that they are generally satisfied with the delivery of the unit, with no negative comments recorded about the blended mode and particularly complementary in their qualitative comments about the merging of practical online and face-to-face activities. Students consistently reported a preference for being able to watch videos at home and appear to prefer the active workshops including peer discussion as a way of cementing their learning.

Case Study 2: Practical translation units (Translation for Special Purposes and Applied Translation)

We implemented a similar approach for two practical translation units, taught sequentially over different semesters: Translation for Special Purposes and Applied Translation. Both units expose students to a range of domain- and skills-based translation approaches, continuing the methodology described in Case Study 1 of applying theory as an aide to translation practice.

These units attempt to address the challenges mentioned above of blending the vocational skills required by professional translators with academic research skills and transferable skills to boost students' employability in the global marketplace. As Ally suggests, "educators must tacitly or explicitly

know the principles of learning and how students learn", and this is best realized "before any learning materials are developed" (Ally 19). Thus, the Learning Outcomes, which focus on process-oriented skills, in particular the metacognitive skills of reflective learning, are foregrounded in the design of materials and activities. Teaching and learning activities before, during, and after class required students to reflect on their own learning style and process, articulate their role, justify their translation decisions and critically apply theory to practice. Through domain-specific translation modules (such as legal, health, science and technology, business, and literary translation), students developed skills in text and genre analysis, identifying cultural and linguistic issues for translation. In collaboration with their peers and instructors, they discussed and developed problem-solving methods in response to translation issues, formulating and implementing strategies. They built their competencies in researching and retrieving relevant information, using technology appropriately, and enhanced their ability to write in their target language in various styles and registers, according to the genre. There was also a focus on developing skills in revision and editing of their own and others' translations.

These units were previously taught in the traditional format of a 2-hour face-to-face seminar plus 2-hour language-specific workshop per week but following the successful implementation of blended learning in the theory unit discussed in Case Study 1, a similar format was introduced for the two practical translation units from 2018. After watching the video and reading the materials, students completed a pre-class worksheet enabling them to apply the knowledge they have gained to practical tasks, such as finding and analyzing parallel texts, compiling glossaries, etc, which they then discussed at the Common Workshop (comprising all <9 language cohorts combined). Finally, they applied their learning to a weekly translation task, which they bring to their Language-Specific Workshop (comprising just the students in their language pair).

As well as gaining student feedback through the Faculty SETU survey, we also designed and implemented a specific survey (APG5690 Survey, 2019) to identify student responses to this new blended learning/flipped classroom structure. At the end of Semester 1 2019, we surveyed students who had completed at least one of the practical translation units, using a paper-based questionnaire that students were asked to fill out during the final class. All 22 students in attendance completed the questionnaire, in which they were asked to rate on a five-point Likert scale their agreement with statements regarding learning outcomes in six categories (video content, reading materials, pre-class activities, common workshop, language-specific workshop, and assessment). There was also space for general comments at the end of each category.

We found that by completing the pre-class material, students were equipped with sufficient theoretical and genre-related knowledge to engage in higher-level activities in class, which promoted their analytical and critical thinking skills. The comments were similar to those of Case Study 1, for example: "*I really liked the way that class time was used in this unit… I liked that we prepared the Moodle Book content beforehand, involving the intake of more passive content, videos, podcasts, readings etc, and then we could really engage and interact in the common workshop and language specific workshop*" (Monash University, Faculty of Arts, SETU, s2, 2018).

Perhaps more surprisingly, the blended approach also assisted students in their translation work. A significant component of assessment in these units comprises translation tasks, each accompanied by a Critical Reflection for which students have to reflect on their translation process, justify their choices and apply relevant theoretical approaches. In terms of the development of students' metacognitive skills and knowledge (Veenmnan 2006), the provision of feedback by both instructors and peers for these tasks is crucial, as these are process-oriented, formative assessments[3]. We

[3] Feedback mechanisms in these units include detailed rubrics, instructor-led discussions of common issues and strategies, as well as peer-to-peer feedback in class.

found that transferable skills such as those relating to research and digital literacy were actually enhanced through the flipped classroom structure; for example 82% of students agreed (completely or somewhat) that the pre-class worksheet helped them build skills in parallel text research, and aspects of the research process could be discussed in class, and were thus better understood (APG5690 Survey, 2019).

Studies indicate that graduate outcomes are enhanced by enabling greater incorporation of situated learning (Ally 17) into workshops and pre-class tasks; for example, tasks that simulate real-life professional contexts or pose ethical dilemmas. In these practical translation units, written activities were complemented by the experiential learning provided by WIL, as well as 'incursions', whereby experts in the field gave 'live' guest presentations. As one student commented: "*I really appreciate the opportunity to listen to guest lecturers providing their refresh and unique perspective on translation and also share their own experience in the industry. This helps to establish some expectation of the workforce after graduation*" (APG5690 Survey, 2019). Therefore, it appears effective to follow a truly 'blended' approach and retain some guest seminars for this purpose, rather than having a 'flipped' classroom for the whole semester.

Importantly, the pedagogical effectiveness of the Language-Specific Workshop was enhanced by the combination of pre-class learning and interactive learning in the Common Workshop. 85% of students agreed (completely or somewhat) that they could apply knowledge and skills gained in the latter contexts when translating and discussing their workshop text (APG5690 Survey, 2019): they were better prepared to perform the peer revision tasks and collaborative exploration of translation strategies, which are fundamental to building their translation skills. Moreover, the blended approach has provided more time allocation to specific skills-focused modules such as those designed to improve target language writing skills and translation revision/editing skills, which are major skills needed for the 21st century translator. The survey responses also highlighted some

avenues for further improvement, such as the need to ensure that discussions in common workshops do not simply rehash content covered in video lectures and are focused on applying and extending students' knowledge.

Therefore, as in Case Study 1, results were overwhelmingly positive, with students learning outcomes benefitting from an increase in active, participatory learning, and more class time available for discussion, workshopping and feedback.

Conclusion

In this article, we have emphasized the need for T&I training programs to adapt their pedagogical approaches in response to the changing global environment of the industry and of university education. Challenges include the diversity of students' academic, cultural and linguistic backgrounds, the need to equip graduates with a mix of vocational, academic and transferable skills that enable them to compete in a global marketplace, and the need for training to respond to the hybridity of global English. These challenges can be met through course design that adopts an appropriate balance of theory and practice, academic research and experiential learning, and implements a blended approach of online pre-class content combined with face-to-face workshops to achieve student-centred, active learning.

The case studies presented here have identified several benefits of a blended learning approach to translator training in university T&I programs. The flipped classroom mode enhances student engagement with lecture content, which they can view flexibly at their own pace, and as many times as they wish. This helps cater for the diversity of learning styles and English language abilities. The sequential structure of learning activities (WATCH-READ-THINK-DO) enables students to be more productive in workshop classes, applying their knowledge to practical scenarios and practicing higher-order skills in critical and analytical thinking during group discussions. This pedagogical approach helps develop metacognitive skills

in reflective learning; tasks and assessments require students to reflect on their own learning process and translation decisions, encouraging them to be self-motivated. With more student-led discussions occurring in workshops, students can benefit greatly from peer-to-peer learning, simultaneously developing skills in intercultural awareness and teamwork. The shift from a content to skills focus in the face-to-face classes also enables workshops to target specific areas such as writing skills enhancement and revision and editing. The case studies have further demonstrated that while the flipped classroom approach is effective for most weeks in the theoretical and practical translation units, there will also be certain topics that benefit from incursions by guest speakers such as industry professionals. We hope that these case studies may provide T&I educators with examples and approaches that will help them cater for the needs of our globalized industry and globalized student population.

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Using Rubrics for Translation Assessment: The Case of the National Translator Accreditation Exam in Norway

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Abstract

As an integral part of translator education, assessment has been addressed in many publications (*e.g.*, Way 2008; Kelly 2014). In higher education in general, there has been a trend in recent years to move from summative to performative assessment. However, this has not yet been discussed to a large extent in the literature on translator education. The aim of this paper is to describe the transposition from an error-based (summative) to a criteria-based (performative) assessment system using rubrics at the *National Translator Accreditation Exam* (NTAE) in Norway. Due to a lack of training programs, the NTAE faces particular challenges when it comes to candidate qualifications and thus the assessment itself. We discuss the pros and cons of error-based and criteria-based translation quality assessment models, also regarding often-cited translation competence models and present a first draft of a criteria-based assessment model to be tested in

the fall semester of 2019. We highlight the applicability of rubrics as both assessment tool as well as innovative teaching tool (*e.g.*, providing feedback to support the learning process) not only for the NTAE, but for assessment in translator education in general.

KEY WORDS

Translation quality assessment, Translator education, Translator accreditation, Translation competence, Rubrics, Assessment for learning

1 Introduction

The aim of this paper is to discuss rubrics as an assessment and teaching methodology and respective didactic considerations in assessing translation products in the light of the absence of a regular teaching environment at the NTAE in Norway. The paper begins with some background information for the overall theme of this paper (section 2). Section 3 deals with rubrics in teaching, evaluation and assessment. The issue of translation quality assessment is discussed in section 4, including a short review of two important translation competence models and of relevant assessment models, before we in section 5 compare the old and new assessment model at the NTAE. The final section discusses the limitations of the new model as of June/July 2019 and outlines how we intend to continue working with the model.

2 Some facts about translator training in Norway

Norway offers considerably fewer translator education programs in comparison to continental Europe and the UK. At the University of Oslo different components geared towards translation are offered as part of language programs. At the University of Agder, a bachelor's degree in translation and intercultural communication for Norwegian - English is

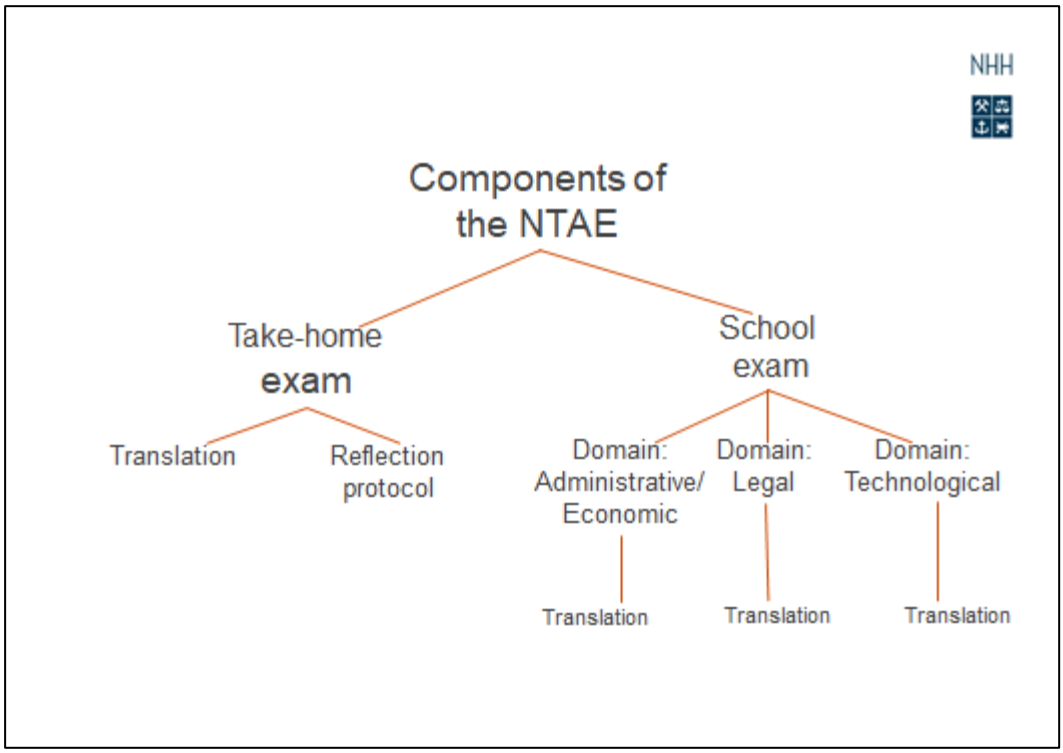
offered. To become an accredited translator, Norway offers the NTAE[4], for which *NHH Norwegian School of Economics* is responsible. Candidates have to account for at least 180 credits (the equivalent of three years of studies) from an institution of higher education. However, what they studied is irrelevant. It is here where our teaching methodology and evaluation/assessment model comes into play. First, however, we will describe the general characteristics of the NTAE.

The NTAE is divided into two components: a take-home exam and a school exam (see Figure 1 below). At the take-home exam (fall semester) a general language text which covers a broad range of present-day topics is tested. In addition, the exam tests the candidates' translation competence by way of a reflection protocol, where the candidates reflect on their translation products and processes. The translation and the reflection protocol are assessed separately, and both have to be passed. Every year there is a rather considerable number of candidates who do not pass the take-home exam.

The school exam (following spring semester) tests the competence in translating three different LSP-texts. The non-pass rate for the school exam is rather high as well. The relatively substantial number of candidates who do not pass the exam is the main reason why we want to change the assessment procedure by adapting our assessment model to also function as a feedback and learning tool.

[4] A comparison of different accreditation practices in other European countries can be found in Vigier, Klein & Festinger (2015).

Figure 1: Components of the NTAE



The new system intends to facilitate the candidates' comprehension of the assessment criteria and to provide detailed evaluations of their translation performance according to these criteria. Furthermore, this evaluation can be utilized as feedback to the candidates, who can act accordingly (*i.e.*, improve their performance). In the next section we describe the new performance-based system which consists of a criteria-based assessment model in the form of a rubric.

3 Using rubrics in teaching, evaluation and assessment[5]

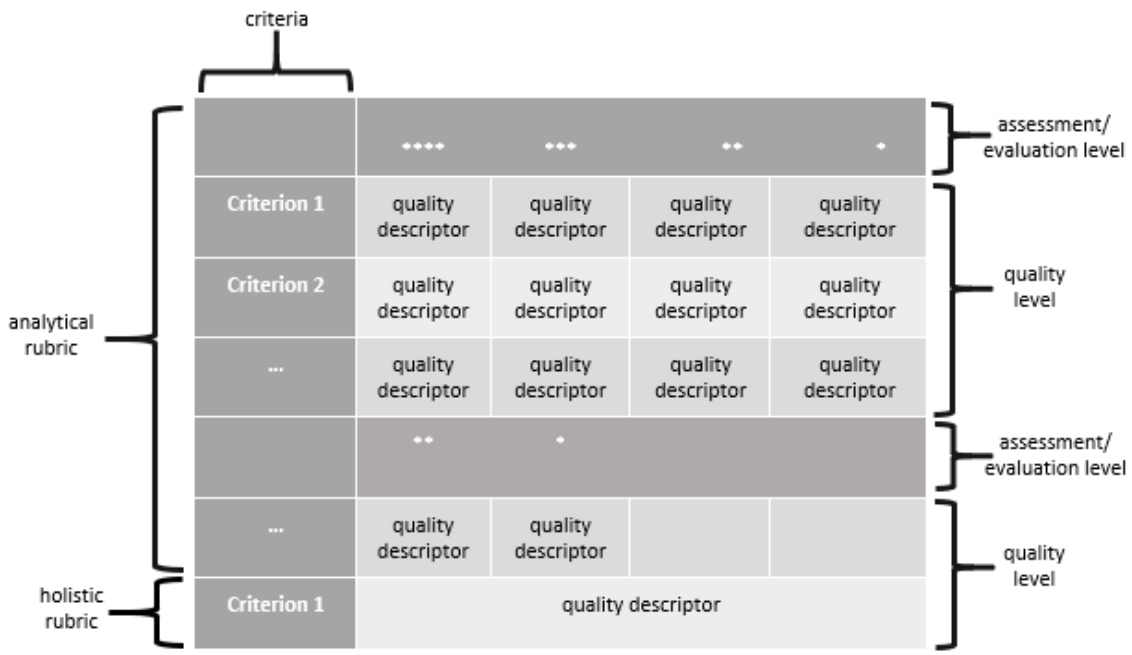
In teaching, evaluation, and assessment, rubrics have been used for several decades in educational systems around the world. In general, rubrics are defined as "a scoring tool for qualitative rating of authentic or complex

[5] We distinguish here between evaluation and assessment. Evaluation does not trigger marking/grading, but is rather meant to, for example, provide feedback to students on learning processes or provide the teacher with a snapshot of student learning status/progression. Assessment on the other hand is meant to set a mark/grade on student performance on different scales (e.g., pass/non-pass, A-F etc.).

student work. It includes criteria for rating important dimensions of performance, as well as standards of attainment for those criteria (Jonsson & Svingby 2007, 131). In other words, rubrics represent student performance expectations, as well as a means to qualitatively evaluate and assess this performance holistically.

Rubrics consist of two main components, which are closely linked to its purpose: criteria and quality descriptors. Usually, rubrics are developed in the form of a matrix (see Figure 2 below). Criteria are specified in the left-hand column while quality descriptors are presented in the adjacent columns. The top row specifies the assessment or evaluation level, which can be expressed in multiple ways depending on the aim and use of the rubric (*e.g.*, on a scale from *A-F*, or as quality denotations like *Excellent*, *Good*, *Satisfactory*, or *Exceeds Expectations*, *Meets Expectations*, *Below Expectations*). Quality descriptors may either be pre-formulated descriptions of student performance (analytical rubric) or individual free-hand comments (holistic rubric). The former categorizes student performance and, if developed carefully, enables especially teachers and examiners to proceed quickly through the evaluation or assessment process. In a holistic rubric the level of assessment or evaluation is not specified (*e.g.*, free comments).

Figure 2: Theoretical model of a rubric



Rubrics can be used along two different dimensions: the level of education and the user group. Concerning the level of education, we will focus on higher education only. Firstly, rubrics are developed for use at three different levels of education. They can be designed for use at program level describing performance criteria and expectations of a specific study program at, for example, bachelor's or master's level. Furthermore, rubrics can be designed at subject or course level detailing performance criteria and expectations of the particular subject or course. Finally, rubrics can be designed for individual tasks and assignments within a course or subject describing in detail performance criteria and expectations. At task level, there may be several rubrics within one course depending on the number of tasks and the inherent characteristics of these assignments. If tasks are comparable aiming to achieve the same learning outcomes, rubrics may be developed to accommodate all tasks (*i.e.*, they have transfer value). If, however, tasks differ from each other aiming at, for example, different learning outcomes, they have to be designed to accommodate each learning

outcome individually, and the transfer value from one rubric to the next is rather limited.

Secondly, rubrics are developed to be used by different user groups: students, teachers, and examiners. Students use rubrics to familiarize themselves with assessment criteria and performance expectations as well as for self-evaluation. At the level of the individual task for example, students can evaluate their own performance in a given task against the criteria detailed in the rubric. This presupposes that rubrics are made available to the students with the task description. Self-evaluation supports students' learning processes by enabling them to reflect critically on their own performance.

Teachers use rubrics to communicate performance criteria and expectations. In addition, rubrics constitute a tool for teachers to provide feedback on students' performances (for a comprehensive discussion of feedback as a pedagogical tool to enhance students' learning processes see Jonsson 2013), and to receive a general overview of student learning and learning progress. In other words, rubrics provide teachers with information on whether students are (on their way) to meet expected learning outcomes. If necessary, teaching can be adjusted to direct student learning accordingly.

Finally, examiners use rubrics to understand and apply the assessment criteria, which is especially important for example for external examiners who are not actively involved in the teaching. Rubrics have been discussed with regard to inter- and intra-rater reliability, and Jonsson and Svingby (2007) find that reliability can be approved given specific circumstances like training examiners in using the rubric or incorporating benchmarks into the rubric.

Since rubrics are used to assess the quality of student submissions, we believe that they are also applicable to the evaluation of translation products, to be described in the next sections.

4 Translation quality assessment in translator education settings

Research into professional translation competence assumes that translation "is a complex activity, involving expertise in a number of areas and skills" (Adab and Schäffner 2000, viii). There is, however, no general agreement on how this expertise is defined. Evaluating and assessing such expertise in translator education settings and accreditation is therefore rather challenging. Angelelli (2009) points out that translation quality assessment has to be based on a clear definition and operationalization of translation ability (*i.e.*, competence) and that tests need to be designed carefully in order to ensure a reliable connection between the test itself and what the test is supposed to measure. Thus, quality assessment does not only entail "naming the ability, knowledge, or behavior that is being assessed but also involves breaking that knowledge, ability, or behavior into the elements that formulate a construct" (op. cit., 13; referring to Fulcher 2003). In other words, such tests need to measure translation competence.

4.1 Translation competence models

There are at least two translation competence models which are repeatedly referred to in the literature: the PACTE model and the *TransComp* model. Both models are relevant for our new assessment model to be presented in section 5. The PACTE model (PACTE 2003, 60; Albir 2017, 41) consists of the following sub-competences: bilingual, extralinguistic, instrumental, knowledge of translation and strategic sub-competence, where the strategic sub-competence is placed in the middle of the model, surrounded by the other sub-competences. All sub-competences interact with psycho-physiological components, for example, memory, perception, intellectual curiosity, perseverance and creativity and logical reasoning. Göpferich's *TransComp* model (2009/2013), building upon the PACTE 2003-model, consists of communicative competence in at least 2 languages (cf. PACTE's bilingual sub-competence), domain competence (cf. PACTE's extralinguistic sub-competence), tools and research competence (cf. PACTE's instrumental

sub-competence), translation routine activation competence (cf. PACTE's knowledge of translation sub-competence), psycho-motor competence (no direct comparable sub-competence in PACTE) and again, placed in the middle of the model, the strategic competence interacting with all kinds of the listed competences.

In the following section, we describe existing translation quality assessment models which are relevant for our decision to change the current assessment model.

4.2 Review of relevant assessment models in translator education settings

The majority of existing translation quality assessment systems is designed with particular focus on error identification and quantification. Similar approaches have been presented and introduced either fully or partly, for example, in the US system (American Translators Association ATA), the Finnish system and the Australian system.

Colina (2008; 2009) suggests a functional-componential approach as a result of her analysis of current translation quality assessment methods. These methods have, as she argues, not achieved middle ground between theory and applicability (Colina 2009, 239). Further, she rightly argues that translation quality is a "multifaceted reality" which should be reflected in an assessment model where multiple components of quality should be addressed simultaneously (*ibid.*). Colina's quality assessment tool (TQA) evaluates components of quality separately, therefore called a functional-componential approach. The advantages of this approach are that the user/the requester of the translation decides which aspects of quality are more important for the communicative purposes (Colina 2009, 240). The quality is not assessed on the basis of a point deduction but rather on suggested descriptors for each component.

Turner et al. (2010) present a comparison of two methods of translation assessment, *i.e.* error analysis/deduction vs. use of descriptors. They

compare international testing bodies that have moved/are moving towards using descriptors or combining negative marking and descriptors. They find a high degree of correlation between the Australian National Accreditation Authority for Translators and Interpreters (NAATI) and the UK Diploma in Public Service Interpreting (DSPI)[6] assessment models which leads them to conclude that NAATI "might be able to move towards a descriptor-based system without sacrificing reliability of assessment" (Turner et al. 2010, 13f.). The advantage of a descriptor-based system is that descriptors offer more holistic assessment than the NAATI error analysis/deduction system. The observation by Turner et al. that international testing bodies are moving towards using descriptors is a valid argument for the NTAE to adopt a similar assessment model.

Phelan (2017) looks at analytical assessment of legal translation using the ATA framework. This case study is especially interesting because legal translation is considered the most challenging text type of the three LSP-texts tested at the NTAE (see Figure 1). The ATA uses a negative marking system where the threshold for pass is predefined as a concrete number of points. This analytical approach should allow for a "more objective, replicable system based on the identification of errors" (Phelan 2017, 1). However, the author acknowledges that this approach still contains some subjectivity with regard to the examiner's decision on the seriousness of the error (transfer errors) where (s)he can impose either 1, 2, 4, 8 or 16 points.

From this short review, we conclude that adopting a descriptor-based assessment system seems reasonable, especially when we consider the possibility to apply the model also in a learning situation for the candidates at the NTAE, which is described in the next section.

5 Old and new assessment model at NHH

[6] For more details on the DPSI and Diploma in Translation, see *DipTrans Handbook 2017*, https://www.ciol.org.uk/DipTrans. Accessed on: 14 June 2019

As described previously, the Norwegian system of higher education does not offer sufficient educational programs which lead directly to the NTAE. Repeatedly, candidates seem to rely on their proficiency in the relevant language combinations, but this language competence is only one of the sub-competences (see section 4.1 on translation competence models) as well as only one of the criteria tested in the NTAE. Angelelli (2009) points to the inherent relationship between the understanding or definition of translation competence that underlies a test, in this case a certification exam, and the test itself (*op. cit.*, 30 f.). Angelelli argues that, for example, the American certification exam focuses on a componential definition of translation competence, but in practice "the tendency is to focus more on the grammatical and textual competences" (*op. cit.*, 31), which is realized in an analysis and quantification of error types. Therefore, "[w]hen operationalizing the construct, professional associations tend to have a narrower definition of translation competence, and many times pragmatic and other elements are not included in the construct to be measured" (*ibid.*). Thus, Angelelli refers to what she perceives as a gap between research on translation competence and testing of the same construct by accreditation authorities.

Due to the lack of translation-specific training, most of the candidates of the NTAE represent a special group of testees in such a context. Due to the nature of the exam (accreditation) and the sometimes non-professional and varied translation qualifications of the candidates, the exam focuses on translation features which represent sub-competences that candidates can be expected to possess without or with limited prior translation training/education and experience. Therefore, our old approach to assessment has been largely based on error type identification focusing on *i.a.* textual translation and grammatical features, and not, as proposed by Angelelli on an "operational construct [...] articulated along similar lines to those used in translation studies in order to **capture translation in its**

entirety and thus properly measure it" (Angelelli 2009, 31, emphasis added).

Wherever possible, attempts have been made to follow current research in the field regarding exam situations. For example, in order to make the exam situation as comparable as possible to a real-life working situation, a translation brief (assignment) accompanies each translation task in the exam, detailing the origin of the source text, the purpose of the target text and the target audience. This change was introduced in 2013 and follows a functionalist approach (Nord 1997). Göpferich (2009) also references the translation assignment in her model. Since 2016 internet access is granted during the school exam. The exploitation of online resources of various kinds is an integral part of the work of professional translators, and is, for example, captured by the *tools and research competence* in Göpferich's *TransComp* model (2009; 2013) or the *instrumental sub-competence* in the PACTE model (2003; Albir 2017, 40).

As mentioned above, our old assessment model is based on an error analysis where the errors are categorized according to their severity, in either major or minor errors with subcategories:

1) Major errors that may lead to non-pass:

- Disregard of the translation brief
- Misinterpretation of the message of the source text
- Omission of whole clauses/sentences – including omission of the use of brackets for omissions made in the source text, marked as «[…]» or omission of significant units in sentences
- Use of wrong concepts/terminological errors
- Serious violations of genre conventions
- Uncritical use of resources

2) Minor errors that may lead to non-pass

- Alternative translation suggestions
- Less serious violations of genre conventions
- Errors in the general vocabulary (not influencing the meaning of the text message)
- Unidiomatic language use and style
- Morphological and syntactical errors
- Misspellings and wrong punctuation
- Repetitive careless mistakes

When used repetitively, this category may lead to "non-pass". Errors in this category reflect the candidates' missing language competence, especially in the target language. Major and minor error categories test most of the above-mentioned sub-competences in the PACTE and *TransComp* models. To sum up, even if we do not assign any number of points to the subcategories (threshold), the central question is how few/many errors are acceptable in order for the translation to still be assessed as "pass". Our experience has shown that we seldom see a candidate whose translation only contains one major error, such as misinterpretation or omission of a whole sentence/paragraph. Thus, most often it is likely to find more than just one major error. In addition, usually translations contain also minor errors.

Candidates are informed of the result of the assessment (summative, pass/non-pass) after the exam period is over. Candidates are always entitled to request an explanation according to the *Act Relating to Universities and University Colleges*, Section 5-3. The value of explanations (until now as comments on error types and respective examples) as formative feedback has been underestimated both on our behalf and on

behalf of the candidates.[7] Candidates may receive valuable information in order to produce a translation which conforms to the required level of translation quality/competence in future exams. Candidates who have passed the take-home exam and thus advance to the school exam, can and should utilize the explanations to prepare for this final part of the exam. They can focus on improving potential weaknesses (*e.g.*, violations of text type conventions, morphological and syntactical errors), which helps them to develop their translation competence and to be better prepared for the school exam. The value of feedback to support the learning process has been discussed in section 3.

In order to refine the error criteria used at the NTAE, and to utilize the value of feedback that lies in the identification and categorization of these error criteria in exam papers, the steering board has recently decided to move towards an evaluation/assessment matrix, which is based on a descriptor system, in line with the ones described by Colina (2009)[8] and Angelelli (2009). The error criteria system as described above represented the starting point for the rubrics that have been developed to be implemented in the NTAE 2020 (fall 2019, spring 2020). In other words, the criteria tested during the exam remain the same. and aim to capture the different translation sub-competences (see section 4.1.). Two analytical rubrics were created representing the two parts which are object of assessment of the take-home exam: a translation and a reflection protocol (see Figure 1). As such, the rubrics are specifically designed for an individual task or assignment, which is our exam. For the translation rubric, five assessment criteria were established: *Function and scope of the text (assignment and translation brief)*, *Specialized content and terminology*, *Content and meaning*, *Target language*, and *Grammar and spelling*. The five criteria are

[7] For a comprehensive discussion of assessment for learning see John Gardner (2012).

[8] For discussion of similar criteria see e.g. Turner et al. (2010); Kivilehto & Salmi (2016) and Salmi & Kivilehto (2018) with further references there; and *DipTrans Handbook 2017*.

partly based on Colina's suggestion of a functional approach to translation quality assessment (2008; 2009).

Function and scope of the text (assignment and translation brief) refers to the transfer and placement of the translated text into the target language and culture according to the translation brief. It considers the function of the text (informative, expressive, appellative) and the hypothetical target audience. *Specialized content and terminology* cover the rendition and use of specialized terminology related to the specific text type. *Content and meaning* relates to the appropriate transfer of meaning-making content from source to target text. This criterion covers translation phenomena like additions, omissions and alterations, which have an impact on the quality of the translated text in terms of target audience comprehension. *Target language* refers to the identification and classification of the target text as part of a larger class of target language texts which are originally produced in the target language. In other words, unless otherwise specified by the translation brief, candidates are expected to apply a translation strategy which results in the target text being comparable to texts produced in the target language. Finally, *Grammar and Spelling* measures the candidates' performances according to grammatical correctness in the target language. This criterion differs from the previous criterion in that it evaluates concrete, measurable phenomena which are determined by the target language grammatical rules and norms.

For the reflection protocol rubric, the following five assessment criteria were established. *Structure*, *Content*, *List of references*, *Reflection ability*, and *Grammar and Spelling*. The reflection protocol is to be written in the target language. Thus, the criterion *Grammar and Spelling* evaluates candidates' performance in that target language once more (in addition to the translation itself). *Structure* refers to purely formal features of the text pertaining to layout and composition: The text is to be written in essay form consisting of three main components: an *Introduction*, a *Main part*, and a *Conclusion*, which are to be clearly marked by division into sections and

subsections. The required length is 1,500 to 2,000 words. The *Content* needs to reflect the three structural parts of the reflection protocol. The introductory part presents the source text and the translation brief and reflections on the relationship between the two considering its implications on the translated text. The main part considers challenges and problems related to specific topics like terminology and cultural references, and the conclusion summarizes the principal reflections of the main part. The criterion *List of references* addresses the use of relevant sources like dictionaries, termbanks, and other printed and online resources, which need to be presented adhering to an established academic standard (*e.g.*, APA, Harvard). *Reflection ability* considers the candidates' ability to consciously identify and critically discuss their translation and the process that led to the translated text. Finally, *Grammar and Spelling* measures the candidates' performance according to grammatical correctness in the target language. After having presented the assessment criteria included in both rubrics, we will now briefly describe the corresponding assessment and quality levels.

Each assessment level is divided into four sublevels. Each sublevel is marked by a number of symbols (stars) starting with four symbols indicating the best performance to be expected by a candidate and ending with one symbol indicating non-compliance with the majority of the components of a criterion. For each criterion, quality descriptors were defined for each assessment sublevel. To define these quality descriptors, the following resources were considered: Colina (2008; 2009), *The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment* (CEFR), and the experience of internal examiners, who have been developing and assessing the NTAE for a considerable number of years. This way, four quality descriptors of expected translation performance, ranging from best to lowest, for each of the five assessment criteria in both rubrics were devised (see Appendix 1 & 2). As such, the rubrics are intended to be used by the examiners (user group) of the exam

as grading guidelines as well as to decide upon the final grade (pass, non-pass).

The rubric for the translated text has been tested informally by three examiners (French, German, Spanish) during the assessment of the school exam in the spring of 2019. The rubric for the reflection protocol could not be tested since the discussion of the new assessment system only started after the take-home exam in the fall 2018. The internal examiners were asked to fill out the rubric alongside their assessment of the translations and evaluate whether the criteria and qualitative performance descriptors are comprehensible and applicable to the translations they were assessing. Their feedback has not yet been analyzed at length, but initial comments indicate that the rubric was applicable and useful for assessment. They merely suggest minor changes in wording clarifying the content of specific quality descriptors and/or delimiting quality descriptors more clearly from each other. These changes will be evaluated and addressed before the rubrics are introduced into the NTAE 2020.

Concerning the utilization of the rubrics for learning and feedback, that is for the candidates, the rubrics will be employed in two ways: Firstly, as a tool to communicate assessment criteria before and during the exam period, and secondly as a tool to provide valuable feedback to candidates on their performance. As a tool to communicate assessment criteria, the rubrics will be published on the exam website clearly communicating the assessment criteria and performance expectations. Candidates will be encouraged to actively use the rubrics when working on their translations and reflection protocols, for example by self-assessing their work against the criteria and quality descriptors in the rubrics before submitting. In addition, the rubrics will be published together with the exam in the school's digital exam and assessment platform *WISEflow*, which is used to conduct the exam. Examiners will electronically fill out the rubrics in *WISEflow* during the assessment process. This rubric assessment can be automatically released to the candidates together with the exam results.

Marked quality descriptors indicate how a candidate's performance has been evaluated related to a specific criterion. If necessary, candidates can easily extract from the rubric what needs to be done in order to improve performance.[9] Here, the steering board faces two choices: whether to release rubric feedback to all candidates of the take-home exam, or only to the candidates who pass the take-home exam. The latter will be implemented as a means of helping those candidates to prepare for the school exam by identifying potential problem areas and prepare accordingly. This way, we hope to provide a means to further candidates' learning processes even without exposing them to any form of translation teaching and training, and thus to increase the number of candidates who eventually pass the complete exam and become accredited translators. However, whether rubric feedback will also be released to candidates who do not pass the take-home exam, is dependent on administrative considerations like workload and time use. Specifically considering that it is rather unsure whether or when these candidates will attempt to take the exam anew.

6 Limitations and implications

The aim of this paper was to describe the transposition from an error-based to a criteria-based assessment system at the NTAE in Norway. Due to the insufficient number of training programs, the NTAE faces particular challenges when it comes to candidate qualifications as well as the assessment itself. In order to meet these challenges, the new performance-based assessment model (rubrics) will be used from the fall semester of 2019. As of now, the model has only been tested internally, and not in the exam itself. Therefore, neither examiners nor candidates are familiar with the new model yet. Both user groups have to be thoroughly acquainted with the model before the exam. In applying the model, we will detect problem areas (*e.g.*, too strict quality descriptors) and adapt accordingly. On the

[9] A candidate is allowed to sit for the exam three times.

other hand, the multiple application possibilities of the model, both as assessment and learning and feedback tool, are promising with regard to the specific situation in Norway, but also with regard to translator education in general. Our assessment model builds on the research by, for example, Colina (2008; 2009) and Angelelli (2009) and develops further a performance-based approach to assessment in higher education within translator education. However, we have not yet employed the rubrics in the exam, and can therefore, at this point in time, not draw any validated conclusions.

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Appendices

Appendix 1
Rubric take-home exam: Translation (partly adapted from Colina 2008; 2009; translated from Norwegian)

	****	***	**	*
Function and scope of the text ***(assignment and translation brief)***	The translation considers accurately the text's function (informative, expressive, persuasive), purpose, and intended recipients (for instance level of formality) as specified in the translation brief. The text preserves cultural needs and characteristics of the intended recipients.	The translation considers most of the text's function (informative, expressive, persuasive), purpose and intended recipients (*e.g.*, level of formality) as specified in the translation brief. However, the translation is not as efficient as it could be, given the requirements and instructions detailed in the translation brief.	The translation gives some consideration to the function and purpose as specified in the translation brief, but misses some important aspects of it (*e.g.*, level of formality, some aspects of its function, the needs of the intended recipients, cultural characteristics etc.).	The translation disregards the function, purpose, and intended recipients. The text gives *e.g.* no consideration to genre specific characteristics, needs of the recipients and cultural characteristics.
Specialized content and terminology	Accurate and appropriate rendition of the terminology. The text reflects the translator's very good command of the specific content and respective terminology.	Largely accurate and appropriate rendition of the terminology. Few terminological errors which do not seriously affect the specialized content.	Serious and recursive mistakes in the translation of terminology and the specialized content.	The translation reveals unawareness or ignorance of special terminology and/or insufficient knowledge of specialized content.
Content and Meaning	The translation reflects accurately the content of the source text. No or very few unnecessary alterations, omissions, and/or additions. Slight nuances and shades of meaning have been rendered adequately.	The translation reflects adequately the content of the source text. Few unnecessary alterations, omissions, and/or additions. Slight nuances and shades of meaning have been rendered satisfactorily.	The translation contains considerable changes in meaning (omissions and/or additions) that cannot be justified by the translation brief. The translation shows some misunderstanding of (parts of) the source text and/or the translation brief.	The translation contains profound, unwarranted deviations from the source text (defective translations, omissions, and/or additions) that cannot be justified by the translation brief. The translation shows very defective comprehension of (large parts of) the

				source text and/or translation brief.
Target language	The translation reads similar to respective text types written originally in the target language. No or very few instances of problematic and/or awkward expressions. The translation requires little or no revision.	The translation can generally be read similar to respective text types written originally in the target language, but problematic and/or awkward expressions can occur occasionally, which, in most cases, are caused by interference from the source text. A reasonable amount of revision is needed.	The translation contains unnecessary transfer of elements and structure from the source text. Sentence structure of the source language and source text is prominent in the translation and affects its readability. The text is difficult to comprehend. A considerable amount of revision is needed.	The translation continuously mixes linguistic norms from source- and target language and appears to have been written in some sort of third language being neither source nor target language. The structures of the source text /source language prevail to the extent that the translation cannot be considered a sample of target language text. Transfers from the source text cannot be justified by the purpose of the translation. The text is extremely difficult to read and/or is almost incomprehensible. No possibility to correct these errors by revision.
Grammar & spelling	Consistently high degree of grammatical accuracy. Virtually no errors.	Good grammatical control. Occasional 'slips' or non-systematic errors and minor flaws in sentence structure may still occur, but they are rare.	Sufficient grammatical precision. General good control of grammar and spelling, although errors do occur.	Insufficient grammatical precision revealing insufficient linguistic competence. High number of grammatical and spelling errors. Systematic and repetitive errors.

Appendix 2

Rubric take-home exam: Reflection protocol (translated from Norwegian)

	****	***	**	*
Structure	Reflection protocol is a coherent text and adheres to the formal criteria concerning length and segmentation.	Reflection protocol is a coherent text and adheres to most of the formal criteria concerning length and segmentation.	Reflection protocol is a coherent text or in another incoherent form. The text adheres to some of the formal criteria concerning length and segmentation.	Reflection protocol is written in a form which does not carry signs of cohesion (e.g. bullet point list). The text adheres to very few or none of the formal criteria concerning length and segmentation.
Content	The candidate includes content specified by the requirements for each section of the reflection protocol (introduction, main part, conclusion). Translation problems and potential translation solutions are described clearly and in a structured manner. Arguments for and against different translation solutions are presented satisfactorily.	The candidate includes most of the content specified by the requirements for each section of the reflection protocol (introduction, main part, conclusion). Translation problems and potential translation solutions are presented, but could have been discussed more thoroughly. Arguments for and against different translation solutions are presented sufficiently.	The candidate includes only parts of the content as specified by the requirements for each section of the reflection protocol (introduction, main part, conclusion). Translation problems and potential translation solutions are presented insufficiently. Arguments for and against different translation solutions are presented insufficiently or not at all.	Requirements concerning content are addressed barely or not at all.
List of references	The list of references is relevant, according to current academic standards, and the origin of all sources	The list of references is mostly relevant, largely according to current academic standards, and the origin of sources is quality-assured.	The list of references contains a number of irrelevant sources, and/or is not according to current academic	The list of references is largely insufficient considering the formal requirements, or the list of references is missing completely.

	is quality-assured. The list contains only sources which are included in the reflection protocol.	The list contains only sources which are included in the reflection protocol.	standards, and/or the origin of sources is not or loosely quality-assured. The list contains sources which are not included in the reflection protocol.	
Reflection ability	The candidate displays a clear ability to reflect on his/her own translation and the process that led to the translated text. Specific translation solutions are described in detail and justified clearly.	The candidate displays sufficient ability to reflect on his/her own translation and the process that led to the translated text. Specific translation solutions are described and justified adequately.	The candidate displays signs of a basic ability to reflect on his/her own translation and the process that led to the translated text. Specific translation solutions are described and justified insufficiently.	The candidate displays few or no signs of an ability to reflect on his/her own translation and the process that led to the translated text.
Grammar & spelling	Consistently high degree of grammatical accuracy. Virtually no errors.	Good grammatical control. Occasional 'slips' or non-systematic errors and minor flaws in sentence structure may still occur, but they are rare.	Sufficient grammatical precision. General good control of grammar and spelling, although errors do occur.	Insufficient grammatical precision revealing insufficient linguistic competence. High number of grammatical and spelling errors. Systematic and repetitive errors.

Lexical and Semantic Problems in Translating the Quran: A Comparative Study

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Abstract

Translators of the Quran often face significant challenges when attempting to render the sacred text into English, as the classical Arabic in which it is written is not only lexically complex but also has unique linguistic features. In this study, I examine a number of these lexical and semantic problems. I argue that because literal translation may sometimes deform the implicit meaning of the lexical items, metaphors and metonymic words found in the Quran, free translation is a more suitable way of conveying their connotative meaning.

For the purposes of this study, I have used Nord's model of text analysis in translation (1991) to compare and evaluate the strategies adopted by the authors of three English translations of the Quran when faced with a sample of lexical items, metaphors and metonymic words. The comparative analysis focuses on selected extracts that that often difficult to grasp from translations by Abdullah Ali (1975), Muhammad Pickthall (1938), and Al-Hilali and Khan (1996). In addition, I have consulted Quranic exegeses by Ibn Kathir (1300-1373), Al-Qurtubi (1214-1273), Al-Razy (544-604) and Al-Tabari (839-923); the *Arabic-English Quranic Dictionary* (*DAEQU*) by Abdel-Haleem and Badwi (2008) and Omar's *Dictionary of Contemporary Arabic Language* (*DCAL*) (2008); as well as related works by prominent Muslim theologians, such as Al-Tha'ālibi's *Philology and Secrets of the Arabic Language* (1998), in order to gauge the translators' level of accuracy and identify the advantages and disadvantages of their different approaches. The study reveals that the translators faced difficulties in rendering the sample of lexical items into English, and recommends that

future translators should be aware of the unique qualities of the Quran's classical Arabic and avoid using a literal translation method if they wish to convey its message informatively to the target audience.

Introduction

The Quran needs to be interpreted and translated into other languages, including English, if non-Arabic speakers are to understand the words of Allah enshrined in the text that lies at the heart of the Islamic faith. Rendering the meaning of the Quran into English is therefore an essential task, but it is also an especially difficult one due to the unique linguistic, semantic and cultural features inherent to all sacred texts. As Chesterman explains:

> [I]f you believe that the scriptures are indeed the Word of God, and if you believe that you have a mission to spread this Word, you quickly find yourself in a quandary. The Word is holy; how then can it be changed? For translation does not only substitute one word-meaning for another but also reconstructs the structural form in which these word-meanings are embedded. (Chesterman 1997: 21)

Since many of the words used in the Quran include metaphorical and cultural expressions, a word-for-word or literal translation risks distorting their meaning. This study argues that if the translator attempts a free translation, including the use of idiomatic expressions and changing the grammatical and lexical forms of the Arabic text, they may be able to offer a closer approximation of its meaning to a non-Arabic-speaking readership.

Newmark (1998: 120) adds another dimension to the problem when he states that 'even in a "sacred" text, you may have to translate, not just what the writer means rather than what he writes, but what you think he means'. In fact, translating the meaning of the Quran demands an advanced knowledge of Arabic syntax, as well as an acquaintance with the best exegetical sources and the reasons for the revelations contained in its

verses and 'surahs' (chapters). The Quran is an independent genre: it is written in classical Arabic, which is very different from modern standard Arabic (MSA). In classical Arabic, words contain numerous shades of meaning, depending on their context. For example, some lexical words have more than one meaning, and some metonymes and metaphors include connotations whose implicit meaning is often difficult to grasp in translation. As a consequence, translators tend to fall back on a literal method of translation, which often leads to ambiguity and confusion as it does not take into consideration the allegorical sense of the word or phrase.

For these reasons, the first aim of this study is to investigate the problems translators face when attempting to render some lexical items, metaphors and metonymic words into English. Its second aim is to test the proposition that free translation best conveys these items' intended meaning because it focuses on their context and approximates their message in the target language, in contrast to literal translation, which does not pay attention to the content of the source language and risks distorting the implicit meaning, confusing target readers. The study's third aim is to provide a guide for future translators of the Quran when translating figurative language such as metaphors and metonymes. Non-Arab Muslms are in need to understand their religion and the meanings of the Quran and even for non-Muslims would also intend to know the meanings of the Quran and its allegorical language.

Methodology of the study

The study undertakes a comparative analysis of different English translations of a number of lexical items, metaphors and metonymic words in the Quran, using a translation-theory framework to explore the advantages and disadvantages of free translation versus literal translation from a theoretical perspective.

The study's theoretical approach is based on Nord's model of text analysis in translation (1991), which analyses the extratextual and intratextual factors in both source and target texts. External factors include sender, intention, recipient/audience, medium, place, time, motive and text function, while internal factors include subject matter, content, presuppositions, text composition, lexis and sentence structure. According to Nord (1991: 28), this model is applicable to all types of text because functionality is 'the most important criterion for a translation'. She (1991:5) clarifies that 'one possible TT function may be to imitate the effects of the original ST reception'. This model can solve problems in translation and provides valuable help for translators struggling to grasp the functionality when establishing the function of the source text compared with function in culture of the target text and the translator has to make adjustments by using a cultural filter between ST and TT. Nord (1991:15) elaborates further that 'in a translation-oriented analysis, we will first analyse these factors [the communicative situation and participants in the communicative act] and their function in the ST situation and then compare them with the corresponding factors in the (prospective) TT situation […]'. The important feature of Nord's model is its looping nature that the translator with every step has to look back on the facts that emerged from the ST analysis and their implications for a prospective TT. The translator continuously goes back and forth to choose the most suitable solutions and pays attention to every important factor. In short, Nord's model provides a solid basis for translators and help them to understand the contextual meanings found in the content and structure of the source text, so that they will be able to use suitable translation strategies that elucidate its intended purpose and convey its meaning appropriately to the target audience.

Review of the related literature

The literal translation of some Quranic words may not transfer their contextual meaning to the target language, and requires additional exegetical information. Benaili and Benatallah (2016) refer to the fact that

some terms are characterised by their very specific meaning and function; the words may possess equivalent terms in the target language but these do not carry the same meaning as the original. The translator may need to use a footnote to shed light on the intended meaning of the verse. For example, the Arabic word '*jihad*' has three or four connotative meanings in the Quran, depending on its context: it can be associated variously with speech, weapons, money-giving or deeds – meanings that are sometimes missing in translation. Pickthall (1983) translates the word, as it appears in surah Al-Furqan (25: 52), literally as 'to strive', without reference to any other connotative meaning. According to the *tafsir* (exegeses or learned interpretations) of Ibn Khatir (1997), Tabari (1997), Al-Qurtubi (2006) and Al-Razy (1995), the term refers in this verse to Allah bidding the Prophet Mohammed to convince disbelievers to study the Quran.

Abdul-Raof (2005) also discusses the problems of translating Quranic lexical words, referring to what he calls 'delexicalised expressions'. He describes these as 'SL [source language] black holes that refer to lexical items that are lacking in the TL [target language]'. As such expressions have no equivalence in the target language, adopting a literal translation may not entirely convey the intended message. Abdul-Raof suggests that they should be translated either by transliteration, followed by exegetical notes, or by domestication and the use of periphrasis. He gives an interesting example (2005: 169): the Quranic expression '*taymmum*' is absent from both the lexicon and culture of the target language (English), and needs to be paraphrased with an exegetical translation in order to convey an intelligible message. He refers to Asad's (1980) translation: 'Then, take resort to pure dust, passing therewith lightly over your face and your hands.' When Muslims cannot find water for *wadu* (ablution) before prayer, they may resort to *taymmum*.

Shunnāq (1998) notes that it is difficult to find full equivalence in English for some Arabic terms, and maintains that translators may have to find English items that have partial equivalence. The following are some lexical

examples from the Quran that are frequently translated into English: *taqwa* (God-fearing), *saqar* (hell), *kufr*, *shirk* (disbelief, idolatry), *tawbah* (repentance), *ḥaqq* (truth), *zakāt* (almsgiving/dues owed to the poor), *sawm* (fasting), *ma'rūf* (charity), *munkar* (wrong), *ghayb* (the unseen/the unknown) *sunnah* (prophetic tradition) and *ẕulm* (oppression). Abdul-Raof (2004: 94-95) states that the word '*taqwa'* has no English equivalent as it not only means to be in awe of God but includes other spiritual aspects such as the love of God. He argues that Ali (1938) renders the word '*muttaqīn*', a noun-agent derived from *taqwa*, unsuitably as 'those who fear God' (in surah Cow: 2) and 'those who restrain themselves' (in surah An-Nahl: 128), and recommends transliterating this expression, using a periphrastic (exegetic) translation to reduce the loss of meaning. Al-Hilali and Khan (1983) adopt this approach, employing transliteration followed by a periphrastic translation: 'The pious and righteous persons who fear Allah much, abstain from all kinds of bad deeds which He has forbidden, and love Allah much, and perform all kinds of goods deeds which He has ordained.'

These problems are magnified when we turn to metaphors, which act by combining ideas, using a single characteristic for the identification of a complex entity. According to Lakoff and Johnson (2003), a metaphor is viewed *as* another whereas metonymy *stands for* another. Translators can find the use of metaphor in the Quran as problematic as metonymy, and they need to be aware of such figurative language if they are to avoid deforming its meaning.

Najjar (2012) has conducted a study of the effectiveness and accessibility of a sample of English translations of Quranic metaphors. He used three translations of the Quran – by Arberry (1996), Ali (1983) and Pickthall (2004) – and distributed questionnaires with the sample translations to his sixty-one participants. The study combined qualitative and quantitative methods of data collection, and used some exegetical materials, including those of Ibn Kathir, Al-Tabari and Al-Qurtubi. The results revealed that the

majority of respondents found the metaphors ambiguous and inaccessible. One example was surah 6: 122:

> *Awaman Kāna Maytāan Fa'aĥyaynāhu Wa Ja`alnā Lahu Nūrāan Yamshī Bihi Fī An-Nāsi Kaman Mathaluhu Fī Až-Žulumāti Laysa Bikhārijin Minhā Kadhālika Zuyyina Lilkāfirīna Mā Kānū Ya`malūna*
>
> Can he who was dead, to whom We gave life, and a light whereby he can walk amongst men, be like him who is in the depths of darkness, from which he can never come out? Thus, to those without faith their own deeds seem pleasing. (Ali 1983)

Najjar (2012: 197-98) asserts that, according to the exegetical materials, the surah likens the believer to someone who has lived a misguided life, full of confusion, but is granted new life by Allah, who has directed them onto the right path and filled their heart with faith and happiness. The respondents were asked if they understood the meaning of the metaphor. Najjar noted that 16.1% fully understood and 29% roughly understood it, but 38.7% could not grasp its meaning and selected the option, 'I only understand the meaning of the individual words.' Meanwhile, 14.5% of the respondents could not understand the meaning at all, and selected the option, 'It does not make sense.'

Elimam (2016) has conducted a similar comparative analysis of the translation of Quranic metaphors. He selected three English translations by Al-Hilali and Khan (2000), Ahmed Ali (2001) and Abdullah Yusuf Ali (2004), and consulted two exegetical works by Tafsir Al-Jalayn (2007) and Tanwir Al-Miqbas min Tafsir Ibn Abbas (2007). His findings showed that the majority of samples were not translated accurately and did not convey the meaning of the Arabic metaphors. Elimam adopted some of Newmark's (1988) various strategies for translating Quranic metaphors. He found that the only way to retain the metaphorical images of the source language was to use Newmark's third strategy of translating the term literally and then adding similes in the target language.

However, the above technique is sometimes insufficient because the source and target languages also differ in terms of their linguistic and cultural systems – the Arabic language is classified as a Semitic language whereas English is classified as a Germanic one. Both are far from each and a literal translation may not serve the purpose since some metaphors in the Quran have no direct equivalence and therefore, translators have to minimize the loss by employing free translation with different strategies and approximate the meaning into the target language. Although Elimam recommends the use of different *tafsir* to discover the hidden meaning of these metaphors, he himself only uses two books of *tafsir*, and this may not be sufficient for a better understanding of the different types of Quranic metaphors and their functions.

Semantic problems may also arise when attempting to render the Quran into English due to the difficulty of grasping the intended meaning of its metonymy. Fass (1997: 70) defines metonymy as 'a form of indirect reference in which one entity is used to stand for another entity closely associated with it'.

Muhammed (2017) has conducted a comparative analysis of the translation of metonymic expressions in the Quran, evaluating the ways in which the authors of two English translations, Arberry (1955) and Al-Hilali and Khan (1997), use different strategies in an attempt to overcome linguistic obstacles and convey the meaning of these expressions informatively. He chose nine examples from surah An-Nisa, as well as four examples from other surahs, and consulted some exegetical works, including those of Al-Tabari (224-310), Ibn Kathir (701-), Al-Qurtubi (600-671) and Al-Baghawi (436-510), and some useful translation dictionaries. His results revealed that the two translations mostly maintain lexical, semantic and grammatical equivalence but fail to fully convey the metonymic functions found in the Quranic Arabic. Muhammed recommends that Arberry, and Al-Hilali and Khan enhance their linguistic skills and enrich their knowledge of Arabic in

order to understand the context and the message of the figurative language.

Muhammed appears to criticise Arberry's, and Al-Hilali's and Khan's translations for failing to transfer the complete meaning of metonymic expressions into the target language. Arguably, however, there can be no perfect or complete translations between languages, and the main task of the translator is to reduce the loss in the source language and approximate the meaning in the target language. According to Abdul-Raof (2001: 7), 'A translator who aspires to achieve total lexical and/or textual equivalence is chasing a mirage: total equivalence at any level of language is impossible, relative equivalence at any level is possible.' Moreover, Muhammed (2017: 50-52) does not seem to analyse these authors' translation methods properly. For example, he cites an example from surah Al-A'raf (189):

> *Falammā Taghashāhā Ĥamalat Ĥamlāan*
>
> When he covered her, she bore a light burden. (Arberry 1955)
>
> When he had sexual relations with her, she became pregnant. (Al-Hilali and Khan 1997)

Mohammed states that Arberry's translation, 'when he covers her', does not convey the implicit meaning and loses the original metonymic effect, but he neither refers to the type of method Arberry uses nor supplies an alternative translation. Arberry in fact adopts a literal translation, as the word '*taghasha*' literally means 'covered'. Mohammed consulted a number of exegetical materials in his study but in this example he only cites Tantawi (1997), who introduces several meanings of the word '*taghasha*' from a linguistic perspective but does not mention its theological meaning. Al-Tabari, Ibn Kathir, Al-Qurtubi and Al-Baghawi all explain that the verse refers to sexual relations that result in pregnancy. Mohammed then turns to an analysis of Al-Hilali's and Khan's translation and claims that they use a direct literal translation, 'he had sexual relations with her', which does not convey the functional figurative equivalent of the source language. It could

be argued, however, that Al-Hilali and Khan use a free translation technique that transfers the implicit meaning of the metonymy in a similar way to the exegetical works mentioned above as the word *'taghasha'* is a classical Arabic and seems strange to the modern Arabic native speakers.

Meanwhile, Ali et al. (2012) focus on the translation of metonymy in the Quran and assert that metonymy serves a purpose as a useful substitution. They give an example from surah Al An'am (6):

> *Wa 'Arsalnā As-Samā'a `Alayhim Midrārā*
>
> [A]nd how we loosed heaven upon them in torrents (Arberry: 1982)
>
> For whom We poured out rain from the skies in abundance (Ali: 2000)

Ali and his co-authors state that the word '*assāma*' (sky) is used here to refer to the intended meaning (rain) and serves as an indication of the heaviness of the rain. Arberry uses a literal translation, 'loosed heaven', which may have deformed the intended meaning of the metonymic phrase, while Ali renders the verse successfully by using the term 'poured out rain from the skies in abundance'.

Overview of the selected translators

This study has selected three translations – out of the many English translations of the Quran available – for further analysis. Before turning to these, however, it is useful to understand the background of the translators and their qualifications as Arabic translators of the sacred text.

Muhammed M. Pickthall (1875-1936)

The first of these translations was completed by Muhammed Pickthall in 1930. Pickthall was born in 1875 in Suffolk. On the death of his father, when he was six, the family moved to London, and when he turned seventeen, he travelled to Egypt and Jerusalem, seeking a consular job in Palestine. While in Damascus, he developed an interest in Islam, and on his return, he converted and changed his name from William to Muhammed (Sadiq,

2010). Pickthall began his translation in 1928, and it was to take him two years (Sadiq, 2010). During this time, he consulted many European scholars, as well as travelling to Egypt in 1929 to obtain approval for his work from scholars at the Al-Azhar University, where he gained the support of Rasheed Rida (1865-1935), a Syro-Egyptian Muslim reformer. Pickthall's English translation was published by Knopf in New York in 1930 under the title, *The Meaning of the Glorious Koran* (Nash, 2017). The work was reprinted in many different countries: in 1938, the central press in Hyderabad published an edition with Arabic and English text and, in 1970, a Delhi-based publisher produced a trilingual version of Pickthall's translation containing Arabic, Urdu and English (Clark, 2017).

Pickthall's translation approach

Kidawi (2017) assesses Pickthall's approach in translating the Quran that Pickthall, at times, did not wholly succeed in conveying the meaning of some culturally specific concepts and some of the legal discourse in the Quran. For example, he did not add any explanatory notes to clarify that the rite of animal slaughter forms part of the tradition of Islamic pilgrimage. Furthermore, in his treatment of Surah An-Nisa, which deals with women's rights, Pickthall does not present any explanation, failing to show how the Quran established gender equality, giving Arab women entitlement to inheritance. A further shortcoming of his translation is that some of the footnotes are short and inaccurate, omitting important information. For instance, in Surah Al-Qasas (28: 15), which proclaims that Moses was guilty of a crime when he killed a Copt (an Egyptian Christian) – 'So Moses struck him with his fist and killed him' – Pickthall's translation presents the prophet in a poor light. He should have clarified that Moses had unintentionally killed the Copt and that, as the Quran adds, he soon repented and Allah accepted his repentance.

Generally speaking, Pickthall seems to adopt a literal translation method and this approach may sometimes risk distorting the implicit meanings in the Quran and misleading the target reader.Pickthall (19:38: i) states that

"the book is here rendered almost literally and every effort has been made to choose befitting language." Indeed, Abdullah Ali (1975, xv) himself has criticized Pickthall for this omission, claiming that 'he has added very few notes to elucidate the text. His rendering is almost literally.'

Abdullah Y. Ali (1872-1953)

The second English-language translation of the Quran selected for analysis is that of Abdullah Yusuf Ali (1934). Ali was born in 1872 in Surat, a textile town in Gujarat, western India (Sherif, 1994), into a family belonging to the Dawoodi Bohra sect, one of the Shi'ah Ismaili branches of Islam (Al-Khatib, 2010). He began studying the Quran and the Arabic language at the age of five, and was later sent to the Bombay Anjuman Islam School, one of the most prominent educational establishments in India, which was distinguished by the fact that it was open to students from different Islamic sects. Ali studied there for a short time before moving, in 1882, to the Welson English School, founded John Welson, a minister of the free Scottish church. Ali spent five years at the school before moving to Welson College, part of the University of Bombay, where he graduated in classical literature in 1891. He obtained a scholarship to pursue legal studies at St John's College, Cambridge, and graduated with a higher degree in 1895 (Al-Khatib, 2010). His long and varied experience gave him a solid background in research and an understanding of how to express himself in a style of English that could be easily understood by Western non-Arabic speakers, which stood him in good stead when he came to translate the Quran into English in 1934. Ali's publication appeared under the title *The Holy Quran: An Interpretation in English* and his translation of the Quran still remains one of the most popular in the English-speaking world, and it has been reprinted numerous times in many different countries, including India, the US, Britain, Saudi Arabia and Lebanon (Al-Khatib, 2010).

Ali's translation approach

Al-Khatib's (2010) critique of Ali's translation of the Quran is focused on his adoption of semantic and literal approaches. Al-Khatib believes that the

semantic approach ignores the target reader, who needs a more communicative translation to understand the message of the sacred text, while observing that Ali also adopts a literal translation technique at times, using footnotes to clarify the original text and a translation style that seems 'overly poetic' and 'romantic'. His translation also contains a number of misunderstandings of *sharia* and Islamic doctrine. Al-Khatib (2010, 178) illustrates his criticism with the following example from Surah 44: 54: 'So; and We shall join them to Companions with beautiful, big, and lustrous eyes' (Ali: 1936). Al-Khatib (2010) notes that the Quranic text describes the bliss of paradise (for Muslim men) in terms of marrying the *hūr* (beautiful young women); however, Ali translates this verse as 'join them to' rather than 'marry', and also translates the word *hūr* as 'companions' rather than 'wives'. More importantly, however, Ali comments that there are in fact no real people or objects – or any physical reality at all – in paradise. According to Al-Khatib, Ali also commits an error when translating Surah Az-Zukhruf as to 'have satisfaction', noting that he contravenes the rhetorical rules of Arabic which reject the use of metaphor and figurative language unless the literal meaning is unable to convey the intended message. In this verse, the correct meaning is 'eat' because it is collocated with fruit: 'Ye shall have therein abundance of fruit, from which ye shall have satisfaction' (Ali: 1936). Al-Khatib states that when he looked at other translations – such as those by Pickthall, Al-Hilali and Khan, Arberry, Asad, and others – he found that all of them had translated the verb as 'eat', raising the question of why Ali chose to render it differently.

Overall, In the introduction to his work *The Glorious Quran: Translation and Commentary* (1934: 1975, xii-xiii), Ali refers to the most important *tafsīrs* or exegeses that he uses and also mentions from time to time in his footnotes. He states that some of these commentaries expound views with which he disagrees, and he therefore adopts only their general sense, Ali also confirms that he is aiming to transfer the meaning of the Quran, however, it does not seem that he adhers to certain method in translating the Quran.

Taqiuddin Al-Hilali (1893-1987) and Muhammed Khan (1927)

The third translation selected for discussion is that of Taqiuddin Al-Hilali and Muhsin Khan (1974). According to Jassem (2014), Al-Hilali and Khan produced their translation of the Quran whilst lecturing at the Islamic University of Madinah. The first edition comes in a short one-volume work, *Interpretation of the Meanings of the Noble Quran in the English language*, published in Istanbul. This was later expanded as a second edition consisting of nine volumes, published by the King Fahd Complex for Printing the Quran under the title, *The Noble Quran: English Translation of the Meanings and Commentary*. Both translators shared a great interest in the language of the Quran and in the Quranic exegetic tradition (Nassimi, 2008).

Al-Hilali was born in 1891 in a village called al-Fidah in Morocco. By the time he was twelve, he had memorised the whole of the Quran. He later studied Arabic, the hadiths and the *tajwaid* (the rules of Quranic recitation) (Al-Jabari, 2008; Nassimi, 2008), completing his graduate studies in Egypt (Kidwai, 2007). Al-Khaleel (2005) relates that Al-Hilali then gained a doctorate at the University of Berlin, before travelling and living in Iraq, India and Egypt, pursuing his religious education (Nassimi, 2008).

Khan, meanwhile, was born in 1925 in Al-Qaur, a city in the Punjab in Pakistan (Fahad, 1995). Khan was of Afghani origin: his grandfather had fled the wars and tribal conflicts in Afghanistan (Nassimi, 2008). He gained a degree in medicine and surgery from the University of the Punjab in Lahore, and later a postgraduate diploma in respiratory medicine from the University of Wales (Kidwai, 2007). He then travelled to Saudi Arabia, where he worked as a hospital director for the ministry of health for fifteen years in Al-Ta'if and Medina, during the reign of King Abdul-Aziz (1900-1953). Elimam (2009) and Jassem (2014) assert that Al-Hilali's and Khan's translation of the Quran has been reprinted many times by different publishers in many different countries.

Al-Hilali's and Khan's translation approach

Kidwai (2007) assesses Al-Hilali's and Khan's translation approach comments that it contains 'useful notes culled from primary sources, elucidating a number of recurring Quranic terms and concepts, and inserting explanatory parenthetical phrases. However,Hawamdeh (2015) has conducted a study of Al-Hilali's and Khan's translation of the first eight verses of the surah called 'the Cave'. He argues that the cohesive explicitness of their translation clarifies the ambiguity of the Arabic in the Quranic text and narrows the gap between the Arabic and English. Nevertheless, the use of these techniques can tend towards over-translation, meaning that the target reader receives too much information, which may prove a hindrance to their understanding of the text. As such, Hawamdeh believes that it is often better to adopt a translation approach that limits the use of information and explanatory text contained in parantheses. He indicates two instances of parenthetical cohesive explicitness that occur in Al-Hilali's and Khan's translation which could potentially confuse the reader:

Al-ḥamdu li-llāhi lladhy ʾanzala ʿalā ʿabdihi l-kitāba wa-lam yajʿal lahū ʿiwajā (18: 1)

"All praise and thanks be to Allah, who has sent down to His slave (Muhammed) the Book (the Quran), and has not placed therein any crookedness". (Al-Hilali and Khan, 1974: 1996, 164, cited in Hawamdeh, 2015, 164)

Hawamdeh argues that the addition of 'Muhammed' in parantheses is based upon a lexical reiterative relationship between the source-language/target-language units: the former entails 'His slave' and the latter is a referential nominal subordinate – 'Muhammed' – which can replace the former. The author also notes that the word 'Quran' in the target language is a referential nominal subordinate which can replace 'the book' in the source language. Consequently, both the brackets and the word 'thanks' may create cohesive explicitness but are possibly confusing to a non-Arabic-

speaking reader. He considers that a more appropriate translation would be:

"All praises be to Allah, who has sent down the Quran to Muhammed, and has not placed therein any crookedness". (Hawamdeh, 2015, 164)

One of the shortcomings of their translation is that Al-Hilali and Khan (1996) do not refer in their introduction either to the method or the strategies they adopt in the translation, despite the fact that throughout the text they use intensive footnotes and parentheses as well as other translation techniques, such as borrowing and compensation. In these footnotes and commentaries, they also cite the narrations of the Prophet Mohammed as rendered in the hadiths of Al-Bukhari and Muslim, and sometimes refer to other books where more information can be found. They seem mainly depend on the free translation method; however, on some occasions, they include repetition and a redundancy of explanation which may serve to confuse target readers.

There are three main reasons for selecting these three translations by the authors whose lives and work are summarised above. Firstly, they are the translations most commonly used by both academics and non-academics as they are readily available in university libraries, mosques and online (Kidwai, 2007, 2017; Al-Khatib, 2010). Its popularity and the range of its distribution means that the work of Al-Hilali and Khan (1974), in particular, is the one of the most widespread of all Quranic translations in the English-speaking world, partly due to the fact that copies of it are printed and distributed free by the Saudi government (Khaleel, 2005). Secondly, the translators all come from different backgrounds: for instance, Pickthall is a native English speaker, whereas Al-Hilali is a native Arabic speaker, and Khan learnt Urdu and English and then Arabic, while Ali is of Indian origin and, similar to Khan, first learnt Urdu and English before mastering the Arabic language. An understanding of the authors' varied backgrounds can help in identifying whether the original language (and cultural context) of the translator has an effect on their work. Thirdly, the translations by Ali

and Pickthall were first published in the first half of the twentieth century, and they used the somewhat archaic English of the time, while the first translation of Al-Hilali and Khan was completed in the second half of the twentieth century, by which time modern English had become standard and translation studies was already establishing itself as an academic discipline. This can explain some of the differences between the translations, particularly since there is a time span of around forty years between the versions.

Analysis and discussion

In the following section, I examine some Quranic lexical items, metaphors and metonymic words, which are difficult to be grasped. The study uses a semantic analysis to determine their meanings, followed by an evaluation of the methods the authors of three selected translations (Pickthall, Al-Hilali and Khan, and Ali) use to render these phrases into English.

(1) Quranic lexical words and their translation

> *Wa Attaqū Allāha Al-Ladhī Tatasā'alūna Bihi Wa Al-'Arĥāma 'Inna Allāha Kāna `Alaykum Raqībāan (*An-Nisa: 1)
>
> Be careful of your duty toward Allah in Whom ye claim (your rights) of one another, and toward the wombs (that bear you). Lo! Allah hath been a watcher over you. (Pickthall 1938)
>
> Reverence Allah, through whom ye demand your mutual (rights), and (reverence) the wombs (that bore you): for Allah ever watches over you. (Ali 1975)
>
> Fear Allah through Whom you demand your mutual (rights), and (do not cut the relations of) the wombs (kinship). Surely, Allah is Ever an All-Watcher over you. (Al-Hilali and Khan 1996)

Semantic analysis

DAEQU (2008: 355) describes the word '*arĥām*' as possessing two different meanings, depending on its position in the Quran. One meaning can be seen in surah 3: 6, 'It is He who shapes you in the womb as He wills', while the other appears in surah 47: 22,in that *DAEQU* cites the last part of this verse, in which Allah warns us not to sever connections with our relatives '*wa tuqaṭṭi`ū 'arĥāmakum*'. According to Ibn Kathir (1997, 1: 396), Al-Tabari (1997, 2: 491) and Al-Qurtubi (2006, 6: 16-17), *al-'arĥām* implies here that we should fear breaking the bonds of kinship. As Al-Razi (1955, 5: 173) explains, referring to another verse in the Quran with the same meaning (Muhammed: 22), 'Would you then, if you were given the authority, do mischief in the land, and sever your ties of kinship?' (Al-Hilali and Khan 1996).

Evaluation of the translations

The word '*al-'arĥāma*' means both kinship (relatives) and womb, and either meaning can be used, depending on the context. In this case, Pickthall does not seem to have mastered the Arabic language, as he translates *al-'arĥāma* literally as 'the wombs (that bear you)', deviating from the intended meaning of kinship. As a result, his translation risks leaving target readers confused. Likewise, Ali uses a literal translation, 'and (reverence) the wombs (That bore you)', and adds in a footnote that mothers and wives should be treated with respect. He does not appear to have been aware of the intended meaning of this lexical item as explained by the exegetes. As Larson asserts:

> A literal translation is useful if one is studying the structure of the source text as in an interlinear translation, but a literal translation does not communicate the meaning of the source text. It is generally no more than a string of words intended to help someone read a text in its original language. It is unnatural and hard to understand, and

> may even be quite meaningless, or give a wrong meaning in the receptor language. (Larson 1984: 10)

Unlike Pickthall and Ali, Al-Hilali and Khan use a free translation method, inserting paraphrases that illuminate the intended meaning: 'and (do not cut the relations of) the wombs (kinship)'. They also use a calque translation with the word 'wombs' followed by a paraphrase. This technique is useful in that it explains the original concept, heightening the target reader's awareness. Their translation accords with that suggested by a reading of the exegetical works. This type of translation related to Nord's model of text analysis in translation- that they have taken into consideration some external factors such as the intention of the author in both languages as well as the medium since the message has been appropriately transferred to the target audience. Al-Hilali and Khan analysed the ST function and provided a compatible TT function by inserting two paraphrases and they have also taken into an account some internal factors such as presuppositions, content and lexis that the word (wombs) refers to a source language culture that includes an implicit meaning.

(2) Quranic lexical words and their translation

> *Qāla Yā Qawmi Hā'uulā' Banātī Hunna 'Aṯharu Lakum Fa Attaqū Allāha Wa Lā Tukhzūnī Fī Ðayfī* (Hud: 78)

> He said: O my people! Here are my daughters! They are purer for you. Beware of Allah, and degrade me not in (the person of) my guests. (Pickthall 1975)

> He said: O my people! Here are my daughters: they are purer for you (if ye marry)! Now fear Allah, and cover me not with shame about my guests! (Ali 2002)

> He said: O my people! Here are my daughters (i.e. the daughters of my nation), they are purer for you (if you marry them lawfully). So

fear Allah and degrade me not as regards my guests! (Al-Hilali and Khan 1996)

Semantic analysis

DCAL (2008: 1417) states that the meaning of '*tahar*' [noun] is 'purity, while *DAEQU* (2008: 574) clarifies its primary meaning of 'purity or cleanse' by explaining that '*yathur*' [imperf. v., intran.] [jur.] means to perform ritual cleansing or to be ritually cleansed, while '*tahur*' [adjective] indicates that something is exceptionally pure, as in surah 76: 21: 'And their lord will give them to drink of a most pure drink.' Ibn Kathir (1997, 2: 389), Al-Tabari (1997, 4: 384) and Al-Qurtubi (2006, 11: 178) explain the phrase 'purer for you' in the context of the above verse. They claim that the men among Lot's people were known for their sexual preference for men rather than women, so when the angels came to visit the prophet in the shape of handsome young men, they crowded at his door, trying to gain entry. Lot held them back, saying: 'O my people! Here are my daughters: they are purer for you.' The exegetes assert that Lot wanted to guide them into lawfully marrying his daughters instead, but Ibn Kathir and Al-Tabari claim that he offered the 'daughters of his nation' in marriage, not his own daughters – prophets are often considered as the father of their people. Al-Razy (1995, 9: 33-34) agrees that it is more likely that Lot meant the former, arguing that Allah says in surah 33: 6 'his [Mohammed's] wives are their [believers'] mothers' (Al-Hilali and Khan 1996), where it is clear that the Prophet is their metaphorical father. He further elaborates that a prophet would be unlikely to offer his own daughters to such people.

Evaluation of the translations

Pickthall has rendered the phrase 'they are purer for you' literally, and does not clarify what is meant by 'purer' in this context. This may confuse target readers as the translation is vague and does not imply marriage to Lot's 'daughters'. Unlike Pickthall, Ali and Al-Hilali and Khan render the phrase more appropriately by inserting the paraphrases 'if ye marry!' and 'if you

marry them lawfully'. These free translations convey the implicit meaning and render the message more accessible to the target audience. Nida and Taber (2003: 12) recommend that 'translating must aim primarily at "reproducing the message". To do anything else is essentially false to one's task as a translator'. A free translation is when the translator reads the source text and understands its meanings and produces the same meaning in the target language with different words and a different word order to make natural sounding message to the target audience. Translators should be aware that literal translation may not necessarily convey the intended meaning of a word or phrase.

(3) Quranic metaphorical words and their translation

> *Fī Qulūbihim Marađun Fazādahumu Allāhu Marađāan Wa Lahum `Adhābun 'Alīmun Bimā Kānū Yakdhibūna* (Cow: 10).
>
> In their hearts is a disease, and Allah increaseth their disease. A painful doom is theirs because they lie. (Pickthall 1938)
>
> In their hearts is a disease; and Allah has increased their disease: And grievous is the penalty they (incur), because they are false (to themselves). (Ali 1975)
>
> In their hearts is a disease (of doubt and hypocrisy) and Allah has increased their disease. A painful torment is theirs because they used to tell lies. (Al-Hilali and Khan 1996)

Semantic analysis

The word '*mariđ*' is an adjective (literally, sick) that is commonly used in modern Arabic to describe someone unworthy who does not behave appropriately towards others. Hence, native Arabic speakers would understand the original phrase without needing to check the exegetical materials. However, it may be difficult for non-Arabic speakers to understand its meaning without the aid of *tafsir*. *DCAL* (2008) describes *marađ* as implying hypocrisy and doubt, whereas *DAEQU* (2008: 772) says

that '*fī qulūbihim maraḍun*' means 'those who are corrupt at heart' (literally, 'those in whose hearts is sickness'). The word '*maraḍun*' (literally, disease) refers to a spiritual sickness. In this verse, it implies someone who hypocritically pretends to be a believer but secretly harbours doubts about the Prophet and Islam, as Ibn Khathīr (1997, 1: 60), Al-Ṭabarī (1997, 1: 120) and Al-Qurṭubī (2006, 1: 299-300) note in their commentaries. Al-Qurtubi further elaborates that the word 'disease' is a metaphorical way of saying that someone's belief has been corrupted, and Al-Tabari confirms that there are two types of disease: physical disease that damages the body and spiritual disease that damages religious faith.

Evaluation of the translations

Pickthall adopts a literal translation of the word, rendering it as 'disease'. These risks deforming the meaning of the phrase if disease is understood in the physical sense. Likewise, Ali also renders the phrase literally, 'In their hearts is a disease', but he follows it with a semantic translation in a footnote. Nevertheless, the footnote does not immediately supply the explanation mentioned by the exegetes and includes redundant information. Al-Hilali and Khan, however, render the phrase successfully by inserting a paraphrase that illuminates the implied meaning: 'In their hearts is a disease (of doubt and hypocrisy).' Their free translation successfully approximates the meaning in the target language. Al-Hilali and Khan's translation is related to Nord's model of text analysis in translation. As such, they have analysed external and internal factors within the source and target texts and produced the effects of the source text function into the target text. They have taken into consideration factors such as recipient, medium, text function, subject matter, content, lexis, and presuppositions. Therefore, they convey the contextual meaning informatively to the target audience. As Nida and Taber assert:

> Since words cover areas of meaning and are not mere points of meaning, and since in different languages the semantic areas of

corresponding words are not identical, it is inevitable that the choice of the right word in the receptor language to translate a word in the source-language text depends more on the context than upon a fixed system of verbal consistency. (Nida and Taber 1982: 15)

(4) The Quranic metaphorical words and their translation

Tatajāfá Junūbuhum `Ani Al-Mađāji`i Yad`ūna Rabbahum Khawfāan Wa Ţama`āan Wa Mimmā Razaqnāhum Yunfiqūna (Al-Sajdah: 16)

Who forsake their beds to cry unto their Lord in fear and hope, and spend of that We have bestowed on them. (Pickthall 1938)

Their limbs do forsake their beds of sleep, the while they call on their Lord, in Fear and Hope: and they spend (in charity) out of the sustenance which We have bestowed on them. (Ali 1975)

Their sides forsake their beds, to invoke their Lord in fear and hope, and they spend (charity in Allah's Cause) out of what We have bestowed on them. (Al-Hilali and Khan 1996)

Semantic analysis

DAEQU (2008: 173) interprets the meaning of '*tatajāfá junūbuhum `ani al-mađāji*' as 'They forsake their beds [literally, kept their sides off their beds], they spent the night in prayer.' According to Al-Qurṭubī (2006, 17: 28-29), the clause is a metaphor meaning 'they go to worship, leaving their beds to perform the night prayer (*qiyam al-layl*)' (Ibn Khathīr 1997, 3: 402; Al-Rāzī 1995, 13: 180; Al-Ṭabarī 1997, 6: 156). Al-Rāzī (1995, 13: 180) states that '*yadʿwna*' (literally, to supplicate) means in this verse 'to invoke'.

Evaluation of the translations

Al-Hilali and Khan, and Ali render this metaphor appropriately by using a calque translation followed by a free translation, with footnotes clarifying its implicit meaning (which accords with that found in the above-mentioned

exegeses). Unlike Ali and Al-Hilali and Khan, Pickthall adopts a literal translation that does not convey the accurate meaning of the original text, and the verse would likely be inaccessible or unintelligible to the target audience. In this case, literal translation is form-based translation attempts to follow the form of the source language and serves to obscure the implicit message of the verse because , as Nida and Taber (1982, 16) rightly observe, the 'literal rendering is both unnatural and misleading'. Free translation can preserve the meanings of the original and uses natural forms of the target language so that the translation can be naturally informative. Translators need to preserve the function and effect of the Quranic discourse to preserve the intended meaning, and therefore, Nord 's model of text analysis is useful to be applied in this situation.

(5) The Quranic metaphorical words and their translation

> *Wa 'Ammā Al-Ladhīna Abyađđat Wujūhuhum Fafī Raĥmati Allāhi Hum Fīhā Khālidūna* (The House of Imran 3: 107)
>
> And for those whose faces will become white, they will be in Allah's Mercy (Paradise), therein they shall dwell forever. (Al-Hilali and Khan 1974: 1996)
>
> And as for those whose faces have been whitened, in the mercy of Allah they dwell for ever. (Pickthall 1930: 1938)
>
> But those whose faces Will be [lit with] white – they will be in [the light of] God's mercy: therein to dwell [for ever]. (Ali 1934: 1975)

Semantic analysis

According to *DCAL* (2008: 270), '*abyāḍḍa allaun*' (literally, 'whitening the colour') means 'to turn white and gradually become shining', and the term 'a face becomes white' means that it brightens with delight and joy. *DAEQU* (2008, 1014), meanwhile, gives the meaning of this phrase as 'some faces will be delighted', referring to those whose faces have become radiant with joy. According to Ibn Khathīr (1997, 1: 346), Al-Ṭabarī (1997, 2: 353) and

Al-Qurṭubī (2006, 5: 258), this verse describes the situation on the Last Day when the faces of sinners will darken with sorrow, in anticipation of their punishment, while the faces of those who have followed Allah's commands – abstaining from bad deeds and abiding by the *sunnah* – will become radiant with joy as they feel '*rahmati allahi*' (Allah's mercy) and enter paradise. Al-Rāzī (1995, 4: 186-87) adds that in modern Arabic the phrase '*andī yad bīḍa*' (literally, 'I have a white hand') means 'I will give you something that will delight you', and that '*abyaḍḍa wajhuhu*' ('his face has become white') is used to refer to someone who is delighted because of their success. Thus, the phrase '*alhamdu lil Allahi aladhī byyaḍa wajhaka*' ('thank God that He turned your face white') is used when congratulating someone.

Evaluation of the translations

None of the three translators render the metaphorical meaning appropriately; they all adopt a literal translation strategy that does not convey the implicit meaning of '*abyaḍḍat wujwhuhum*'. As a result, target readers may struggle to grasp its true sense. However, this type of translation would not be a problem for most native Arabic speakers who would be aware of the implicit meaning of the collocation, especially as it is common in Arabic culture to use synonymous religious terms in everyday speech. For example, the term 'lightened faces' is often used to indicate that someone is pious and Allah is satisfied in them. Ali (1975: viii), commenting on the particular difficulties of translating the Quran, observes: 'Classical Arabic has a vocabulary in which the meaning of each root-word is so comprehensive that it is difficult to interpret it in a modern analytical language word for word, or by the use of the same word in all places where the original word occurs in the text.' When it comes into the figurative language that includes an allegorical meaning, Nord's model of text analysis is useful to be applied in such situations that the external and internal factors being analysed. Thus, this enables the translator to convey the implicit meaning adequately and helps to choose an appropriate strategy

and conveys the message suitably to the target audience. If factors such as recipient, medium, motive, text function, content, and presupposition being analysed in the above example and target text, the appropriate translation of the metaphor '*abyaḍḍat wujwhuhum*' could be 'delighted faces'.

Baker (1992: 26) suggests that a good strategy in such instances is to substitute a specific word with a more general one, 'one of the commonest strategies for dealing with many types of non-equivalence, particularly in the area of propositional meaning'. Hence, free translation can allow the translator to use different techniques to convey the message suitably to the target audience such as paraphrase, explanatory notes, footnotes, descriptive and functional equivalence and other techniques. This approach is not necessarily following closely the form of the source text.

(6) *Quranic metonymic words and their translation*

> *Faqāla 'Innī 'Aĥbabtu Ĥubba Al-Khayri `An Dhikri Rabbī Ĥattá Tawārat Bil-Ĥijābi* (Sad: 32)
>
> And he said: Lo! I have preferred the good things (of the world) to the remembrance of my Lord; till they were taken out of sight behind the curtain. (Pickthall 1983)
>
> And he said: Truly do I love the love of good, with a view to the glory of my Lord – until (the sun) was hidden in the veil (of night). (Ali 1975)
>
> And he said: Alas! I did love the good (these horses) instead of remembering my Lord (in my *'Asr* prayer) till the time was over, and (the sun) had hidden in the veil (of night). (Al-Hilali and Khan 1996)

Semantic analysis

Al-Tha'ālibi (1998: 357) asserts that Arabic discourse in the Quran sometimes contains metonymies that have not been mentioned previously in the text. He refers to the verse 'until [it] was hidden behind the *hijab*' (Sad: 32), meaning 'hidden behind the sun', as an example. This verse

contains two metonymies: one is a metonymy of a word with a metaphorical meaning that has been referred to earlier in the surah, but the other metaphorical sense needs to be intuited from the text as the word is not mentioned. In surah 31, the prophet Salomon is said to be preoccupied in watching a display of horsemanship during the day, and in surah 32, he blames himself for forgetting the evening prayer due to watching the exhibition until the sun set and night fell (Ibn Khathīr 1997, 4: 31; Al-Tabari 1997, 6: 401; Al-Qurtubi 2006, 18: 193-94; Al-Rāzy 1995, 13: 206). The implicit meaning of the word '*hijāb*' (veil), which is mentioned in the original text of the Quran, is 'night came'. However, the word 'sun' is a second metonymy, whose denotative has not been mentioned previously.

Evaluation of the translations

Pickthall builds his analysis of this verse literally, as the first clause of the original text says, 'I loved the good things [these horses] rather than remembering my Lord' (my translation), and also, 'until [it] was hidden behind [a] *hijab*'. It appears that Pickthall encountered problems when trying to grasp the meaning of the two metonymies in the second clause as he uses the subject pronoun 'they' when in fact the metonymy has not been mentioned before and the second clause is in the passive voice. Pickthall believes that it refers to the horses, and he also renders the word '*hijab*' as 'curtain'. This literal translation may present target readers with an ambiguous interpretation. Thus, metonymy can give rise to difficulties: translators frequently fail to contextualise the implicit meaning and instead use a literal translation method, leading to confusion. In such cases, the exegetical materials are particularly useful in helping decipher the intended meaning. Abdel-Raof (2001: 30) maintains that 'translating the Quran, therefore, requires a thorough exegetical analysis and reference to exegetical works, otherwise the meaning of the Quran will be distorted and drastically mispresented in the target language'.

Ali, and Al-Hilali and Khan render the two metonymies informatively (in accord with the above exegeses), taking into account the contextual

meaning, and their free translation is effective because they use the two paraphrases 'the sun' and 'of night'. Free translation is not strictly adhering to the form of the source text and context or the direct meanings of the words, but seeks for the spirit and the message of the source text to be transferred into the target text.

(7) *Quranic metonymic words and their translation*

> *Yawma'idhin Yawaddu Al-Ladhīna Kafarū Wa `Aşaw Ar-Rasūla Law Tusawwá Bihimu Al-'Arđu Wa Lā Yaktumūna Allāha Ĥadīthāan* (Al-Nisa: 42)
>
> On that day those who reject faith and disobey the Apostle will wish that the earth were made one with them: but never will they hide a single fact from God! (Ali 1975)
>
> On that day those who disbelieved and disobeyed the messenger will wish that they were level with the ground, and they can hide no fact from Allah. (Pickthall 1938)
>
> On that day those who disbelieved and disobeyed the Messenger (Muhammad ﷺ) will wish that they were buried in the earth, but they will never be able to hide a single fact from Allah. (Al-Hilali and Khan 1996)

Semantic analysis

'*Tusawwá bi al-'arđ*' (literally, 'level with the ground') refers to a feeling of deep regret or guilt. It is an expression known to most modern-day Arabic speakers, who often use a similar idiom, 'I wished the earth would swallow me', when they recount a particularly bad or embarrassing experience. However, the concept may be difficult for all non-Arabic speakers, apart from specialists in Islamic terminology, to understand unless it is translated freely; it may not be part of their culturally idiomatic speech. Ibn Kathir (1997, 1: 439), Al-Razy (1995, 5: 111), Al-Tabari (1997, 2: 606) and Al-Qurtubi (2006, 6: 327) assert that '*tusawwá bihimu al-'arđu*' means that on

the day of resurrection, when every act stands revealed, disbelievers will wish they were under the ground, alongside those who have died and been buried, rather than be confronted with their shameful or scandalous acts and suffer the consequent punishment.

Evaluation of the translations

In the above translations, Pickthall uses a literal method, 'they were level with the ground', which could lead target readers to wrongly believe that the phrase refers to disbelievers who wish to humble themselves before Allah by bowing down to the earth. Like Pickthall, Ali renders the phrase literally as 'the earth were made one with them', followed by a semantic translation stating that 'they might like to hide in the dust'. He appears to deviate from the accurate information given in the exegeses, and his translation contains redundant information rather than an essential explanation. On the other hand, Al-Hilali and Khan succeed in rendering the contextual meaning of the phrase by translating it freely as 'they were buried in the earth', allowing the target audience to grasp its implicit meaning. As Beekman and Callow (1974: 67) assert:

> Before the procedure for analysing the components of meaning can be described, it is necessary to bring into focus certain universal features of vocabularies. An understanding of these features is important to the translator as he looks for ways of expressing accurately the concepts of the original which he is translating into the RL [receptor language]. (Beekman and Callow 1974: 67)

Research findings

The current study has analysed seven translations of lexical items, and metaphors and metonymic words containing implicit meanings, and has found that the translators did not adhere to a specific translation method or strategy. It appears that, because they found it difficult to grasp the culturally specific and implicit sense of the metaphors and metonymic words, and some of the lexical items, they mainly used a variety of procedures. The results of the study indicate that the most frequently used

approach to rendering the implicit meaning of lexical items, metaphors and metonymic words was that of literal translation, and this led to a significant loss of the intended meaning, distorting the entire translation. The analysis also shows that the most appropriate method of rendering the intended meaning of some of the lexical items, metaphors and metonymic words that appear in the Quran is that of free translation. The most important characteristic of this approach is its focus on the text's intended meaning and effect, as well as the intentions of the author. It concentrates on transferring the content of the original text into English without paying much attention to the grammatical structure.

The findings also confirm that the time in which the selected translations were produced affected their style. For example, the translations of Pickthall and Ali appear to be written in an archaic form of English. Moreover, it is important to note that their translations of the Quran were produced in the first half of the twentieth century: Pickthall's translation was first published in 1930, while Ali's was first published in 1934. These works, therefore, appeared in the period before translation studies first emerged in the second half of the twentieth century and began to develop systematic translation theories and methods. Pickthall's approach is the more literal, with word-for-word translation. In these examples, he uses only a literal translation method and does not employ any other translation strategies and his approach to the translations is entirely source text oriented. Ali, on the other hand, does not seem to have followed any specific method or strategy when rendering the implicit meanings of the selected collocations into English: sometimes, he uses literal translation; at others, he adopts semantic translation; and at still other times, he uses free translation. For example, he uses a literal translation three times and a semantic translation one time and a free translation three times.

Al-Hilali's and Khan's translation approach, in contrast, appears to be mainly target text-oriented, and consequently adheres to the method of free translation, placing essential descriptive information in parentheses,

footnotes or as a paraphrase. In the examples analysed in this study, they use a free translation method six times, and a literal translation one time. Al-Hilali's and Khan's translation was produced in the second half of the twentieth century – in 1974 – and may have benefited from contemporary academic studies of translation theory and methods, as their style appears modern and they use paraphrases and footnots strategies in their translation of the intended meaning of the lexical items and metaphors and metonymic words. Al-though Al-Hilali, as a native Arabic speaker, was more aware of the language in which the Quran written, does not succeed with Khan in conveying the implicit meaning of one of the samples in this study.

The analysis of the metaphor in surah 3: 107, for example, shows that none of the translators appear to grasp the contextual meaning of '*abyaḍḍat wujwhuhum',* and consequently resort to a literal translation, 'faces will become white', which obscures the meaning. In most cases, target readers would find it difficult to discern the implicit meaning of this verse without an explanation, otherwise the translation would sound culturally alien to them. This underlines the fact that translators of the Quran have to constantly bear in mind that they are not translating the text for Arabic speakers, who may sometimes understand the contextual background.

Nord's model of text analysis in translation can act as a guide for future translators, helping them grasp the implicit meaning of some lexical items, metaphors and metonymic words in the Quran, particularly as it takes into consideration both external and internal factors when analysing a text. Nord reminds us that the source-language recipient differs from the target-language recipient in at least in two aspects: cultural background and linguistic community, and therefore the translator should make adjustments when translating from the source language. For example, the analysis of the metonymic sample, surah 4: 42, shows that Al-Hilali and Khan produced an appropriate translation, 'they were buried in the earth', which takes into account both external and internal factors. Among such external factors are the author's intention and the motives or reasons behind the production of

the text, as well as the medium that the translators use to convey the information explicitly to the recipients. In other words, in some of the Quranic verses, the purpose of revelation is an important factor, and this function should apply to both source and target text, ensuring that they are compatible. This translation model also takes into consideration internal factors, such as content and presuppositions (cultural objects), as well as lexical categories (such as metonymy), and its application is very useful when translating figurative language in the Quran that includes metaphors, metonymy, polysemy, collocations and culturally specific expressions, as well as other lexical items that include more than one meaning or contain implicit meanings.

In summary, this study reveals that the selected translators encountered problems in rendering some of the samples of Quranic lexical items, metaphors and metonymic words into English, and concludes that in such cases they should avoid literal translation and adopt a free-translation approach. Moreover, it shows that it is imperative that the translator has a deep understanding of the language of the Quran, as invaluable information is embedded in its particular linguistic structure. For this reason, exegetical books are a vital tool for deciphering the intended meanings of Quranic verses. The current study has only analysed seven examples, further research is needed for an in-depth analysis of other lexical items and metaphors and metonymic words in the Quran.

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(Pre-)interpreting exercises in theory and practice

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Abstract

The paper presents an overview of pre-interpreting exercises as they are described in the literature on interpreter training. A distinction is made among general preliminary exercises, preliminary exercises for consecutive interpreting, preliminary exercises for simultaneous interpreting and other exercises. Two surveys reflecting students' opinions on the use and effectiveness of pre-interpreting exercises are presented and compared with the literature. Apart from the most relevant findings, some limitations are pointed out. Finally, a grant is briefly introduced aiming at designing a rigorous interpreting textbook which will improve the university preparation of translation and interpreting students and streamline interpreting training at all academic institutions in Slovakia which educate future translators and interpreters.

Introduction

According to the literature on the subject, interpreter training should aim to develop and streamline task-specific professional skills (Pöchhacker 2004). Textbooks and papers dealing with interpreter training, according to Pöchhacker (2004), usually fall into three categories, although we may observe some overlaps: consecutive interpreting with note-taking (e.g. Alexieva 1994; Andres 2002; Jones 2002; Gillies 2005; Setton and Dawrant 2016), simultaneous interpreting for international conferences (e.g. Jones 2002; Setton and Dawrant 2016) and dialogue interpreting in the community (e.g. Hale 2007). Gile (2005, 131) acknowledges that virtually

all interpreter training programs "are built on interpreting exercises, in both consecutive and simultaneous, with some sight translation and other peripheral exercises".

Some scholars claim that a complex task such as interpreting should be viewed holistically; others are of the opinion that interpreting should be analysed as a set of individual skills (Pérez-Luzardo, 2015). Most scholars agree that trainees should do preliminary exercises before practising real interpreting. These may be offered within a specific course, integrated into teaching in the first few weeks of a particular course, or used as warm-up exercises at the beginning of class.

Pre-interpreting exercises focus on ancillary skills such as analytical skills in text comprehension, expressive skills for public speaking and assignment preparation (Pérez-Luzardo, 2015). In addition to these general preparatory exercises, scholars also recommend preparatory exercises for consecutive and simultaneous interpreting. Pöchhacker (2004) claims that this didactic literature usually takes the form of descriptive ("how I do it") or prescriptive accounts ("how it should be done").

Despite a multitude of exercises proposed by various scholars, "little is known about actual teaching practices adopted by individual instructors or institutions" (Pöchhacker 2004, 184). Certain doubts concerning the impact of specialized literature on teaching practices were voiced by Dodds and Katan (1997 In: Pöchhacker 2004). A questionnaire-based classroom survey by Pöchhacker (1999) confirmed highly diverse teaching practices within one institution among twenty-two teachers regarding input text presentation, use of media and correction. This points to heterogeneity in interpreter training determined by a particular teacher.

General preliminary exercises

Exercises aimed at enhancing expressive skills may be specific (such as focus on voice quality and diction) or general (such as public-speaking skills). Pérez-Luzardo (2015, 317) adds that "language enhancement drills

may be designed to speed up vocabulary retrieval and improve fluency". Exercises in which students are asked to imitate speaker's intonation, use of pauses, etc. may also be helpful (Setton and Dawrant 2016). Expression in interpreting may also be improved through exercises with synonyms, parataxis, hypernyms, antonyms, re-expression, paraphrasing, making prepared or extemporaneous speeches, practising the use of idiomatic expressions and set phrases, or connective exercises (Ballester and Jiménez 1992; Nolan 2005).

Content processing is crucial in the preliminary exercise of paraphrasing. Interpreting shares certain aspects with unilingual paraphrase (Le Ny 1978), which helps develop students' ability "to render the basic meaning of a message in other words and in different sentence constructions" (Moser 1978, 363). By practising paraphrasing, interpreter trainees learn to convey the message without time pressure and linguistic constraints of the original speech (Kalina 1998; Moser 1978). Also effective are modifications of paraphrasing, such as asking students to re-express the content of a linguistically complex text or speech more concisely while maintaining accuracy, using appropriate linking expressions and avoiding any adornment (Pérez-Luzardo 2015). These exercises train students to identify the most succinct equivalent and eliminate redundancy (Nolan 2005; Pérez-Luzardo 2015).

Memory exercises should teach students how to use their working memory to properly foreground the memorization of key concepts rather than words (Kautz 2000). Zhong (2003) suggests combining memory exercises with specific techniques of categorization, generalization, comparison and description. For developing memory skills Pérez-Luzardo (2015) recommends written or spoken summaries of a speech previously listened to, dictation-translations, and further variations on these exercises.

Preliminary exercises for consecutive interpreting

Consecutive interpreting is either performed as short consecutive without notes (as used in dialogue interpreting) or as classic consecutive using note-taking and rendering passages lasting five to ten minutes (as used in conference interpreting) (Pöchhacker 2004). For training consecutive interpreting without note-taking, the previously mentioned memory enhancing exercises are used. According to Gile (2005, 131-132) "they are very useful for the purpose of demonstrating to the students how memory works, and in particular the fact that if they listen carefully and understand the logic of the speech, its content will be stored in their memory even without a conscious effort to memorise it, although recalling it actively may be problematic unless they have cues".

Ilg and Lambert (1996) found out that publications dealing with the teaching of consecutive interpreting focus primarily on note-taking. For training note-taking skills, the preliminary exercises are recommended to improve message analysis, message recall and active listening, combined with the techniques of clozing, chunking and visualization (Kalina 1998). Exercises for analysis and comprehension are also supposed to enhance listening and understanding. Students listen to a speech and either before or afterwards are given a specific task such as answering multiple choice questions, filling in a form, accurately rendering numbers, proper names, dates (with or without the use of notes) or producing the structure of the speech (Ballester and Jiménez 1992). Gillies (2005) recommends looking at speeches at a macro-level to focus on their structure. Mini-summaries represent an exercise aiming at a very brief summary of the main ideas (Gillies 2005).

Public-speaking skills are essential to the production phase of consecutive interpreting (Pöchhacker 2004). Bottan (2000 In: Pöchhacker 2004, 184) experimentally confirmed that "specific training in public speaking (including breathing, voice control, eye contact) raised students' awareness

of their delivery and enhanced their presentation in consecutive interpreting". In order to provide feedback on performance, video recording may prove useful (Kellet 1995).

Preliminary exercises for simultaneous interpreting

Simultaneous interpreting is a complex cognitive task which involves listening and speaking at the same time. The skill of simultaneous listening and speaking can be trained by means of dual-task exercises. Dual tasks, as their name suggests, involve two different cognitive tasks; for example, listening to a recording in combination with a second task, such as reading another text aloud, or counting forwards or backwards (Moser 1978). Other modifications are also possible. Some scholars (Déjean le Féal 1997; Kalina 1998) question the usefulness of dual-task exercises in interpreter training, claiming that "the performance of cognitively unrelated tasks does not approximate the processing demands of simultaneous interpreting" (Pöchhacker 2004, 184).

Another preliminary exercise for simultaneous interpreting is shadowing, which can be defined as "the immediate repetition of auditory input in the same language with either minimal delay (phoneme shadowing) or at greater latencies (phrase shadowing)" (Pöchhacker 2004, 184). Literature on interpreter training views shadowing as a rather controversial issue, having both its advocates (Lambert 1991) and opponents (Seleskovitch and Lederer 1989 In: Pöchhacker 2004). Drawing from neuropsychology, Kurz characterizes shadowing as monolingual repetitive speech production which only poorly approximates simultaneous interpreting, since it misses a crucial element: "the active analysis of speech input" (Kurz 1992, 248). Kurz (1992) tested this experimentally in a longitudinal study testing five first-year students on shadowing and two simultaneous question-and-answer tasks (Yes/No questions, Why questions) at the beginning and at the end of one semester of simultaneous interpreting training. Students improved on all three tasks, but the best test results were recorded for the

most demanding task (answering a why question while listening to the next why question). Moser (1978) came to similar results while testing introductory exercises (abstraction of ideas, message prediction, dual tasks and shadowing). The least significant difference between experimental (five students in their 5th semester who had never been enrolled in an interpreting course before) and control (five students in their 5th semester who were currently enrolled in courses in the translation section) groups was found for the shadowing task, whereas the most pronounced difference was identified for the extended lag test (repetition or translation of sentences while staying one or two sentences behind). These experiments proved that shadowing requires less processing capacity for meaning (Pöchhacker 2004). This conclusion was later confirmed by Moser-Mercer et al. (2000) who found that five students were better at shadowing than five professional interpreters, suggesting that interpreters apply acquired content-processing strategies.

Though shadowing is viewed as controversial in professional literature, we believe that its modification may be useful in interpreter training. For didactic purposes we select authentic speeches with formal deficiencies such as false starts, repetitions, incomplete sentences, syntactical and morphological mistakes and ask students to shadow them while correcting/avoiding these deficiencies. Apart from this modification, Kalina (1992) recommends other variants, such as transforming the passive voice into active under shadowing conditions or transforming direct speech into reported speech and performing the required grammatical adjustments while shadowing. Shadowing tasks combined with cloze exercises which also provoke anticipation (Kalina 1992) may also be useful.

In anticipation tasks students are expected to comprehend the meaning of a text displayed in segments on a screen while reading it aloud. In spite of a time lag, their reading has to be communicative (Kalina 1992). Likewise, exercises targeted at enhancing active listening focus on the process of anticipation through inferencing and knowledge mobilization (Chernov

2004). A teacher may ask students to write notes on the ideas they expect to hear in a speech before listening to it (Pérez-Luzardo 2015). Another variant includes interrupting the speech after particular segments and requiring students to complete it, continuing the ideas. More demanding are so-called productive anticipation tasks (Kalina 1992), containing unexpected turns which force students to amend/correct their output after anticipation.

Kalina (1992) agrees that consecutive interpreting is the gateway to simultaneous interpreting and should be taught first, but at the same time she is convinced that preliminary exercises for simultaneous interpreting should be practiced in parallel with consecutive interpreting teaching.

Other exercises

Weber (1990) claims that sight translation involves most of the skills required of conference interpreters and therefore should be incorporated into interpreter training programmes from the beginning up to the end. He presents four different skills included in sight translation: rapid text analysis, avoiding word-for-word interpreting, rapid conversion of information from one culture/language into another and public-speaking techniques (Weber 1990). This exercise can be effectively applied to both consecutive and simultaneous interpreting training, though Viezzi (1990 In: Pöchhacker 2004, 186) "questioned the similarity of task demands assumed for sight translation and simultaneous interpreting".

We consider the practice of keeping a journal as an effective tool for providing additional data on interpreter training among beginning students. In such journals, students can monitor their individual progress and record their opinions as well as potential difficulties with introductory exercises (applied for instance by Moser-Mercer 2000 In: Pöchhacker 2004).

The exercises presented above are primarily applied in training the two basic modes of conference interpreting (consecutive and simultaneous), emphasizing cognitive processing. Exercises helping students to manage

anxiety, grow more confident and develop situation-based problem-solving skills should be incorporated into training (dialogue) interpreting by such means as theatrical training (Pérez-Luzardo 2015).

The foregoing overview of frequently applied and recommended (pre-)interpreting exercises is by no means exhaustive or complete. The use of (pre-)interpreting exercises in interpreter training should be justified. In this context, Gile's (2005, 149) remark would seem particularly relevant: "The best methods for one environment may not be best for another". Interpreter trainers have to be aware of the actual interpreting needs of their particular students in their particular environment and be ready to, if necessary, apply methods that deviate considerably from those advocated in the literature.

Slovak textbooks and monographs on interpreter training

Despite the growing volume of theoretical accounts, Slovakia has yet to produce a practical publication focusing on the comprehensive training of interpreting skills. The lack of methodological materials has been long pointed out by interpreting instructors. In recent years, we have noted the efforts of some scholars to fill this gap by publishing textbooks for interpreting or didactic materials, such as Djovčoš and Šveda et al. (2018); Fedorko (2017); Šveda (2016); Kredátusová (2016; 2012); Vertanová et al. (2015); Opalková (2014; 2013a; 2013b; 2011); Opalková et al. (2013); Šavelová and Melicherčíková (2013); Veselá (2006). These teaching materials are intended either for a particular language combination, for a selected mode of interpreting (consecutive or simultaneous interpreting), or for new forms (community interpreting). However, there is still a need for a comprehensive textbook, based on exact methods and the results of research, which would be available to all interpreter training institutions in Slovakia. Some relevant data can be provided by theses successfully defended at Slovak universities, though their focus is often limited.

The author of the present paper has supervised two theses (Dubovská 2009; Slučiaková 2013) dealing with the topic of (pre)-interpreting exercises. In her master's thesis, Dubovská (2009) focused on types of preparatory interpreting exercises and their legitimacy in the didactics of interpreting. In her bachelor's thesis, Slučiaková (2013) investigated the efficiency of exercises applied during interpreter training.

Survey 1

The first survey was conducted in order to find out students' opinions and personal experience with preparatory interpreting exercises. The original intention was to research first- and second-year master's-level translation and interpreting (T&I) students and to compare their views. Since there were no such first-year students at the university studied at that time, the survey was conducted solely among second-year students of T&I (Dubovská 2009).

Subjects

Subjects were students of T&I at the Faculty of Arts, Matej Bel University in Banská Bystrica, Slovakia in the second year, second (and final) semester of their master's studies; their interpreter training had begun in the third (and final) year of their bachelor's studies, namely in the fifth semester. The total sample consisted of 50 subjects, of which 96% were females (N=48) and 4% were males (N=2); they were aged 22 to 27.

Questionnaire

The author opted for a questionnaire, the most frequently used instrument in survey studies (Liu 2011), in order to find out subjects' opinions and their personal experience with preparatory interpreting exercises. The questionnaire was designed by Dubovská (2009), based on relevant literature and consisted of two parts. The first part contained three identification questions serving to determine subjects' age, gender and year of study. The second part comprised 30 questions relating to the didactics

of interpreting and preparatory interpreting exercises, composed predominantly of closed-ended questions (either dichotomous questions such as yes/no questions and true/false questions, or multiple-choice questions including ranking on the scale "not important–important–very important") and two open-ended questions.

Procedure

The questionnaire was administered to students of T&I at the beginning of interpreting class; students filled in a printed version in groups corresponding to their language combination (each containing no more than 14 subjects due to the interpreting classroom booth capacity). The survey was carried out between 29 September 2008 and 3 October 2008.

Results

All subjects (N=50) stated that they were familiar with the term "preparatory interpreting exercises" and the majority (N=45, 90%) agreed that interpreting exercises helped them to develop their interpreting competence and skills. The remaining 10% (N=5) were of the opinion that only a part of those exercises might be beneficial to interpreting training. None of the subjects stated that the exercises were useless in interpreter training. When asked to consider their overall interpreting skills after two years of training, 8% (N=4) noted that their progress was more than visible while for 92% (N=46) interpreting exercises represented a useful tool of improvement, but they claimed they needed more training. This finding corroborates the theory that, apart from compulsory classes, interpreting training requires a great deal of self-study (see Kornakov 2000; Djovšoš – Šveda 2018).

Almost all the respondents (N=48, 96%) were convinced that interpreting exercises contributed to developing interpreting competence, one respondent (2%) attributed only a partial role to interpreting exercises in developing interpreting competence and one respondent (2%) was of the

opinion that interpreting competence is something one is born with and therefore cannot be developed.

Responses were more diverse on the time that should be dedicated to preparatory exercises. On the assumption that one interpreting class lasts 90 minutes, 14% (N=7) would welcome pre-interpreting exercises taking half of the class (45 minutes), 32% (N=16) would be satisfied with less than half of the class (less than 45 minutes), and 8% (N=4) invited spending more than half of the class (more than 45 minutes). Almost half of the sample (N=23, 46%) was convinced that the duration of preparatory exercises should be adjusted specifically to the training level. These responses are in line with the varied approaches to integrating pre-interpreting exercises into teaching (see Pérez-Luzardo 2015).

The questionnaire also provided data on the sequence of teaching. In line with the literature documenting the differing cognitive demands of consecutive and simultaneous interpreting, 76% of subjects (N=38) stated that consecutive and simultaneous interpreting should be trained separately, while the remaining 24% (N=12) were against such a separation. More than one third of subjects (38%, N=19) believed that consecutive interpreting training should precede simultaneous interpreting training, while nearly two thirds (62%, N=31) claimed it should not (due to the structure of the particular question it is not obvious whether they thought simultaneous interpreting training should precede consecutive interpreting training or whether they should be trained simultaneously).

Other sets of questions yielded data on particular pre-interpreting exercises. Most subjects (68%, N=34) would welcome a division of consecutive exercises into pre-consecutive and consecutive exercises. 32% (N=16) considered such a division unnecessary. Almost all the subjects (N=48, 96%) viewed note-taking exercises as a useful and effective training tool. In spite of contradictory views on shadowing in literature, 90% of the subjects (N=45) considered shadowing to be a helpful tool in acquiring the

ability to listen to and speak at the same time. Only 10% of the subjects (N=5) did not view shadowing as a helpful tool in interpreter training. Majority of the subjects (64%, N=32) were of the opinion that phonemic shadowing should precede phrase shadowing; the remaining subjects (36%, N=18) saw no reason for such a sequence. 62% (N=31) would welcome shadowing if combined with other monolingual exercises, such as Yes/No questions and Why questions. For 32% (N=16) shadowing should not be replaced by other monolingual exercises, because it has its own place in interpreter training. Only 6% (N=3) considered other monolingual exercises more useful than shadowing.

As regards the role of cloze tasks in interpreter training, a vast majority of respondents (N=45, 90%) were convinced that these exercises help develop interpreting skills and competences (such as inference and anticipation). Similarly, 92% (N=46) viewed sight translation exercises as very helpful in interpreter training. Out of the total sample, 58% of subjects (N=29) would apply sight translation into both consecutive and simultaneous interpreting training, 38% (N=19) would integrate these exercises only into simultaneous interpreting training and 4% (N=2) were against their use in interpreter training.

The combination of dual tasks with other exercises was recommended by 58% of the subjects (N=29), 24% (N=12) opted for separate application into didactics of consecutive and simultaneous interpreting, while 18% (N=9) would exclude them from interpreter training. The relevance ranking of individual exercises showed that note-taking exercises were viewed as the most important pre-interpreting exercise (average 2.58); 62% of subjects (N=31) marked them as very important. These were followed by transformation and paraphrasing exercises (average 2.3), which 40% of the subjects (N=20) viewed as very important. Shadowing exercises ranked third (average 2.24); 30% of subjects (N=15) considered them to be very important. Sight translation and cloze-task exercises tied for fourth place (average 2.04); in both cases 16% of subjects (N=8) were of the opinion

that they were very important. The last place was occupied by dual tasks (average 1.42); although 20% (N=10) considered them very important, approximately the same number of participants, 18% (N=9), marked them as not important.

Survey 2

The second survey aimed at identifying the most and least practiced and efficient (pre-)interpreting exercises and at providing personal opinions on some exercises. In contrast to the first survey, it was conducted as part of a bachelor's thesis (Slučiaková 2013), which is reflected in its more limited scale and less comprehensive data processing and evaluation.

Subjects

The survey was conducted among second-year master's students and graduates of translation and interpreting (Matej Bel University in Banská Bystrica and Comenius University in Bratislava, Slovakia). The author (Slučiaková 2013) opted for these two groups of respondents due to their having previously completed or almost completed interpreter training and their experience with interpreting exercises. Out of the total sample of 60 subjects, the students comprised 43.3% (N=26) and the graduates 56.7% (N=34). At the time of the research the subjects were aged 22–33, their average age being 24.5. With regard to gender, 83.3% of the respondents were females (N=50) and 16.7% were males (N=10).

Questionnaire

The research tool represented a questionnaire designed by the author (Slučiaková 2013) and drawing from the literature on interpreting. It was divided into two parts, the second part being further subdivided into two sections. The first part comprised four identification questions aiming at eliciting data on subjects' age, gender, current study status and language competencies. The first section of the second part contained five general questions focusing on awareness, practical experience and opinions related

to interpreting exercises (closed-ended questions combined with open-ended questions). The second section of the second part consisted of nine questions dealing with particular (pre-)interpreting exercises (open-ended questions combined with multiple-choice questions).

Procedure

The questionnaire was sent to students and graduates of translation and interpreting at Matej Bel University in Banská Bystrica and Comenius University in Bratislava via e-mail and the social network Facebook. The data collection took place between 7 December 2012 and 20 January 2013. The respondents filled in and submitted 60 questionnaires.

Results

All the respondents (N=60) confirmed knowledge of interpreting exercises and their relevance to interpreter training. 96.5% (N=58) were convinced that exercises had helped them in their interpreter training. Separate training of consecutive and simultaneous interpreting was recommended by 93.3% (N=56). The majority of the respondents believed that paraphrasing and shadowing were the most useful interpreting exercises; for others, anticipation exercises were of more importance. In spite of recognizing the relevance of interpreting exercises, 76.7% of the respondents (N=46) believed that interpreting exercises should be practiced every day – only 20% (N=12) practiced them at home. The result for exercises practiced only during interpreting classes, from most to least recommended, was as follows: dual tasks (66.7%), paraphrasing (66.7%), shadowing (66.7%), sight translation (63.3%), rebuilding sentences (60%), text condensation (56.7%), exercises dealing with synonyms and antonyms (53.3%); other exercises scored less than 50%, such as code switching, transformation of the text, univerbization of multiword expressions, cloze tasks, and proper use of conjunctions. The most commonly practiced exercises at home were shadowing (53.3%), sight translation (53.3%) and paraphrasing (50%). Although a majority of the respondents did not consider interpreting

exercises useless, some viewed some of them as a waste of time: shadowing (13.3%), proper use of conjunction (13.3%), transformation of the text (6.7%), cloze tasks (6.7%), exercises dealing with synonyms, antonyms (6.7%), dual tasks (3.3%). As regards the time that should be devoted to practicing interpreting exercises, 58.3% (N=35) of respondents agreed on approximately 30 minutes a day, while 23.3% (N=14) did not think it necessary to practice them every day. The last finding of the survey concerned students' view on training through interpreting exercises: 76.7% (N=46) concluded that it is underestimated, meaning that more time should be devoted to it.

Discussion and limitations

The main research tools applied in both surveys were questionnaires. Although they were thematically similar, they were not identical, which precludes a detailed comparison of the investigated aspects. The surveys also differed in their extent of data processing and evaluation.

Nevertheless, according to both surveys, students and graduates are aware of (pre-)interpreting exercises (indicating that these exercises are applied in interpreter training) and acknowledge their relevance in interpreter training. Most of the subjects confirmed such exercises' importance in developing interpreting competence and skills. Both surveys confirmed students' preference for separate training of consecutive and simultaneous interpreting (their separation was recommended by a greater number in the second survey). We cannot compare the data related to the training time of exercises, since the first survey investigated it within an interpreting class, whereas the second one focused on training on a daily basis.

Some similarities were observed with regard to the most relevant exercises. Among the first three places in both surveys were paraphrasing and shadowing, even though shadowing proved to be a controversial issue in the second survey.

Apart from obvious or expected findings, the surveys also provided some unexpected findings. Namely, in the first survey, students viewed note-taking exercises as very important, earning them the highest score. The reason for this may be the awareness that if notetaking is not trained systematically, it may be reflected in poor interpreting performances (see Melicherčíková 2017). Similarly, rather surprising was the position of last place for dual tasks within the first survey. This may be supported by critics' claims that dual tasks are based on cognitively unrelated tasks. Unexpected in the second survey was the fact that only one fifth of respondents reported that they practiced interpreting exercises also at home, in spite of the general awareness of the importance of self-training in interpreter training (Kornakov 2000).

We can conclude that in general, both surveys yielded some relevant and interesting data, even though they also had certain limitations.

The first obvious limitation of the presented surveys is the time they were conducted (2008 and 2012/2013). Since then other pre-interpreting exercises and their modifications have been integrated into interpreter training. Neither in the first nor in the second survey did the subjects sign an informed consent form, which is a necessary part of contemporary research. This fact may also be attributed to the time the surveys were conducted (2008 and 2012/2013). Both the samples were comparable in terms of size and study period. These samples can be regarded as satisfactory in relation to the particular field of study (T&I), despite their small size.

Some limitations concern the structure and design of the questionnaires. The first questionnaire contained predominantly closed-ended questions. These are easier to analyse, but more difficult to construct. When asking closed-ended questions, all reasonable alternative answers should be provided (Bradburn et al. 2004). For some questions used in the first questionnaire we would recommend completing additional responses.

Although closed-ended questions have some advantages, the character of research (the main intention of the survey was to find out subjects' opinions) would also require open-ended questions, which allow and encourage respondents to fully give their opinions (Bradburn et al. 2004). Therefore, the optimum approach would seem to be a combination of both closed-ended and open-ended questions. As regards the structure of the second questionnaire, in some cases one question actually contained two questions and therefore should have been formulated as two separate questions (e.g. *Do you think consecutive and simultaneous interpreting should be trained separately or simultaneously? Why?*). Another limitation can be attributed to the data evaluation in the second survey. The author (Slučiaková 2013) did not specify the findings for two distinct samples (students and graduates) but evaluated the data for the whole sample. The findings might have been different for the two samples in certain aspects such as time devoted to exercises, home practice or relevance of individual exercises. For some questions, only a general evaluation was provided; concrete numbers/percentage are missing for certain categories. Both surveys focused exclusively on subjective responses. Empirical testing reflecting the effectiveness of individual exercises is missing.

Conclusion and future prospects

The present paper has focused on several (pre-)interpreting exercises and their categorisations. This overview is by no means complete or exhaustive, as a number of other exercises, their variations and modifications are used in interpreter training. The differing needs of different environments require different methods. Also decisive is the personality of the instructor. The author has also presented two surveys on (pre-)interpreting exercises (Dubovská 2009 and Slučiaková 2013), which were conducted as part of theses. These surveys provided additional data on students' subjective perception of particular exercises; however, they did not test the effectiveness of (pre-)interpreting exercises in interpreter training.

The Cultural and Educational Grant Agency of the Ministry of Education, Science, Research and Sport of the Slovak Republic has approved the grant KEGA 026UMB-4/2019: Exaktná učebnica tlmočenia (Rigorous Interpreting Textbook), confirming the need for a rigorous interpreting textbook with innovative features, something which lacks in Slovak translation and interpreting programmes. The principal investigator (Faculty of Arts, Matej Bel University, Banská Bystrica) and co-investigators (Faculty of Arts, Comenius University, Bratislava and Faculty of Arts, University of Ostrava, Ostrava) will strive to design teaching materials focused on the comprehensive training of the skills necessary for mastering consecutive and simultaneous interpreting, grounded in recognized theories and models of interpreting, and applying empirical findings concerning diverse aspects of interpreting. The longitudinal research started in September 2019 and will last until May 2021. The testing is being performed on an experimental (students of translation and interpreting) and a control group (students of teaching of academic subjects), and the data gathered will be processed statistically. Additional data on research subjects will be provided from an electronic questionnaire. One of the tasks of the project is to test the effectiveness of individual exercises, gain students' opinions on particular teaching practices from continuous interpreting journals, and compare findings with previous studies and theoretical accounts. The ambition of the research team (of which the author of this paper is a member), including investigators from three universities, is to design a rigorous interpreting textbook which will improve the university preparation of translation and interpreting students and streamline interpreting training at all academic institutions in Slovakia which educate future translators and interpreters.

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Applying Sight Translation in Testing Consecutive Interpreting Skills in Undergraduates

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Abstract

This study is a didactic approach to consecutive interpreting (CI) from English into Romanian aimed at assessing undergraduates' CI skills. It intends to determine the role of sight translation (ST) as a pre-interpreting exercise in testing would-be interpreters' skills. The results presented in the paper derive from a qualitative and quantitative research conducted at the Department of Translation, Interpretation and Applied Linguistics, Moldova State University. The experimental study is based on the analysis of errors of interpretation according to the classifications of H. Barik (1997), B. J. Delisle (2003), R. D. Gonzales et.al. (2012) and G. Lungu-Badea (2012) as well as on the types of errors identified in students' translation versions.

Keywords: consecutive interpreting, sight translation, consecutive interpreting skills, errors of interpreting, didactic approach.

Introduction to consecutive interpreting

Consecutive interpretation (CI) is one of the two main modes of conference interpreting, the second mode being simultaneous interpreting. Referring to consecutive A. Gillies states that it "[…] is considered by many to be superior of the two" (Gillies 2005, 3). CI implies a combination of what D.

Gile called "efforts", i.e. mental activities like listening and analysis, note-taking, short-term memory, coordination, remembering, note-reading and production (Gile, 1995). Put in a concise definition, *to interpret consecutively* means to listen to the information verbalized by the speaker, and to subsequently reproduce it into another language. Although it sounds fairly easy to accomplish, the process of acquiring good CI skills requires constant cognitive effort materialised into abilities to use it in order to perform to the highest standards. Citing R. Setton and A. Dawrant, two well-known conference interpreters and authors of *"Conference Interpreting A complete Course"* and *"Conference Interpreting A Trainer's Guide"*, "A good consecutive is very satisfying, but requires several months of training to reach basic competence, a year or two to attain a solid professional level (even for the best students) and, like anything that is variable and complex, years to master." (Setton, Dawrant 2016, 144).

The role of sight translation as a preliminary exercise in acquiring consecutive interpreting skills

Although CI shares the same communicative role with sight translation (ST), it is important to pinpoint that there are differences between the two modes in terms of mental processes and mechanisms activated in the delivery of the message in the target language. Citing I. Cenkova regarding her view on ST, the author says that it "[...] is one of the basic modes of interpreting, alongside consecutive interpreting with/without notation and simultaneous interpreting in a booth with/without text. It is a dichotomous process of language transfer from the source language (SL) into the target language (TL) as well as from a written into an oral form." (Cenkova 2010, 320).

Despite obvious similarities between the types of translation in question that reside in the oral production of a message, the need for effort coordination and split attention in the translation process, recent research by M. Agrifoglio has indicated that ST should be distinguished from CI as

they are performed under different conditions; in one case the source-text is written and permanent, while in the other it disappears once it is expressed, which contributes to significant differences between ST and CI with regard to information reception, processing, and production (Agrifoglio 2004).

Referring to the role of ST in the academic environment J.V. Dyk (2009) notes that it is "a highly beneficial method to improve translation and communication skills among language learners […], to teach students to avoid literal and non-idiomatic translation […] and to teach students learn to re-express the meaning of the source-text in their own words and to compensate for the insufficient language knowledge and intuition by relying on the context already known to them" (Dyk 2009, 203). "Practicing sight translation prepares students in their training as translators," states J.V. Dyk (Dyk 2009, 205).

The error analysis on the basis of D. Gile's Effort Models (D. Gile 1995, 2009) showed that ST brings more errors of expression, while CI and simultaneous interpreting lead to more errors of meaning. In ST the interpreter indulges with the speed of delivering the message in the TL and does not have to follow the speaker as in consecutive or simultaneous mode.

Sight translation presupposes higher cognitive demands (Cenkova 2010, 321) as the interpreter is in direct contact with the source-text which, increases the risk of lexical interference and imitation of the original, especially in terms of lexical and syntactical structure. Therefore, ST should make students aware of the danger of language interference and the need of careful switching between two different linguistic codes in order to provide appropriate translation versions. Other benefits of ST in interpreter education reside in better text orientation, non-linear approach to text and identification of core information (Cenkova 2010, 322). B. Moser-Mercer also strongly supports the pedagogical value of ST in conference

interpreting training, arguing that it helps students detach themselves from the original text, increase their speed of analysis, and manipulate a text with syntax and stylistics (Moser-Mercer 1994).

Aim of the paper

This research is an attempt at determining the role of ST in would-be interpreters' acquisition of CI competences. In this respect, the paper presents the results of an experimental study in which ST was used as a pre-CI exercise to test undergraduates' competences. The results obtained showed that the process of ST improved the quality of the product of CI regarding lexical, grammatical and semantic aspects.

Methodology of the study

Two groups of 20 randomly selected 2nd year undergraduates from the Department of Translation, Interpretation and Applied Linguistics took part in the study. Ten students constituted the experimental group (EG) and 10 students – the control group (CG). The participants were students with English as first foreign language and Romanian as mother tongue, attending their first practical course of consecutive interpreting at the Department of Translation, Interpretation and Applied Linguistics. The EG was subject to a preliminary exercise which consisted in the ST of the 3 min. transcribed speech *„Soap operas - not just a form of entertainment"*. After applying the preliminary exercise to the EG, students in both groups interpreted the speech consecutively. The discourse was selected from the *Speech Repository* of the *DG SCIC*. It is intended for didactic purposes, level beginners. Since the participants were just introduced to practical aspects of CI, *very short Consecutive interpreting mode without note taking* was applied (Setton, Dawrant 2016, 135). The speech was segmented into 19 meaningful units S1 to S19 (see Appendix), with a duration of 5-10 seconds each. The reason behind using very short consecutive is that at this stage of CI competence acquisition students are introduced to note-taking techniques only by the end of the semester, while our purpose was to obtain

an as detailed interpretation as possible. It is worth noting that EG students did not rehearse the ST of the transcribed discourse, i.e. they produced a first ST version. Students from both groups involved in the study were announced the keywords and a short description of the speech before proceeding to its CI. Also, in order to preserve students' anonymity an identification code was attributed to substitute for their names. Therefore, students in the CG were attributed codes from A1 to A10, and students in the EG were attributed codes from B1 to B10.

The translation of the discourse took place in the language laboratory of the Department of Translation, Interpretation and Applied Linguistics. For the subsequent processing of the quality of the translated discourse, students recorded the ST and CI versions with the help of the audio software *Audacity*. Thereafter, for the purpose of qualitative and quantitative discourse analysis all the CI versions provided by the students were transcribed. Our attempt to use speech to text recognition software failed due to background noises that interfered with students' speech and their low voice that could not be "heard" by the program.

A short description of error categories in interpreting

The CI competences were assessed in number of errors attributed to the following categories: *(1) language mistakes, (2) lexical errors, (3) grammatical errors, (4) ambiguities, (5) mistranslation, (6) incorrect meaning, (7) nonsense, (8) pragmatic errors, (9) additions, (10) omissions, (11) inappropriate comments, (12) approximations*. This classification is rooted in the error categories outlined by H. Barik (1997), B. J. Delisle (2003), R. D. Gonzales *et.al.* (2012) and G. Lungu-Badea (2012) and also takes into account the types of errors identified in students' translation versions.

(1) Language mistakes are determined by insufficient knowledge of grammar and lexis of the TL. They do not distort the meaning of the speech but may cause some alteration at local level. Among the most encountered

types of language errors should be noted *barbarisms*, *solecisms*, *inappropriate expressions* and *language interferences*.

(2) Lexical errors lead to inappropriate translation, with a probability of distorting the meaning of the speech. They are triggered by weak or inadequate access to synonyms, poor linguistic abilities, literal translation and time constraint.

(3) Grammatical errors are associated with poor rendering of grammatical categories of tense, number, mood or errors of syntax that result in distortion of meaning. Reasons for committing such errors are poor grammatical knowledge and lack of attention.

(4) Ambiguity is an impediment towards understanding the target-discourse. It is lexical, syntactical and semantic-pragmatic in nature, usually associated with homonymy, polysemy, elements of coordination, phrases, ellipsis, pronouns, etc.

(5) Mistranslation resides in attributing to a word or syntagm a wrong meaning which is opposite to the one intended by the speaker (Delisle 2003, 33). Causes of mistranslation are related to lack or poor understanding of the source-discourse (SD) and problems with listening to it.

(6) Incorrect meaning is the result of an erroneous appreciation of the meaning of a word or utterance in a given context but does not lead to opposite meaning (Delisle 2003, 42). Reasons causing incorrect meaning are the same as with mistranslation.

(7) Nonsense resides in attributing an erroneous meaning to the source utterance resulting in absurd expression in the TL (Delisle 2003, 50). Nervousness and problems with understanding the original are among causes of nonsense.

(8) Pragmatic errors are mostly associated with mixing language registers, omitting cohesive elements at intra- and/or inter-utterance level, using inappropriate pragmatic connectors that result in incoherence.

(9) Addition consists in the unjustified creation and introduction in the target discourse (TD) of information that does not exist in the SD. Additions are motivated by poor attention and concentration as well as misunderstanding the SD and the desire of not keeping silent while interpreting when some segments are misunderstood.

(10) Omission means to unjustifiably not render in the target discourse information that appears in the SD which results in loss of meaning. They occur at word level, phrase level or even entire utterances may be omitted due to the students' inability to reformulate the meaning into the TL because of time constraints, lack of understanding of the SD, rendering numbers and enumerations without focus to their co-text, slow information processing capacity, lack of attention and concentration.

(11) Inappropriate comments occur as language units in the result of the cognitive processes that one verbalises in interpreting. Such interventions interfere with the TD and distract the listener. Inappropriate comments are triggered by memory failures, poor linguistic knowledge or they may act like stimulus for the activation of information retrieval.

(12) Approximation or *imprecision* are used to avoid exactness in determining the real value of the information, or the truth value of an assertion, etc. in the process of interpretation. Causes of this type of error are short-term memory retrieval failure and insufficiency or lack of linguistic knowledge.

Data analysis and results

A total number of 132 errors were found in the EG(ST), 120 CI errors were counted in EG(CI) and 244 errors were identified in the CG. Figure 1 below presents the frequency distribution of errors per each category of interpretation error in the studied groups.

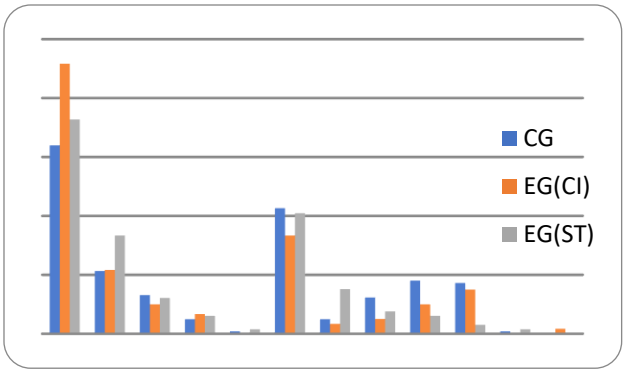

Figure 1. Percentage distribution of errors in EG and CG

The total duration of the ST versions (56:47 min.) provided by students in the study exceeded the total duration of the CI versions – 33:58 min. in CG and 36:59 min. in EG(CI).

The comparative analysis of errors shows that the number of *language mistakes* prevailed over the rest of error categories in CG (31.97%) as well as in EG in both modes of translation (36.36% in EG(ST) and 45.83% in EG(CI), while the lowest number of errors was attributed to *mistranslations* (0.41% in CG, 0,76% in EG(ST) and 0% in EG(CI), *inappropriate comments* with the same indices as for mistranslations and *approximations* with no errors in CG and EG(ST) and 0,83% in EG(CI) (Figure 2).

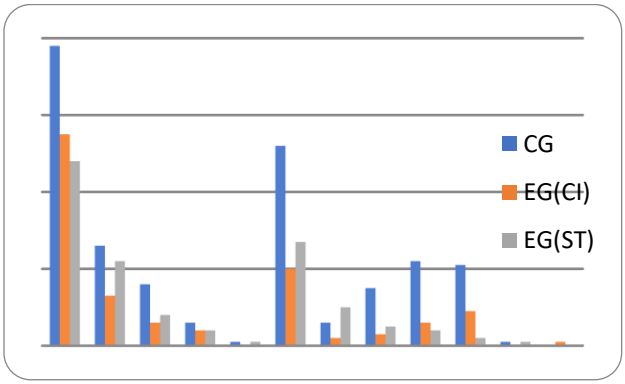

Figure 2. Numerical distribution of errors in EG and CG

The lexical errors produced by the students in the experimental group in ST slightly outnumbered (by 1%) the share of errors identified in the same group in CI and the share of morpho-syntactical errors was 6% higher in

the experimental group in the process of ST compared with the rate of the same types of errors in this group in CI.

As follows, we provide examples that pertain to each category of errors of translation and interpretation. The fragments were extracted from both groups under study and are followed by an analysis that includes explanations from a linguistic and a translation perspective.

Error category	*Source-language unit*	*Translation*
Language mistakes	(1) Messages such as health issues, […], and *other fairly serious subjects*. (2) [...] health issues, *HIV/AIDS*, nutrition, domestic violence, […]. (3) If a viewer can identify with the protagonist, […] Thus, a proper connection is there and the message will get through much more easily than some lesson or finger pointing that never works. And so, the program was shown to wake people up […].	(1) B7EG(ST) – Mesajele, de exemplu, problemele sănătății […] și *alte destul de subiecte serioase*. (2) A4CG – […] problemele sănătății precum violența în familie *virusul HIV* […]. (3) A8CG – Și chiar dacă unele persoane se pot *într-un fel* conecta cu protagoniștii din seriale […] și *într-un fel* se conectează cu acesta. […] Și acest program are ca scop ca să– *într-un fel* ca să trezească oamenii […].

The structure marked in italics in example (1) requires the rearrangement of the words so that it makes a correct and logical expression. The appropriate word order in Romanian would be adjective (*alte*) + noun (*subiecte*) + adverb and preposition (*destule de*) + adjective (*serioase*).

Fragment (2) contains a language mistake associated with linguistic redundancy and is manifested by using the word *"virus"* before the acronym *"HIV"*. The disambiguation of *"HIV" ("human immunodeficiency virus")* already has the word *"virus"* in its structure and therefore, its repetition in *„virusul HIV" (en. "HIV virus")* is pleonastic. A correct expression must be *„infecția cu HIV"*.

In example (3) we emphasize the unwanted effects of fillers or "parasite words". The repeated use of *„într-un fel" (en. "somehow")* is triggered by the difficulty to explain an idea that the student cannot express in enough words. The frequent repetition of such linguistic structures is associated with the limited vocabulary of the speaker, the slow speed of transforming thoughts into words, difficulties of understanding the meaning expressed in the SD.

Lexical errors	(4) Soap operas *appeal* to many people […]. (5) Now, many people, including many friends of mine are totally addicted to *soap operas*. (6) And, behind the scenes, television companies, and governments, and *NGOs*, have all realized that, […].	(4) B3EG(ST) – Telenovelele *apelează la* mulți oameni […]. (5) B5EG(CI) – Mulți oameni inclusiv și prietenii mei sunt (1) dependenți de *operă de săpun*. (6) A5GC – În spatele cortinei [ăă] guvernul și:: ( ) *[am uitat cum o spus] NGOs* au realizat că […].

Fragment (4) contains an example of false analogy – a word or a word combination identical in form in English and Romanian but which has total or partial meaning in these languages. One of these words is *"to appeal to"* that was incorrectly translated into Romanian as *"a apela la"*. A correct translation version is *"a fi pe placul cuiva"*.

The calqued translation of the syntagm *"soap opera"* as *"operă de săpun"* is as hilarious as it is erroneous. The correct version in Romanian is *"telenovelă"* or *"serial"*.

Referring to lexical errors, we should mention the incorrect translation of abbreviations. An eloquent example in this respect is the use of the abbreviated form of *"nongovernmental organisation" ("NGO")* as it appears in English, while there already exists a Romanian correspondent which should have been used, namely *"ONG"*.

Grammatical errors	(7) [...] television companies, and governments, and NGOs, have all realized that, perhaps, television and soap operas in particular can be used to get some serious messages across. (8) UNICEF has been working […] and they have gone together with the local state TV to put on a drama for young people. The drama happens in the capital […]. (9) But I know people who will adapt their schedules in order not to miss an episode.	(7) B1EG(CI)/ B1EG(ST) – Iar adevărul este că televiziunea, *organizația nonguvernamentală* și guvernul consideră că telenovelele, în special, pot transmite un mesaj foarte important. (8) A5CG – […] UNICEF-ul:: *a lucrat* […] pentru a crea un program TV pentru a transmite un mesaj. […] Această telenovelă *a avut loc* în capitala […]. (9) A6CG – Dar eu știu oameni care sunt, care și-*au modificat* agenda pentru a privi telenovele.

Since the original makes reference to the plural of the noun *"nongovernmental organisation"* in example (7) the student-interpreter

should have preserved the same grammatical category of number. The use of the singular of the noun resulted in meaning distortion.

In utterance (8) present perfect continuous and simple present were rendered via past tense in Romanian, while in (9) simple future was transposed via past tense.

Ambiguities	(10) Now, in the US, in Colorado, there is a soap opera that has been shown on *health questions*. In fact, *that* is the actual subject too. (11) If a viewer can identify with the protagonist, with the actor in a series, *that viewer* can almost share the dreams and hopes of such a character and identify with *the character*.	(10) A5CG – Acum în Statele Unite, în Colorado există o *telenovelă* care reprezintă chestiuni legate de sănătate. *Acesta* afectează de asemenea. (11) A6CG – Chiar dacă persoanele vorbesc-- *această persoană* poate manifesta aceleași visuri și:: comportamente ca *acest actor– protagonist*.

The confusion in example (10) presented above is grammatical in nature and resides in the use of the demonstrative pronoun *„aceasta"* without any concrete and clear reference to the noun that it determines *„telenovela"* or *„chestiunile legate de sănătate"*.

The demonstrative adjective *„aceasta"* in the syntagms emphasized in italics in example (11) creates meaning ambiguities because the original does not make reference to any person, be it actor or protagonist.

Mistranslation	(12) Now, many people, including many friends of	(12) A4CG – Mulți oameni sunt *independenți* de seriale.

	mine are totally addicted to soap operas. (13) but it's couched in terms of entertainment […].	(13) B9EG(ST) – Deci programul […] *nu este* formulat în termeni de divertisment […].

The meaning expressed by student A4 in example (12) is radically opposed to the meaning in segment S1 from the original. One of the correct versions for this segment was rendered by student A2CG "Mulți oameni inclusiv unii prieteni de-ai mei sunt total *dependenți* de telenovele".

The verb in utterance (13) should have been conjugated in its affirmative form in order to be true to the original.

Incorrect meaning	(14) Messages such as […] the status of women in *developing countries*, […]. (15) [...] please do not think for one moment that I am addicted to soap operas. I just know of *their existence and so far I have not fallen under the spell*.	(14) B7EG(CI) – Mesajele de exemplu […] statutul femeii în *țările dezvoltate* […]. (15) B4EG(ST) – […] să nu credeți că eu sunt dependent de telenovele. Eu doar cred că *existența lor poate să ducă oamenii într-o că– ca-ca-capcană*.

The semantic error in example (14) lies in the wrong translation of the word combination *"developing countries",* its appropriate equivalent being *"țări în curs de dezvoltare".*

In example (15) the error consists in incorrect translation into Romanian of the expression *„to fall under the spell"* and the introduction of the modal verb *„a putea" (en. "can")* which is missing in the original.

Nonsense	(16) The aim is to increase the number of *children who*	(16) B10EG(ST) – Problema principală este umărul de

	are covered by health insurance. (17) There are other examples too. And I will name one more in Africa, where *UNICEF has been working in Niger and they have gone together with the local state TV* to put on a drama for young people.	*copii care sunt afectați de către-- de către efectele sănătății*. (17) A6CG – Există și alte exemple de asemenea și este un menționăm unul din Africa *unde UNICEF are activat în Nigeria și guvernul local a furnizat să filmeze* o dramă pentru adolescenți.

Utterances (16) and (17) are characterised by partial lack of meaning caused by inappropriate lexical choice and syntax.

Pragmatic errors	(18) […] when I say I know them, please *do not think* […]. *Thank you*. (19) And I will name one more in Africa, *where* UNICEF has been working in Niger and they have gone together with the local state TV to put on a drama for young people.	(18) B1GE(TLV) – […] când spun că știu câteva telenovele *nu te gândi* […] *Vă* mulțumesc. (19) A3GC – Eu voi numi unul în Africa *iar* UNICEF-ul a lucrat împreună cu guvernul Nigeriei pentru a crea o:: un program TV care să– care să transmită (3) să transmită sfaturi pentru persoanele tinere.

In fragment (18) there is an inconsistency with the language register which is expressed by means of switching from the second person singular *„tu”* to the second person plural *„vă”* to show politeness.

In example (19) it can be noticed the incorrect use of the syntactic-pragmatic link word. In order to preserve the semantic relations as in segment S16 from the SD, the student should have used the conjunction *„unde" (en. "where")* that introduces a place clause instead of using the coordinating conjunction *"iar" (en. "but")*.

Additions	(20) But I know people who will adapt their schedules in order not to miss an episode. (21) Soap operas appeal to many people across of any wide spectrum as well, from the intellectually sophisticated to those of little or no formal education at all.	(20) A8CG – Însă știu persoane care își adaptează programul lor *de muncă* ca să nu piardă niciun episod. (21) B5GE(TLV) – Opera de săpun (5) @ apar [îî] !! ~ este bine primită într-un spectru larg de oameni atât cât oameni sofisticați și inteligenți adică intelectuali sofisticați cât și cei (3) care nu au educație deloc *sau cei mici.*

The additions in (20) and (21) are illustrated by words and word combinations that occurred in the translation versions but are missing in the original. Such additions distort the meaning of the utterance.

Omissions	(22) And, behind the scenes, television companies, and governments, *and NGOs, have all realized that, perhaps, television and soap operas in particular can be used to get some serious messages across*.	(22) A5CG – În spatele cortinei [ăă] guvernul și:: ( ) *[am uitat cum o spus]*.

	(23) In the US, in Colorado, *there is a soap opera* that has been shown on health questions. In fact, that is the actual subject too.	(23) A4CG – În Statele Unite Colorado sunt arătate problemele:: sănătății de fapt aceasta fiind o temă actuală.

Fragment (22) contains a case of omission substituted by an inappropriate comment *"[am uitat cum o spus] (en. [I forgot what she said])"*.

Example (23) contains an omission of the channel by means of which the health problems are presented.

Inappropriate comments	(24) Behind the scenes, television companies, and governments, and NGOs, have all realized that, […]. (25) And I will name one more in Africa, where UNICEF has been working in Niger […] so it's a lesson but in a very palatable form […].	(24) A5CG – În spatele cortinei [ăă] guvernul și:: ( ) *[am uitat cum o spus]* NGOs au realizat că […]. (25) B1EG(ST) – Și:: voi num– *[stai]* Aceste lucruri sunt făcute într-o formă mai distractivă […].

Inappropriate comments are shown in examples (24) and (25) in square brackets. Such words and phrases interrupt the fluency and the train of thought of the discourse and are proof of lack of professionalism.

Approximations	(26) and the *plots* include issues […], so it's a lesson but in a very palatable form and this works much better than any school lessons ever do.	(26) B6GE(IC) – acest mesaj este formulat în termeni de divertisment pentru ca oamenii să privească *aceasta* […].

The approximation in example (26) is rendered by the demonstrative pronoun *"aceasta" (en. "this")* that substitutes a concrete noun that should clarify the meaning.

The qualitative and quantitative analysis of students' translation versions showed that students make mistakes and errors in different ways, with language mistakes and semantic errors being the most encountered in both groups and both modes of translation.

Conclusions

Some of the advantages of ST in the process of CI competence acquisition, as stated earlier in the body of this paper, reside in helping students understand the meaning of the source-text, reformulate the message while avoiding lexical transfer and translating without source-text lexical and syntactical interference. From these perspectives, as the results of this experimental study showed, visual interference in ST was more noticeable than audio interference in CI in what lexical aspects are concerned. Nevertheless, applying the ST exercise prior to CI had beneficial effects for students in the EG for the subsequent process and product of CI. The number of lexical, grammatical and semantic errors was substantially lower in the EG(CI) compared with EG(ST) and CG. Also, the numeric distribution of errors in EG(CI) and CG showed a much lower number of errors for all categories.

A suggestion to be made in light of this study would be the conduct of replications of the experiment so that more accurate data and reinforcement of the arguments are obtained.

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Appendix. Source discourse transcription and segmentation

Soap operas - not just a form of entertainment

S1. Now, many people, including many friends of mine are totally addicted to soap operas.

S2. I'm thinking immediately of some of the British series that I know, perhaps, best. Things like Coronation Street and EastEnders.

S3. And now, when I say I know them, please do not think for one moment that I am addicted to soap operas.

S4. I just know of their existence and so far I have not fallen under the spell.

S5. But I know people who will adapt their schedules in order not to miss an episode.

S6. Soap operas appeal to many people across of any wide spectrum as well, from the intellectually sophisticated to those of little or no formal education at all.

S7. And, behind the scenes, television companies, and governments, and NGOs, have all realized that, perhaps, television and soap operas in particular can be used to get some serious messages across.

S8. That might be the best way. Messages such as health issues, HIV/AIDS, nutrition, domestic violence, the status of women in developing countries, and other fairly serious subjects.

S9. If a viewer can identify with the protagonist, with the actor in a series, that viewer can almost share the dreams and hopes of such a character and identify with the character.

S10. Thus, a proper connection is there and the message will get through much more easily than some lesson or finger pointing that never works.

S11. Now, in the US, in Colorado, there is a soap opera that has been shown on health questions. In fact, that is the actual subject too.

S12. The aim is to increase the number of children who are covered by health insurance.

S13. This is a problem because many children are eligible but they don't have any coverage for one reason or another.

S14. 6, S15. but it's couched in terms of entertainment so that people will watch, be interested and nevertheless, pick up a very important message indeed.

S16. There are other examples too. And I will name one more in Africa, where UNICEF has been working in Niger

S17. and they have gone together with the local state TV to put on a drama for young people.

S18. The drama happens in the capital, Niamey, and the plots include issues concerning the danger of HIV/ AIDS, prevention methods,

S19. so it's a lesson but in a very palatable form and this works much better than any school lessons ever do. Thank you.

Vorübungen als Bestandteil der Dolmetschdidaktik

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Abstract

The subject of the paper are preparatory exercises which are an integrated part of the didactics of interpreting and through which students develop competences needed to acquire the interpreting competence. The focus is on selected preparatory exercises which reflect the cognitive-analytical processing of the text, its subsequent production, widening of vocabulary, memory training, splitting of attention etc.

In this paper, we present theoretical definition and classification of preparatory exercises from renowned foreign theoreticians and practitioners in the field of interpreting didactics (S. Kalina, M. J. Heine), while illustrating them by practical examples and suggestions used in the course Basics of Interpreting at the bachelor level of translation studies (language pairs Russian – Slovak, German – Slovak). Particular attention is paid to active listening, reading, semantic analysis of the text, anticipation, paraphrasing, exercises aimed at synonymy and memory training, within which we analyse shadowing and splitting of attention. The paper reflects the importance of integrating preparatory exercises into the learning process of future interpreters since they prepare students for their own interpreting performance and represent one of the fundamental prerequisites for successful acquisition of the interpreting competence.

Einleitung

Der Dolmetscher erbringt zwei Hauptleistungen – „eine Verstehensleistung, gestützt auf spezifische Sprach- und Kulturkompetenz sowie Allgemeinbildung, Hintergrund- und Sachwissen und eine sprecherische Kommunikationsleistung, zusätzlich gestützt auf Redekompetenz und ggf. rasch aktivierbaren Fachwortschatz" (Mack, 2002, 115). Alle diese Kompetenzen erwerben die Studierenden stufenweise während der Dolmetscherausbildung, (während des Studiums des Dolmetschens – Übersetzens), die mehrere Phasen umfasst.

In der Anfangsphase der Dolmetscherausbildung werden sich die Studierenden mit Vorübungen auseinandersetzen, die sie auf das eigentliche Dolmetschen vorbereiten sollen. Sie tragen zum Erwerb der Dolmetschkompetenz bei, obwohl ihr Erfolg meist nur am späteren Leistungsstand der Studierenden festgemacht werden kann.

In unserem Beitrag beschäftigen wir uns mit der Problematik der Übungsformen, die den Studierenden wie auch den beginnenden praktizierenden Dolmetschern von Nutzen sein können. Im Fokus stehen theoretische Abgrenzungen und praktische Beispiele von Vorübungen, die beim Unterricht der Grundlagen des Dolmetschens (in Sprachkombination Russisch-Slowakisch, Deutsch-Slowakisch) im Bachelorstudium am Lehrstuhl für Translationswissenschaft der Philosoph Konstantin-Universität in Nitra (Slowakei) benutzt werden. Im Rahmen des Bachelorstudiengang Dolmetschen und Übersetzen absolvieren die Studierenden im Winter- und Sommersemester des dritten Studienjahres die oben genannten Fächer Grundlagen des Dolmetschens 1; Grundlagen des Dolmetschens 2 (aus dem Russischen) und Dolmetschen 1; Dolmetschen 2 (aus dem Deutschen). Die vorgegebene Stundenzahl pro Fach beträgt wöchentlich 90 Minuten. Die in diesem Beitrag angeführten Vorübungen sind mit eigenen Beispielen belegt und bilden einen regulären Bestandteil des Unterrichts, da sie stufenweise

am Anfang jedes Seminars vor der eigenen Dolmetschleistung praktiziert werden.

Gegenstand der Dolmetschdidaktik

Sylvia Kalina (2000, 162 – 165) unterscheidet im Rahmen der Dolmetschdidaktik mehrere Bereiche, bzw. Aufgaben. Nach ihrer Meinung geht es um die theoretisch fundierte, systematische und methodisch abgesicherte Vermittlung der Wissensbestände, Prozeduren und Kompetenzen, welche für die an Universitäten gelehrten Dolmetscharten nötig sind. Exzellente Sprachkenntnisse, interkulturelle Kompetenz, sehr gute Kenntnisse der Kulturen der Ausgangs- und Zielsprache und Sachwissen gehören nicht zum primären Gegenstand der Dolmetschdidaktik, obwohl sie wichtige Voraussetzungen für einen erfolgreichen Abschluss des Faches Grundlagen des Dolmetschens sind. Im Rahmen des engeren Gegenstandsbereiches der Dolmetschdidaktik geht es um die Fragen des mittlerischen Umgangs mit Texten und Inhalten, ihren Produzenten und Rezipienten. Ebenso geht es um die Anforderungen an die Verstehensleistung, an das Gedächtnis usw.

Beim Dolmetschen oder beim Dolmetschtraining ist ebenfalls die Fähigkeit der kognitiv-analytischen Textverarbeitung wichtig sowie die Fähigkeit zur kohärenten und kommunikativen Textproduktion. Moderne Dolmetschdidaktik (wie auch die moderne Übersetzungsdidaktik) stellt den Dolmetschprozess immer stärker (und nicht nur das Ergebnis des Dolmetschens) in den Vordergrund. Es gibt mehrere Fertigkeiten auf die man sich beim Unterrichten des Dolmetschens konzentrieren kann (vgl. https://www.dolmetscherschule.de/de/ausbildungen/dolmetscher/didaktik-dolmetscherausbildung.html):

- Einarbeiten in ein neues Themengebiet vor dem Dolmetschen (Recherchieren unter hohem Zeitdruck),
- rezeptive Phase des Hörverstehens (Einüben von Fertigkeit Hören und ganzheitlichem Verstehen des Sinns des Gesagten),

- Speichern des Sinns des Verstandenen (Notiztechnik, Gedächtnistraining),
- sinngebende Neuvertextung in der Zielsprache (Assoziieren und nachfolgendes Formulieren durch Paraphrase, Generalisierung und Komprimierung; spontane Bewertung von Relevanz und Redundanz des Gehörten),
- Sprechen (wohlklingendes, deutliches Sprechen vor Publikum durch Stimm- und Atemtraining),
- Bewertung von Dolmetschleistungen (Vollständigkeit und Sinnnähe der Übertragung, sprachliche Qualität, Technik der Selbstbewertung usw.)

Vorübungen zum Dolmetschen aus theoretischer und praktischer Sicht

Für den Erwerb der Dolmetschkompetenz sind laut Kalina (2000, 179-181) mehrere Übungsformen, bzw. Vorübungen geeignet (die Autorin spricht über sog. Teilziele):

1. semantische Analyse des Ausgangstextes (Informationsstrukturierung und –Hierarchisierung): die Studierenden lesen ein Text in schriftlicher Form durch, anschließend sind die wichtigsten Aussagen des Textes zu markieren, dann wird die Textvorlage verdeckt und die Aufgabe der Studierenden ist es, Inhalte in Kurzfassung aus dem Gedächtnis wiederzugeben.

2. Transferkompetenz – derselbe Text wird spontan mündlich übersetzt/verdolmetscht. Eine zusätzliche Herausforderung entsteht, wenn man diese Aufgabe beispielweise mit einer zeitlichen Begrenzung kombiniert.

3. Weitere Teile des Textes sind vom Blatt zu übersetzen, wobei die Studierenden keine Zeit zum Durchlesen haben. In der Ausbildung wird Blattübersetzen (Blattdolmetschen) oft als Vorbereitung zu anderen

Formen, vor allem dem Simultandolmetschen eingesetzt (Agrigoflio, 2004, 43).

4. Antizipation, Inferenzziehung – mittels Textdarbietung auf Folien werden einzelne Textsegmente (ganze Sätze aber auch kleinere Segmente) sichtbar gemacht, wobei die Studierenden diese Segmente spontan verdolmetschen müssen, bevor die nachfolgenden Segmente sichtbar werden. Diese Übung trägt zur Erweiterung der mündlichen Kompetenz bei.

Man kann diese Übung auf vielerlei Arten und Weisen variieren – es kann zum Beispiel ein Text gewählt werden, der im Unterricht verdolmetscht wird. Man betrachtet diese Vorübung als gewisse Vorbereitung auf die eigene Dolmetschsleistung (wenn die Rede kompliziert ist, was vor allem Fachwortschatz oder syntaktischen Konstruktionen betrifft). Wir führen ein Beispiel anhand der Rede von Bundespräsident *Horst Köhler* zur Eröffnung der Jahrestagung des Forums „Demographischer Wandel" im Jahr 2017 „Bildung voll Leben – Leben voll Bildung" an. Bei der Antizipationsübung liest man den Anfang eines Abschnittes und die Studierenden sollen den gewählten Teil des Textes in Bezug auf den Zusammenhang, Kohäsion, grammatische Regeln usw. ergänzen. Es werden mehrere Lösungen von den Studierenden angehört und anschließend wird der Abschnitt im Original vorgelesen. Zum Beispiel – *Trotz jüngster Verbesserungen – und ich freue mich über jede Verbesserung – schneiden die deutschen Schulen bei internationalen Vergleichsstudien wie PISA immer* … (Beendung der Aussage – *noch nur mittelmäßig ab*.); *Wir sind allen Kindern in unserem Land schuldig, dass sie die bestmögliche Vorbereitung auf den Eintritt in die Schule*… (Beendung der Aussage – *erhalten*).

5. Speicherung – für die konkreten Textsegmente wird ein Stichwort festgehalten, auf dessen Basis der Text anschließend in der Ausgangs- oder Zielsprache zu rekonstruieren ist.

Zu den wichtigen Vorübungen gehören auch **das Paraphrasieren und die Notation der Schlüsselwörter**. In diesen Übungen bekommen die Studierenden Karten mit einzelnen Wörtern, die sie durch Synonyme in beiden Sprachen ersetzen sollen (Wrede, Štefčík, 2016). Auf den Karten kann auch der Wortschatz gegeben werden (die Begriffe oder die Wortverbindungen aus dem Text, der verdolmetscht werden soll). Wenn das Thema des Textes beispielweise mit dem Finanzwesen zusammenhängt, so können Wörter, Wortverbindungen und Termini aus eben diesem Bereich auf die Karten geschrieben werden, z.B. *die Geldeinlage, die Inflation, kurzfristiges Darlehen, einen Kredit gewähren* usw. Die Aufgabe der Studierenden ist es, den Begriff (Wortverbindung) auf Deutsch zu erklären, wobei sie den Wortstamm nicht verwenden können/sollen.

Zu den weiteren schnellen und effektiven Übungen der Sinnerfassung des Ausgangstextes gehört **die Zusammenfassung in eigenen Worten**. Diese Übung kann man sowohl in der Ausgangssprache als auch in der Zielsprache durchführen. Der Übungswert einer Zusammenfassung muss sich nicht unbedingt nur auf die Ebene des Fremdsprachenerwerbs beschränken, sondern hat seinen eigenen Wert im Sinne einer Steigerung der Gedächtnisleistung. Der Zusammenhang zwischen Segmentieren, Zusammenfassen und Gedächtnistraining „ergibt sich aus der Repräsentation von Bedeutung im Gedächtnis als Proposition im Sinne der Logik und Linguistik, denn durch Zerlegen in Propositionen wird die Bedeutung eines Ereignisses repräsentiert, während unwichtige Einzelheiten nicht repräsentiert werden" (Kurz 1996, 91, In: Odendahl, 2017, 13).

Im Unterricht kann man verschiedene Modifikationen von Zusammenfassen anwenden – in der Bachelorstufe beginnen wir mit dem Zusammenfassen von kurzen Texten (Aufnahmen) in der Ausgangssprache, später in die Zielsprache. Die Studierenden hören sich zuerst den ganzen Text an und fassen ihn dann mündlich zusammen. Wichtig ist es, dass man die Hauptidee erfassen kann (bei Nachrichten geht es um die Antworten auf

die Grundfragen –was (wer), wo, wann ist geschehen?) und alle überflüssigen Informationen (auf der syntaktischen sowie auf der semantischen Ebene) ausgelassen werden. Auf diese Art und Weise wird die Verallgemeinerung (Generalisierung, Umschreibung) von Informationen geübt.

Diese Typen von Übungen sind für die zukünftigen Dolmetscher besonders wichtig, da mittels dieser zielführend das Verkürzen auf die wichtigsten Informationen trainiert wird.

Man kann verschiedene Variationen von Zusammenfassen durchführen – die Studierenden notieren sich beim Hören des Textes die Schlüsselwörter und anhand dieser reproduzieren sie den Text, wobei man Zusammenfassen eines muttersprachigen Textes (slowakisch) in der Zielsprache (russisch, deutsch) trainieren kann, um die Sprachkompetenz zu entwickeln. Der Schwierigkeitsgrad dieser Übung hängt von den Typen (Thema) des gewählten Textes, Mutter- oder Fremdsprache ab.

Laut Manfred J. Heine (2000, 214) kann man die Übungen, die gewisse Grundfertigkeiten herausbilden können, in zwei Gruppen teilen:

1) Übungen, die schon vor dem Studium des Dolmetschens durchgeführt werden können: verstehendes Hören; Lesen; Sprechen; Gedächtnisübungen; (inhaltlich orientierte) sprachliche Umformübungen,

2) fachspezifische Übungen: Übersetzten vom Blatt; Notationsübungen; Dolmetschübungen.

Heine (2000, 219) betont, dass es besonders wichtig ist, dass die Studierenden erkennen, dass der Inhalt eines Textes in ein- und derselben Sprache mit unterschiedlichen lexikalischen Mitteln und syntaktischer Struktur wiedergegeben werden kann. Sehr effektiv sind **Synonymübungen,** zunächst in der Muttersprache, später in der Fremdsprache (z. B. bilden sie Synonyme für die Wörter *работа, создание, район* usw.) Man kann die Übung auf verschiedene Art und Weise variieren

– ein Synonym nennen, welches aber ein anderes Genus aufweist – Synonyme für das Wort *работа* (im Russischen ist es Femininum, das Synonym im Maskulinum ist *труд* usw.) oder eine synonymische Reihe für ein konkretes Wort (in bestimmter Zeitdauer z.B. 2 Minuten) bilden lassen.

Im Rahmen der Fertigkeit Sprechen spricht Heine (2000, 217) von der sog. **Spiegelmethode.** Beim freien Sprechen (vornehmlich im Stehen) empfiehlt es sich in einen Spiegel zu schauen und zu kontrollieren, wie sich der Redner verhält (Änderungen der Mimik, der Gestik usw.). Man muss den Mut haben, sich selbst anzuschauen und sich eine Frage zu stellen, wie man optisch auf die Zuhörer der Rede (Verdolmetschung) wirkt. Auf diese Art und Weise kann man gut überprüfen, ob man fähig ist, Blickkontakt zum Publikum herzustellen. Da diese Übung im Unterricht nur schwer realisierbar ist, empfiehlt es sich diese Methode selbstständig zu Hause zu trainieren (alternativ könnten beim Unterricht die anderen Studierenden als Spiegel fungieren mittels eines Feedbackbogens).

Gedächtnisübungen

Das Gedächtnis spielt für den Dolmetscher eine wichtige Rolle und er sollte wissen, inwieweit er sich auf sein „Hauptarbeitsinstrument" verlassen kann. Es gibt mehrere Arten, bzw. Gedächtnisübungen, die man beim Unterricht verwenden kann.

Bei Studierenden erweist sich die „Rucksackpack-Methode" (als auch Shadowing-Technik bekannt) als beliebt. Bei dieser Übung geht es darum, dass man wie beim Packen eines Rucksacks nacheinander etwas Neues hinzufügt – es kann ein Wort oder Satz eines kurzen Textes sein. Es wird das erste Wort (Satz) vorgetragen, der Übende wiederholt es, dann wird zweites Wort hinzugefügt, der andere Übende wiederholt das erste und zweite Wort (erste und zweite Satz) usw. (Heine, 2000, 218). Die Studierenden können auf diese Art und Weise beispielweise Kurznachrichten in der Mutter- oder Fremdsprache wiederholen.

Bei der Dolmetscherausbildung werden oft Übungen der Gedächtnis– und Aufmerksamkeitsspaltung eingesetzt, bei diesen sollen sich die Studenten auf zwei verschiedene Tätigkeiten konzentrieren. Wir führen einige Beispiele an: die Studierenden lesen einen geschriebenen Text in der Muttersprache, wobei parallel der zweite Text vom Lehrer laut vorgelesen wird. Die Aufgabe ist es, sich auf beide Texte zu konzentrieren (Aufmerksamkeit „auf Hören und Lesen" spalten zu können) und am Ende die bestimmten Fragen aus beiden Texten mündlich zu beantworten. Man kann es variieren – der erste Text wird in der Muttersprache, der zweite in der Fremdsprache vorgelesen; ein Text wird vorgelesen und die Studierenden üben dazu parallel eine andere Aktivität aus – z.B. Schreiben eines Textes für ein bestimmtes Thema. Am Ende reproduzieren sie die Informationen aus dem gehörten Text und zugleich kontrolliert man, ob der geschriebene Text sinnvoll und grammatisch korrekt ist.

Fazit

Die Vorübungen zum Dolmetschen sind ein wichtiger Bestandteil der Dolmetscherausbildung und tragen dazu bei, die Studierenden auf die eigene Dolmetschleistung vorzubereiten. Man sollte ihre Bedeutung im Rahmen der Dolmetschdidaktik und beim Unterrichtsprozess nicht unterschätzen, da sie in der ersten Phase des Bachelorstudiums ein relevantes Mittel zum Erwerb der Grunddolmetschkompetenz darstellen. Mit Hilfe der oben genannten Vorübungen entwickelt sich bei den Studierenden die Fähigkeit der kognitiv-analytischen Textverarbeitung, sowie die Fähigkeit zur kohärenten und kommunikativen Textproduktion, welche wichtig bei allen Arten von Dolmetschen sind. Bei Studierenden der Translatologie entwickelt sich zugleich die Sprachkompetenz und es erweitert sich die Gedächtniskapazität. Zu den häufig genutzten und effektiven Übungen gehören die semantische Analyse des Textes, verstehendes Hören, Lesen, Sprechen, die Antizipation, das Paraphrasieren, das Zusammenfassen, die Synonymübungen, Gedächtnisübungen und andere. Die Erfolgreiche Bewältigung dieser „Grundübungen" und später

auch der fachspezifischen Übungen ist bei Studierenden eine wichtige Voraussetzung für den Erwerb der Dolmetschkompetenz sowie für die nachfolgende Entwicklung dieser.

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Der EMT-Kompetenzrahmen und seine methodischen Anwendungsmöglichkeiten in der Übersetzerausbildung

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Abstract

The EMT Competence Framework can be seen as an appropriate methodical instrument for the teacher helping him/her to explain the relevance of particular competencies and skills in translation and suporting evaluation/selfevaluation in the translation process. The paper shows examples of practical use of the EMT Competence Framework from 2017 in university translation seminars. The author focuses on supporting the personal, interpersonal and technology competence, organisation skills and creative potential in translation seminars and offers possible didactic applications of the model using team work and students` translation team projects – students` magazines as a result of training of particular competences, e.g. information mining, organisation, management, coordination activities of the students of Department of Translation Studies, Faculty of Arts, Constantine the Philosopher University in Nitra, Slovakia. The aim of the paper is to show the benefits of utilisation of the EMT Competence Framework in the training, not only for the students, but also for the teacher.

European Masters in Translation

Europäische Kommission definiert das EMT-Label als ein Gütezeichen für Masterstudiengänge im Bereich Übersetzen, das von der GD Übersetzung der Europäischen Kommission Hochschulprogrammen verliehen wird, die

gemeinsam vereinbarten beruflichen Standards und Markterfordernissen genügen (EMT, 2017).

Das Hauptziel von EMT ist die Verbesserung der Qualität der Übersetzerausbildung zur Erleichterung des Berufseinstiegs für Absolventinnen/Absolventen.

Ein langfristiges Ziel ist es dabei, durch die Ausbildung hoch qualifizierter Übersetzer/innen in enger Zusammenarbeit mit der Sprachindustrie im Rahmen des EMT den Status des Übersetzerberufs in der EU aufzuwerten.

Das EMT-Netz setzt sich u.a. für folgende Ziele ein:

- Förderung eines Gütesiegels für die Abschlüsse der Masterstudiengänge
- größerer Bekanntheitsgrad des Studiengangs
- Aufbau von Kooperationsbeziehungen
- Kompetenz- und Ressourcenteilung zur Schärfung des Profils der EMT-Mitglieder
- Beteiligung am EMT-Forum über Kompetenzen, Kriterien, Ressourcen, Verfahren und Anforderungen (ebd.)

Als einzige slowakische Einrichtung erlangte der Lehrstuhl für Translationswissenschaft an der Philosophischen Fakultät der Philosoph Konstantin-Universität in Nitra im Jahr 2011 die Mitgliedschaft in dem EMT-Netz. Seit 2019 hat der Lehrstuhl sogar seine Vertretung im EMT-Rat.

EMT-Kompetenzrahmen

Franz Weinert hat 1999 bezüglich des Termins *Kompetenz* folgende Begriffsvarianten unterschieden:

1. Kompetenzen als allgemeine intellektuelle Fähigkeiten im Sinne von Dispositionen, die eine Person befähigen, in sehr unterschiedlichen Situationen anspruchsvolle Aufgaben zu meistern

2. Kompetenzen als funktional bestimmte, auf bestimmte Klassen von Situationen und Anforderungen bezogene kognitive Leistungsdispositionen, die sich psychologisch als Kenntnisse, Fertigkeiten, Strategien, Routinen oder auch bereichsspezifische Fähigkeiten beschreiben lassen

3. Kompetenz im Sinne motivationaler Orientierungen, die Voraussetzungen sind für die Bewältigung anspruchsvoller Aufgaben

4. Handlungskompetenz als Begriff, der die ersten drei genannten Kompetenzkonzepte umschließt und jeweils auf die Anforderungen und Aufgaben eines bestimmten Handlungsfeldes, zum Beispiel eines Berufes, bezieht

5. Metakompetenzen als Wissen, Strategien oder auch Motivationen, die Erwerb und Anwendung von Kompetenzen in verschiedenen Inhaltsbereichen erleichtern

6. Schlüsselkompetenzen, d. h. Kompetenzen im oben unter Punkt 2 definierten funktionalen Sinne, die über eine vergleichsweise breite Spanne von Situationen und Aufgabenstellungen hinweg einsetzbar sind. Weinert zählt hierzu unter anderem muttersprachliche und mathematische Kenntnisse und Fertigkeiten sowie die Inhalte einer basalen Allgemeinbildung (In: Klieme, 2004, S. 10)

Eine Kompetenz ist auch laut OECD mehrschichtiger als nur Wissen und kognitive Fähigkeiten. Es geht um die Fähigkeit der Bewältigung komplexer Anforderungen, indem in einem bestimmten Kontext psychosoziale Ressourcen (einschließlich kognitive Fähigkeiten, Einstellungen und Verhaltensweisen) herangezogen und eingesetzt werden (OECD, 2005).

Im Mittelpunkt des EMT-Projekts steht der von europäischen Sachverständigen erstellte EMT-Kompetenzrahmen, der die grundlegenden

Kompetenzen definiert, die Übersetzer/innen benötigen, um auf dem heutigen Markt bestehen zu können. Immer mehr Hochschulen – auch außerhalb der EU – orientieren sich bei der Gestaltung ihrer Lehrprogramme am EMT-Modell (EMT, 2017).

Mit dem aktuellen EMT-Kompetenzrahmen soll die Beschäftigungsfähigkeit der Absolventen von Masterstudiengängen im Fach Übersetzen europaweit gefestigt und verbessert werden.

Abb. 1 European Master's in Translation - Kompetenzrahmen

Das EMT-Netzwerk hat seinen Referenzrahmen für Übersetzer-undÜbersetzungskompetenzen mit dem EMT-Kompetenzrad erstmals 2009 veröffentlicht. Mittlerweile ist der Rahmen in der gesamten Europäischen Union und darüber hinaus zu einem der wichtigsten Maßstäbe für Übersetzerausbildung und Übersetzungskompetenzen geworden, und das sowohl in akademischen Kreisen als auch in der Sprachindustrie (EMT-Kompetenzrahmen, 2017).

Angesichts der Veränderungen, sowohl in der Sprachindustrie als auch an den europäischen Universitäten, spürte man den Bedarf, den Kompetenzrahmen zu überdenken.

So wie in vielen Bereichen des beruflichen Lebens, wird auch in der Übersetzungsbranche die Art und Weise, wie Leistungen erbracht werden, zunehmend durch den technologischen Wandel beeinflusst. Allerdings sind nach wie vor kognitive Leistungen des Menschen, seine Intelligenz, Kenntnisse und Fertigkeiten die ausschlaggebenden Faktoren für Qualitätsübersetzungen und für die wachsende Palette an Sprachdienstleistungen, die Übersetzer und Übersetzungsunternehmen anbieten. Die Anforderungen des Marktes haben sich ebenfalls weiterentwickelt. Englisch als Lingua franca hat eine zunehmende Verbreitung erfahren und somit eine neue Nachfrage geschaffen, die in einigen Umfeldern und Regionen nur durch die Umkehrung des traditionellen „Muttersprache"-Prinzips befriedigt werden kann (ebd.).

Gleichzeitig haben künstliche Intelligenz und soziale Medien das Verhältnis der Menschen

zur Kommunikation allgemein und natürlich auch zur Übersetzung erheblich verändert: Maschinelle Übersetzung und andere Sprachtechnologien sind heute weitverbreitet. Das schlägt sich sukzessive im Übersetzungsprozess und auf vielen Übersetzungsmärkten nieder und hat die Wahrnehmung der Übersetzung sowohl durch Studierende und Absolventen von Übersetzungsstudiengängen als auch in der breiten Öffentlichkeit verändert. Solche technologischen und gesellschaftlichen Veränderungen müssen in der akademischen Übersetzerausbildung berücksichtigt und wiederspiegelt werden, damit zukünftige Absolventen sich der damit verbundenen Herausforderungen und Chancen bewusst werden und ihre Fertigkeiten und Vorgehensweisen entsprechend ausrichten und anpassen können (ebd.).

2016 wurde daher der EMT-Rat beauftragt, einen neuen EMT-Kompetenzrahmen zu erarbeiten und dabei vor allem die Beschäftigungsfähigkeit künftiger Absolventen im Fokus zu behalten. Der neue Referenzrahmen sollte zum einen den Gründungsprinzipien des EMT-Netzwerkes folgen und zum anderen die Kernkompetenzen und Fertigkeiten umfassen, über die künftige Absolventen von Übersetzungsstudiengängen verfügen sollen.

In dem EMT-Kompetenzrahmen werden fünf Hauptkompetenzbereiche definiert:

- SPRACHE UND KULTUR (TRANSKULTURELLES UND SOZIOLINGUISTISCHES BEWUSSTSEIN UND KOMMUNIKATIVE FÄHIGKEITEN) - Diese Kompetenz umfasst alle allgemeinen oder sprachbezogenen linguistischen, soziolinguistischen, kulturellen und transkulturellen Kenntnisse und Fertigkeiten, welche die Grundlage für eine hohe Übersetzungskompetenz bilden. Sie ist die Triebkraft hinter allen anderen hier beschriebenen Kompetenzen.

- ÜBERSETZEN (STRATEGISCHE, METHODISCHE UND THEMATISCHE KOMPETENZ) - Sie ist im weitesten Sinne zu verstehen und bezieht sich nicht nur auf den Bedeutungstransfer zwischen zwei Sprachen (auch über Relaissprachen), sondern umfasst darüber hinaus alle strategischen, methodischen und thematischen Kompetenzen, die vor, während und nach der eigentlichen Transferphase ins Spiel kommen – von der Textanalyse bis zur abschließenden Qualitätskontrolle.

- TECHNOLOGIE (WERKZEUGE UND ANWENDUNGEN) - Diese Kompetenz umfasst alle Kenntnisse und Fertigkeiten, die bei der Anwendung gegenwärtiger und künftiger Übersetzungstechnologien im Übersetzungsprozess zum Einsatz kommen. Dazu gehören auch Grundkenntnisse der MÜ-Technologien und die Fähigkeit, die maschinelle Übersetzung bedarfsorientiert einzusetzen.

- PERSÖNLICHE UND INTERPERSONELLE KOMPETENZ - Dieser Kompetenzbereich umfasst all jene allgemeinen Fertigkeiten, die häufig als „Soft Skills" bezeichnet werden und die die Anpassungsfähigkeit und dieBeschäftigungsfähigkeit der Absolventen verbessern.

- DIENSTLEISTUNGSKOMPETENZ - Diese Kompetenz erstreckt sich auf alle Fertigkeiten im Zusammenhang mit der Ausführung der Übersetzung und generell der professionellen Erbringung von Sprachendienstleistungen – von Kundenorientierung und Verhandlungsführung bis hin zu Projektmanagement und Qualitätssicherung (ebd.).

Der Kompetenzrahmen definiert zugleich pädagogisch-psychologische Termini, die mit der Übersetzerausbildung eng zusammenhängen, wie Kompetenz, Fertigkeiten, Kenntnisse und Lernergebnisse.

Die Anwendungsmöglichkeiten von dem EMT-Kompetenzrahmen innerhalb des Bachelorstudiums

Obwohl das Kompetenzmodell das ideale Profil eines Absolventen des Masterstudiengangs beschreibt, vertreten wir die Meinung, dass es sehr wohl seine methodische und didaktische Anwendung auch innerhalb niedrigerer Stufen der Übersetzerausbildung findet:

Im Rahmen des Bachelorstudiums am Lehrstuhl für Translationswissenschaft der Philosoph-Konstantin Universität in Nitra absolvieren die Studierenden einige theoretische und praktische Disziplinen, die unmittelbar mit Übersetzung zusammenhängen:

- Übersetzungsanalyse
- Einführung in die Übersetzung
- Übersetzung 1
- Übersetzung 2

- Übersetzung von literarischen Texten
- Übersetzung und Computer
- Übersetzung von publizistischen Texten

Die Anordnung der Seminare im Studienplan respektiert die Orientierung von der Vermittlung theoretischer Kenntnisse bezüglich des Übersetzungsprozesses, über praktisches Üben einzelner mehr oder weniger isolierten Übersetzungsfertigkeiten, bis zum Training von höheren, komplexen Fertigkeiten und ihren Kombinationen.

Im dritten Studienjahr des Bachelorstudiums, also in einem relativ fortgeschrittenen Stadium, in dem die Studierenden bereits über eine theoretische Basis verfügen und gleichzeitig schon die ersten praktischen Übersetzungsseminare absolvierten, können sie das fakultative Seminar Übersetzung von publizistischen Texten (ÜPT) wählen.

Im Folgenden schildern wir einen Erfahrungsbericht, der darstellen soll, inwiefern den Studierenden ein komplexes Training von unterschiedlichen Kompetenzen im Sinne des EMT-Kompetenzrahmen angeboten werden kann.

Im Rahmen des Seminars ÜPT sollen die Studierenden während eines Seminars in Teamarbeit eine Zeitschrift kreieren. Innerhalb der ersten Unterrichtseinheit (90 Minuten) verteilen sich die Studierenden in Gruppen (je 2 – 3 Mitglieder). Innerhalb der jeweiligen Gruppe wird der Titel der Zeitschrift und ihr Gesamtkonzept gewählt, die thematische Orientierung und die Zielgruppe festgelegt, das Layout und die graphische Darstellung besprochen usw. In den am Anfang zusammengestellten Teams wird anschließend jede Woche (insgesamt 12 Wochen pro Semester) eine neue Ausgabe der Zeitschrift im Umfang von 3 Normseiten kreiert. Obligatorische Bestandteile jeder Ausgabe sind ein Leitartikel (in der slowakischen Sprache) und ein Übersetzungstext (aus dem Deutschen ins Slowakische), die auch graphisch angemessen verarbeitet werden sollen. Der

Übersetzungstext muss dabei nicht völlig getreu den Ausgangstext (bezüglich seiner Länge oder Struktur) kopieren. Die Übersetzer können sich auch für eine gekürzte Fassung des Originaltextes entscheiden, konkrete Textstellen wählen, oder auch einen Zieltext aus mehreren Ausgangstexten zusammensetzen. Die Studierenden vertreten in den Teams folgende Funktionen/ Rollen:

1. Chefredakteur/in (verfasst den Leitartikel, ist zugleich der Korrektor/in des Übersetzungstextes und ist für die Qualität der aktuellen Ausgabe verantwortlich)

2. Redakteur/in (hat die Rolle des Übersetzers/der Übersetzerin, wählt und übersetzt den Text bzw. die Texte, der/ die den Inhalt der aktuellen Ausgabe bildet/ bilden)

3. Techniker/in (ist für die technische und graphische Verarbeitung der aktuellen Ausgabe zuständig).

Einzelne Funktionen in den Teams wechseln sich ab, d.h. jede Woche hat ein konkreter Student/ Studentin eine andere Rolle, einen anderen Zuständigkeitsbereich und mit ihm verbundene Aufgaben.

Eine derartige Konzeption des Seminars unterscheidet sich von den „klassischen" Übersetzungsseminaren, innerhalb derer in der Regel der Seminarleiter/ die Seminarleiterin die Ausgangstexte, die von den Studierenden individuell zu übersetzen sind, vorgibt, in mehreren Aspekten (siehe Tabelle 1). Das Seminar Übersetzung von publizistischen Texten ist spezifisch u. a. hinsichtlich des Übersetzungsauftrags, des potenziellen Empfängers, der Arbeitsweise, der Stufen der Übersetzungskontrolle, des Feedbacks oder der Aufgabe des Seminarleiters/ der Seminarleiterin.

Die Wahl der Texte, die jede Woche für die jeweilige Ausgabe der Zeitschrift übersetzt werden, liegt in der Zuständigkeit des Teams und soll thematisch mit dem Konzept der Zeitschrift korrespondieren und gleichzeitig die hypothetischen Leser (potentielle Empfänger) berücksichtigen.

Die wöchentliche Ausgabe der Zeitschrift ist dann ein Ergebnis der Teamarbeit, wobei jedes Mitglied seine eigenen Aufgaben und Zuständigkeiten hat.

Die Qualitätskontrolle vor der Abgabe erfolgt mehrstufig: zuerst wird der Text von dem Übersetzer selbst, anschließend von dem Chefredakteur überprüft. Bei Unstimmigkeiten kann sich das ganze Team beraten. In diesem Stadium bekommt der Übersetzer zugleich auch das erste Feedback. Nach der Abgabe wird Feedback auch von einer kleinen Gruppe von Lesern (Seminarteilnehmer) und dem Seminarleiter/ der Seminarleiterin gegeben. Mit Einverständnis der Teams werden die Zeitschriften auch in sozialen Netzwerken bzw. auf der Webseite des Lehrstuhls veröffentlicht, wodurch weitere Möglichkeiten der Qualitätsbewertung entstehen.

Die Rolle des Seminarleiters verschiebt sich dabei von dem Auftraggeber zum Prozessbegleiter, Konsultanten, Mediator (berät bei Unklarheiten, vermittelt bei Auseinandersetzungen in den Teams, schlichtet Konflikte usw.).

Tab. 1 Unterschiede zwischen den „klassischen" Übersetzungsseminaren und der ÜPT

Die beschriebene Komplexität der Translationsaufgaben ermöglicht es, innerhalb des Seminars viele Fertigkeiten bzw. Kompetenzen, wie sie in dem EMT-Kompetenzrahmen definiert und beschrieben werden, zu trainieren.

Die Kompetenz im Bereich Sprache und Kultur (transkulturelles und soziolinguistisches Bewusstsein und kommunikative Fähigkeiten) wird implizit und/ oder explizit in allen Übersetzungsveranstaltungen entwickelt. Dabei erwerben und entwickeln die Studierenden Kompetenzen in der Ausgangs- sowie der Zielsprache, stilistische Fertigkeiten, sie werden mit

Sprachnormen und -konventionen einzelner Arbeitssprachen konfrontiert und in unserem konkreten Fall werden sie mit den Spezifika von publizistischen Texten bekannt gemacht. Dieser Kompetenzbereich ist also während dem Translationsauftrag als allgegenwärtig zu betrachten.

Im Rahmen der Kompetenz Übersetzen (strategische, methodische und thematische Kompetenz) kommt es im Sinne des EMT-Modells vor allem zur Entwicklung folgender Aspekte:

1 einen Ausgangstext zu analysieren, potenzielle textuelle und kognitive Schwierigkeiten

zu erkennen und einzuschätzen, welche Strategien und Ressourcen für eine adäquate,

den Kommunikationserfordernissen entsprechende Übertragung erforderlich sind

2 schnell und exakt schriftlich und/oder mündlich

zusammenzufassen, umzuformulieren, umzustrukturieren, anzupassen und zu kürzen

3 Relevanz und Zuverlässigkeit von Informationsquellen für die

Übersetzungserfordernisse zu beurteilen

4 sich übersetzungsrelevantes themen- und bereichsspezifisches Wissen

anzueignen, es zu erweitern und zu nutzen (Beherrschung von Begriffssystemen,

Argumentationsmethoden, Präsentationsstandards, Terminologie und Phraseologie,

Fachquellen usw.)

5 für eine Übersetzung relevante Anweisungen, Leitfäden oder Konventionen zu befolgen

6 allgemeines und bereichsspezifisches Material eines oder mehrerer Fachgebiete

bedarfsgerecht in die Zielsprache zu übertragen

7 unterschiedliches Material auf unterschiedlichen und für unterschiedliche Trägermedien

mit geeigneten Werkzeugen und Techniken zu übersetzen

8 in spezifischen interkulturellen Kontexten übersetzen und vermitteln zu können

9 in einer oder mehreren ihrer Arbeitssprachen skoposgerechte Texte unter

Berücksichtigung von spezifischen Gegebenheiten, Adressaten und Vorgaben zu verfassen

10 ihre übersetzerischen Lösungen und Entscheidungen unter Verwendung der geeigneten

Metasprache und Anwendung geeigneter theoretischer Ansätze zu analysieren und zu begründen

11 eigene Arbeit oder die Anderer nach projektspezifischen oder standardisierten

Qualitätsvorgaben einer Überprüfung, dem Korrekturlesen und/oder einer Revision

zu unterziehen

12 Qualitätskontrollstrategien zu verstehen und mit geeigneten Werkzeugen und

Techniken anzuwenden (vgl. EMT-Kompetenzrahmen, 2017).

Um die aufgetragenen Aufgaben im Seminar zu meistern, wird von den Studenten verlangt, die technologische Kompetenz zu benutzen und zu

entwickeln, und zwar vor allem folgende Aspekte der Kompetenz Technologie (Werkzeuge und Anwendungen):

1 die wichtigsten IT-Anwendungen zu nutzen, einschließlich der gesamten Bürosoftware-Palette, und sich schnell mit neuen Werkzeugen und IT-Ressourcen vertraut zu machen

2 Dateien und andere Medien/Quellen, beispielsweise Video- und Multimedia-Dateien, als Teil der Übersetzung vorzubereiten, zu verarbeiten und zu verwalten und Webtechnologien einzusetzen

3 grundsätzlich mit MÜ umzugehen, d. h. sie beherrschen die Grundlagen und kennen die Auswirkungen auf den Übersetzungsprozess

4 andere Werkzeuge einzusetzen, die Sprach- und Übersetzungstechnologie unterstützen (vgl. EMT-Kompetenzrahmen, 2017).

Eine effektive Teamarbeit verlangt den Studierenden auch spezifische persönliche Voraussetzungen ab. Im Rahmen der persönlichen und interpersonellen Kompetenz sollen sich die Studierenden daher folgende Fähigkeiten und Fertigkeiten aneignen und entwickeln:

1 Zeitmanagement, Stressbelastung und Arbeitsaufwand zu planen bzw. zu bewältigen

2 Fristen einzuhalten und Anweisungen und Spezifikationen zu befolgen

3 im Team, ggf. auch in einer virtuellen und mehrsprachigen Umgebung unter Nutzung aktueller Kommunikationstechnologien zu arbeiten

4 soziale Medien für berufliche Zwecke verantwortungsbewusst zu nutzen

5 die organisatorische und physische Ergonomie des Arbeitsumfelds zu beachten und anzupassen

6 sich selbst kontinuierlich zu beurteilen und ihre Kompetenzen und Fertigkeiten durch persönliche Strategien und kollaboratives Lernen auf dem neuesten Stand zu halten und

weiterzuentwickeln (vgl. EMT-Kompetenzrahmen, 2017).

Auch in einem Seminar des Bachelorstudiums ist das Training der Dienstleistungskompetenz möglich, indem sich die Studierenden folgender Aspekte bewusstwerden und sie entwickeln:

1 den Bedarf sowie Ziele und Intentionen des Kunden, der Adressaten der Sprachdienstleistungen und anderer Akteure klar zu erkennen und entsprechend geeignete Leistungen anzubieten

2 Übersetzungsprojekte mit einem oder mehreren Übersetzern und/oder sonstigen Dienstleistern zu organisieren und zu managen

3 die für die Erbringung einer Sprachdienstleistung geltenden Normen zu

verstehen und anzuwenden

4 Qualitätsmanagement- und Qualitätssicherungsverfahren anzuwenden, die notwendig sind, um vorgegebene Qualitätsstandards zu erfüllen (vgl. EMT-Kompetenzrahmen, 2017).

Fazit

Zusammenfassend lässt sich festhalten, dass auch die Studierenden des Bachelorstudiums nach den sog. klassischen Übersetzungsseminaren auf ein komplexeres Fertigkeitstraining im Sinne des EMT-Kompetenzrahmens vorbereitet sind und sich diesen zu Nutze machen können.

Die relative Freiheit bei der Wahl des Konzepts der Zeitschrift und der damit zusammenhängenden Themen und Texte und die Möglichkeit, den (Übersetzungs-) Text, sowie seine graphische Gestaltung, kreativ zu bearbeiten, die eigenen Gedanken selbst als Autor in dem Leitartikel zum Ausdruck bringen zu können etc. sind zudem für die Studierenden ein großer Motivationsfaktor, der die Arbeit an den Aufgaben erleichtert.

Es gibt jedoch auch spezifische Herausforderungen, denen sich die Studierenden (in Kooperation und Interaktion mit der Lehrperson) oft

stellen müssen bzw. sollen. Zu den Herausforderungen, die (bei guter Anweisung seitens der Lehrkraft) relativ gut und schnell zu bewältigen sind, gehört vor allem das Einhalten von Fristen innerhalb des Teams, sowie z. B. die Ethik des Zitierens und der Quellenbenutzung bei Bearbeitung verschiedener Unterlagen.

Längerfristig problematisch bzw. herausfordernd ist oft vor allem die Zusammenarbeit im Team, in dem jedes Mitglied für seine Aufgaben zuständig ist und Verantwortung für das Ergebnis in dem jeweiligen Bereich trägt. Es ist für die Studierenden vor allem am Anfang des Semesters einerseits oft nicht einfach, Verantwortung zu übernehmen und anschließend eventuelle Kritik ihrer Arbeit zu ertragen, andererseits fällt es einigen Studierenden wiederum schwer, Verantwortung an andere Teammitglieder abzugeben und nicht das entscheidende Wort zu haben.

Mit allen erwähnten Situationen hängt das Stichwort „effektive Kommunikation im Team" zusammen. Die Herausforderungen liegen dabei sowohl in der persönlichen (z. B. bei Teambesprechungen) als auch in der elektronischen (Eingriffe in die übersetzten Texte, Korrekturen usw.) Kommunikation und das sowohl auf der zwischenmenschlichen als auch auf der beruflichen Ebene. Wichtige Themen hierbei sind unter anderem auch konstruktive Kritik und der Umgang mit ihr.

Eine passend gewählte Konzeption kann dann nicht nur für die Studierenden bereichernd sein, indem sie ihnen hilft, Übersetzerkompetenzen zu erwerben und diese gezielt zu entwickeln, sie bereichert auch die Lehrperson, die außer ihrer Rolle als Auftraggeber/-in und Bewerter/-in der Übersetzung auch die Aufgaben des Prozessbegleiters, Beraters, Beobachters, ggf. auch eines Psychologen übernimmt.

Obwohl es sich bei der vorliegenden Beschreibung lediglich um einen Erfahrungsbericht handelt, vertreten wir den Standpunkt, dass der EMT-Kompetenzrahmen der Lehrperson ein geeignetes Mittel für die methodische Gestaltung eines Übersetzungsseminars bietet.

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Review 1: Innovating Teaching and Learning (2013)

Reviewed by Jana Ukušová

The publication *Innovating Teaching and Learning* (2013) by Ľudmila Adamová and Petra Murániková (eds.) brings together eleven authors, mostly young researches/teachers and PhD candidates, from different Slovak universities and various fields of academic research. All of the contributions revolve around the central topic – teaching challenges and the ways to overcome them based on applying innovations. The authors present the real challenges they came across during classes they taught (lack of student motivation, differences in student skills and participation in class, inability to see the interconnection of theory and practice etc.), the applied models & methods of teaching and effectiveness of the obtained results.

The work is structured into 5 sections based on the given subtheme which helps the reader to gain an insight into the discussed issues and to easily navigate through the book. The first section intitled *Improving Student Pre-class Preparation* consists of three contributions. It opens with the chapter by Ľudmila Adamová who applied the so-called method of just-in-time teaching (jitt) in order to encourage student's regular pre-preparation for the course Contemporary English Language, a part of study programme in Translation Studies. In the next chapter, the issue of pre-class preparation is approached from a different perspective by Marek Živčák. The author uses the e-learning tool of self-scoring quizzes so that students gain general information on the discussed topics out of the class and participate more actively in class (seminar on Physiology of Plants). These two chapters are complemented by the paper of Katarína Hrnčiarová who presents her method to resolve the same issue, more precisely the use of blog assignments in philosophy class in order to stimulate students' pre-class preparation through essays making students think about the discussed questions and defend their lines of reasoning.

The second section focuses on challenges in *teaching large classes*. Petra Murániková shares her experience gained when teaching the course Bachelor Thesis Seminar. She applied the method of blended learning, combining face-to-face methods in class and computer-mediated activities, to enhance students' motivation and to ensure their systematic progress with their bachelor theses. The next author, Peter Dzurjaník, discusses the challenge in teaching the course The Pillars of the European Civilization, attended by nearly 90 students. The author decided to apply the method of problem-solving class, consisting of assigning open-ended questions to groups of students.

In the third section, the issues related to *teaching courses rich in complex terminology* are being discussed. The first chapter of this section by Adriana Boleková deals with enhancing learning through the means of mnemonics and stimulation of imagination (creativity) in the course on anatomy. In the following chapter, Martina Lučkaničová discusses the use of different sorts of games to enhance students' active learning in class (course on financial investments).

The section 4 *Enhancing Student Abilities of Theory Application* consists of the chapter by Anna Valušová who describes the method of assuring interconnection of theory and practice in teaching economics through the means of worksheets.

The last section on *Making Assessment an Effective Tool for Student Learning* comprises two chapters. The first chapter is authored by Terézia Repáňová who discusses the change of assessment criteria according to Bloom's taxonomy in order to innovate traditional assessment criteria in the course Urban and Cultural Tourism. Then, Miroslava Petáková provides reflections on the use of new, more effective assignments, exercises and homework aimed at improving students' skills in academic writing. The concluding chapter summarizes the challenges presented in the book as well as possible methods to successfully overcome them.

The publication serves as a valuable source of information as well as encouragement for young teachers, PhD candidates and other professionals from the teaching field who find themselves at the beginning of their teaching career and may struggle with similar or even the very same challenges as those presented in this work. It promotes truly student-oriented methods of teaching, aimed at stimulating students' motivation, interest in the subject matter and development of their skills at various levels.

Review 2: On Selected Aspects of Languages for Special Purposes by Elena Nikolajová – Kupferschmidtová, Pavol Štubňa and Alexandra Kučmová – Lenzi

Reviewed by Mária Koscelníková

The ability to speak foreign languages connects us with the people we otherwise could not be able to communicate with. There are specific situations like legal communication or politics when we need to rely on translation or interpreting, the accuracy of which is crucial. Translators and interpreters often face special circumstances or purposes that put them into difficult position. The responsibility to transfer accurate information forces them to face certain aspects of language that require careful attention in order to transfer them. The authors of this monograph understand the necessity to talk about these aspects and discuss the difficult task the translators and interpreters have. The authors decided to focus on two different professional sectors — legislation and politics, and two different rendering modalities — translation and interpreting.

The first part of the monograph is dedicated to European legal language and translation and consists of two chapters. The first chapter of the monograph discusses the hybridity of EU legal texts/documents being translated into Slovak. The authors depict the process of creation of EU legal documents and its impact on translation. Since the European Union groups 28 different cultures, authors from different cultures participate in the creation of the documents and there is high probability of implementing national or cultural elements into the EU legal documents as well as their translations. The authors discuss the phenomenon of EU legal language or so-called Eurospeak that introduces new meanings of various terms established in the respective cultures that originated due to the involvement

of drafters, lawyers-linguists and translators being from different cultures causing the hybridity of the text.

On the example of Danube Region strategy documents and water legislation, the authors pointed out different translations of same terms occurring during the process called consensus building as a result of drafting documents on multinational level. Since the documents elaborated in the EU shall comply with four levels – national, regional, European and international, translators have to take this into consideration during their decision-making process as well as the function of the text.

In the second chapter, the authors add intercultural aspect of hybrid texts. Eurospeak created by lawyers-linguists provides unambiguous versions of rather ambiguous terms on national level. The authors highlight supranationality that must be implemented during translations in order to avoid misinterpretation and ambiguity. The authors bring the notion of national language being adapted to the EU context. Hybrid legal texts are the result of translation as intercultural communication. The authors discuss the choices of translator conditioned by national as well as EU legal system. Translator has to achieve hard task and the drafters have to bear in mind the understandability by all European citizens.

The second part of the monograph consists of three chapters and introduces the language of politics and interpretation. The authors introduce the specifics of political speeches and political discourse, while discussing important and less important aspects the interpreter considers during the interpretation. On the example of the speeches of Italian political representatives, the authors firstly discuss extralinguistic and linguistic aspects of delivery regarding Italian environment that the interpreters must consider. The authors mention specific lexis of Italian deliveries as well as the history and current state of Italian political language. On the example of Italian political representatives, the authors discuss leadership strategies

implemented in the delivery of leading Italian politicians and challenges of such deliveries that the interpreters have to overcome. The authors conclude with the importance of knowing background information about the speakers that enable the interpreter to provide more comfortable interpretation.

The penultimate chapter of this monograph presents a case study in translation equivalence when interpreting from Italian into Slovak. The students of 4th and 5th grade of the Comenius University in Bratislava, Slovakia in the field of translation and interpreting with the working languages Slovak, English and Italian were systematically trained to interpret discourses with journalistic style resulting in the model conference. The authors introduce speeches used during the preparatory stage of the model conference and monitor frequent problems occurring when interpreting from Italian to Slovak. The results support the importance of using simulated conferences as a didactic method in order to automatize used strategies. Regarding the Italian language, the author also points out the importance of Italian rhetoric that also must be considered.

In the last chapter, the authors categorize interpretation difficulties and errors based on the analysis of results of the model conference in the previous chapter. The specified issues and errors shall help the future interpreters to avoid the most frequent linguistic, metalinguistic, extralinguistic or pragmalinguistic errors and to influence the quality of their interpretation.

The authors of the monograph thoroughly mapped each discussed issue and the monograph is a valuable contribution into the academic environment.

Review 3: Thinking on Translation and Interpreting in Banská Bystrica (2017)

Reviewed by Zuzana Jánošíková

Monograph *Banskobystrické myslenie o preklade a tlmočení [Thinking on Translation and Interpreting in Banská Bystrica] (2017)* by Vladimír Biloveský and Ivan Šuša can be considered a remarkably significant publication within the field of translation studies especially for its comprehensive character. Thanks to approaching the topic from various points of view, it can enrich great variety of its target audience ranging from university students to other researchers as well as practitioners in the field.

The first section gives a brief overview of the history of translation studies in Banská Bystrica. Starting from the beginnings, it emphasizes the major points during the development of what today belongs to one of the well-established institutions specialized in translation and interpreting in Slovakia. This chapter also introduces the reader to the most significant personalities contributing to the development of the language and translation studies departments, the current staff (academic year 2017/2018) together with some of the graduates active in the field of translation and interpreting.

Chapter two provides an alphabetical order of names of the researchers who have contributed to the growth of translation studies in Banská Bystrica, specifies their professional profiles and offers the list of their most significant works together with an annotation of one selected work. This part includes also the profiles of those who no longer actively participate in the research activities in Banská Bystrica but have influenced the course of its development to great extent.

Next part deals with the content of study programs within the study field of translation studies. It is focused on particular levels of education (bachelor's

degree, master's degree, specialized postgraduate forms of study, and doctoral studies) and also comments on various specific aspects of the students training such as university courses or specialized classrooms for teaching translation or interpreting.

Integrating real practice into academic life of students is examined in the fourth chapter. It introduces mainly the concept of University Translation and Interpreting Center designed to provide students of master's degree real-life experience during their studies. The chapter describes also other events building bridges between the academic sphere and practice such as discussions, lectures, internships etc.

The fifth section presents research and project activities within the field of TS of the Department of Translation Studies as well as other language and literature-oriented departments. These projects and grants dealing with the questions of translation studies or comparative research of languages and literatures are listed and specified in this part.

Following the fifth section, chapter six analyzes other types of scientific activities such as international conferences, workshops, seminars etc. organized in Banská Bystrica. Attention is paid also to selected publications, various relevant journals or lectures.

As mentioned in the introduction, we believe that this review truly demonstrates the comprehensive approach of the authors offering some important insights into the thinking on translation and interpreting in Banská Bystrica. It can be seen as a summary of all-important facts related to the translation studies development in Banská Bystrica including the profiles of personalities contributing to its growth, publications, projects, journals and activities relevant to the field up to the present. Although the tradition of translation studies at Matej Bel University can be perceived as relatively young, especially compared to other institutions of this kind in Slovakia, the reviewed publication shows its constant and dynamic development. Therefore, there is no doubt that this publication marking the

20th anniversary of translation studies in Banská Bystrica maps only the first successful stages of its further development.

Review 4: Chosen Chapters from Translation Studies I (2019) by Vladimír Biloveský and Martin Djovčoš

Reviewed by Matej Martinkovič

Proper mastery of any given field of study requires knowing its basic premises, origins, and developments. However, gaining such knowledge may not be a simple matter, as primary sources can prove difficult to obtain. Authors of the third edition of the publication *Vybrané kapitoly z translatológie I [Chosen Chapters from Translation Studies]* are aware of these facts and that is why they have collected in this publication significant studies they consider to be of high importance for translation studies discipline, even if some of them may nowadays be considered outmoded – but nonetheless useful –, and included their full texts in their original language along with original notes. The aim is to make these texts readily available to students and others who might be interested in the field. Since the publication of the first edition in 2010 it has become an often-used study material at universities around Slovakia. The present third edition has been modified based on the experience of the authors in using the publication as a study material in their teaching practice.

Much like in the previous editions, the included studies have been divided into three chapters based on theme, with each chapter also containing a brief commentary by the authors introducing the chosen studies and giving reasons for their inclusion, questions designed to check the readers have fully grasped the studied material, space for readers' notes, and tips for further reading. Furthermore, brief biographies of the authors of the individual studies are included at the end of the publication. The first chapter, *On Basic Terms of Translation Studies*, introduces readers to the bedrock of translation studies – its basic terminology along with the field's origins as a stand-alone field of study with studies *The Name and Nature of*

Translation Studies by James S. Holmes and *On Linguistic Aspects of Translation* by Roman Jakobson.

Having established the basics, the second chapter, *Development of Thinking on Translation Studies* – as the name suggests – moves on to acquaint readers with various approaches to translation from across history. This longest chapter consists of five studies – *History of Translation Theory* by Susan Bassnett which provides a general overview of the history of translation, and studies by Slovak authors Ján Ferenčík, Anton Popovič, and Jana Rakšányiová. The last chapter, *Equivalence in Translation*, gives readers an opportunity to apply knowledge they have gained throughout the publication in reading studies by John C. Catford, Eugene Nida, and Ján Vilikovský. All of them focus on equivalence, which the authors consider a central issue of translation even if some researches nowadays prefer other terms, such as *adequacy*.

The publication represents a valuable study material especially for students, but also for researches in the field of translation studies. It conveniently collects in one place studies key to properly understanding the field and makes them easily accessible. The included commentaries help explain their importance and offer additional insight, and the questions may aid readers in fully grasping them.