Re/Constructing Meaning: Acquiring Mastery in Translation Studies

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INTRODUCTION

Marija Krivokapić Knežević and Aleksandra Banjević
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The book in front of us is a collection of lectures delivered at the summer school organised at the Faculty Philosophy in Nikšić, University of Montenegro, in the first two weeks of July 2012. The school was a part of an international Tempus project titled *South East European Project for the Advancement of Language Studies*, SEEPALS.

SEEPALS is a three-year curriculum development project that has brought together thirteen universities from the region and Europe. The Western Balkan team includes the University of Montenegro, as a coordinating unit, the universities of Banja Luka and Tuzla from Bosnia and Herzegovina, the International University of Novi Pazar and the Faculty for Law and Business from Novi Sad in Serbia, the University of Priština in Kosovska Mitrovica, Kosovo, the University Ss. Cyril and Methodius of Skopje and the South East European University, Tetovo, in Macedonia, and the universities of Tirana and Vlora from Albania. Our partners from the European Union come from Slovenia, represented by the University of Maribor, from Germany, represented by Friedrich-Alexander-University Erlangen-Nurnberg University, and from Italy, with the participation of the University for Foreigners in Perugia, as well as one nongovernmental organisation – but the one with a long tradition of successful work in European and regional higher education – World University Service (WUS), Austria. As its title suggests, the project is focused on modernization of BA and MA studies of foreign languages within the field of teaching and learning a foreign language for specific purposes and translation studies. It also assumes advancement of teaching and learning through exploitation of ICT educational technology. Thus, the project aims at harmonizing higher education in the region of the Western Balkans with that in the European Union, hoping to reach its highest standards.

As the participants in the implementation of the SEEPALS project are teachers of foreign languages, culture and literature, the project's Consortium selected their best teachers of translation for the purpose of the summer school. The students, coming in pairs from each university, were also chosen after a rigorous selection procedure at each partner institution, so that a very active and demanding two-week period followed in the small town of Nikšić in central Montenegro. The lectures and workshops ranged from very particular translation problems and examples from the areas of law and economy, via literary translation issues, to quite broad cultural studies and inter- and multicultural understanding. The variety of issues we dealt with lead us to translating the oral presentations into written words for the purpose of further studies within the field.

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The summer school opened with the lecture "Interpreting for the EU: How Can Universities Help in Building the Skills and Aptitudes Required," by Adelina Albrahimi from the University of Tirana. Unfortunately, due to the author's private reasons, this lecture was not turned into a chapter of this book, but it significantly recapitulates the main idea of this working pack of the project. Namely, as Albrahimi argued, with every new enlargement of the European Union to include new member states, critical noises are made about the EU's language policy, which gives small countries, and that is most of our countries, the privilege of having our language elevated to the status of an official and working language of the European institutions. Demands of European Commission's interpreter admission tests are staking very high, while universities do not often take into account the specificities of such "markets", but rather focus on general skills and abilities an interpreter should have. Linguistic skills related to our mother tongue (the A language), the first foreign language (the B language) and potentially a second foreign language (the C language) are a must, but not enough to succeed in fulfilling the given demands. Being a good interpreter means too many things – it means being curious, being willing to learn at any event and in each circumstance, having strong analytical skills, being able to work in a team, reading a lot, having a strong general culture and a good knowledge of the topic subject of interpreting, having good communication skills, possessing good public skills, being able to manage tensions and difficult situations, etc. One of the requirements of the project was to address the way we currently train students to become interpreters and the amendments we need to embody in our curricula in order to prepare our students to work for the EU.

Another important issue we addressed was cultural translation and the difficulties in the area of culture-specific concepts that translators/ interpreters have to overcome when translating. Culture and intercultural competence and awareness that rise out of experience of culture, as our colleague Tatjana Panova-Ignjatovic from the Ss. Cyril and Methodius University in Skopje argued, are far more complex phenomena than it may seem to the translator. Hence, it is extremely important for the translator/ interpreter to be keenly aware of the differences existing between the source culture and the target culture (and the language into which the original text is to be rendered). Cultural knowledge and cultural differences have been a major focus of translator training and translation theory. The main concern has traditionally been with words and phrases that are so heavily and exclusively grounded in one culture that they are almost impossible to translate into the terms – verbal or otherwise – of another. Long debate has been held over when to paraphrase, when to use the nearest local equivalent, when to coin a new word by translating literally, and when to transcribe. All these "untranslatable" cultural-bound words and phrases continued to fascinate translators and translation theorists.

Apart from this, the project clearly understands importance of tertiary level collaborative learning in the digital world, presented to teachers and students by Kate Hoerby Montgomery from Friedrich-Alexander-University Erlangen-Nurnberg in Germany. She examined the application and implementation of collaborative learning and teaching competences against the backdrop of digital media. All too often, as her two workshops showed, educational technology is purchased by institutions, installed by technicians and induction sessions are offered by technical-wise colleagues. Packages are even purchased which are specifically designed for the digital media on offer. Hoerby Montgomery, therefore, strongly argued that we as educationalists, as users of these media need the appropriate pedagogy and strategies as well as the technical know-how to understand the added value of educational technology.

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Because of the pronounced understanding of the importance of intercultural awareness in the field of transalation, the book opens with a paper "Cultural Translation: Culturally Oriented Translation Theory" by Tatjana Panova-Ignjatović from Skopje, who gives a detailed review of the development of cultural approaches to translation theory. Following this discussion, a paper titled "Sayable vs. Unsayable" by Armela Panajoti and Bledar Toska, our colleagues from the University of Vlora "Ismail Qemali," considers various instances of culture-bound translation. Given the fact that the summer school students came from various cultural backgrounds, the authors judge it interesting to focus on the culture behind the language and cases such as proverbs, sayings, jokes, stereotypes, superstitions or any other that can hardly ever be translated literally. The approach of conveying the meaning, rather than preserving the words, enabled a very interactive work in the class. Students provided equivalents of some proverbs in their own language, German, Serbian, Montenegrin, Macedonian, and Slovenian. It was noted that proverbs in Albanian, Macedonian, Montenegrin, Slovenian, and Serbian shared more cultural elements owing most likely to their Balkan heritage.

In her presentation "The Lack of Equivalence at Word-Level: Strategies and Solutions for Dealing with It," Jehona Mustafa from South East European University, Macedonia, dealt with some approaches to dealing with this translation problem. Students are familiarized with theoretical background about what the *word* is in different languages and how they can differ in the way they express a certain meaning. By the end of the presentation, students were able to detect various sources of translation difficulties and afterwards found some possible strategies for resolving them. Authentic examples of translated texts were provided in class and the same were analysed for the purpose of illustrating the strategies identified.

Speaking from the point of an experienced interpreter, a teacher of consecutive interpreting who was also trained in the DG Interpretation in the European Commission in Brussels, Igor Lakić, from the University of Montenegro, contributed to the summer school with a workshop entitled "An Approach to Consecutive Interpreting Instruction". His presentation deals with the basic concepts of conference interpreting, with special focus on consecutive interpreting. Basic differences between consecutive and simultaneous interpreting are briefly touched upon. The paper also provides characteristics of a potential candidate for a consecutive interpreter and puts a special emphasis on the stages in practicing consecutive interpreting.

Brankica Bojović, from the University of Montenegro, takes part in this book with a paper "Skills in Simultaneous Interpretation". Her paper is also based on experiences gained in the training of conference interpreters. Namely, fifty students who are finishing their eighth semester at the Faculty of Foreign Languages in Belgrade have been trained in the Translation Centre of the Association of Scientific and Technical Translators of Serbia, Belgrade. The training exercises have been designed to develop analytical techniques that are immensely applicable to simultaneous interpreting. The quality of interpreting, pragmatic problems, exercises and input have been estimated by a team of three professionals, and with the students' feedback. The importance of a very good capacity for original, creative and logical thinking as an excellent ability to organize, analyze, synthesize and integrate ideas and to express them in the working language is a sign of a simultaneous interpreter's general knowledge and culture. Cognitive factors and problems with working memory have also been pointed out. The exercises in the class emphasizes: dual tasking, input analysis, transcoding battle, audio-visual terminology management, interpretation transfer, as well as working memory training

Dejan Milinović, from the University of Banja Luka, also points out that in the practice of language interpretation, whether consecutive or simultaneous, the interpreter inevitably faces some challenges along the way, which can cause problems for the unprepared. Therefore, his paper "Interpretation Tips and Tricks – 'What if?'" has two main goals. The first is to provide students with some basic strategies and advice for dealing with bumps along the road of their possible future jobs in interpretation, to use as a starting point in developing their individual methods and practices. The second is to propose some techniques for sharpening their interpretation skills.

"Error Analysis for Achieving Meaningful Translation" was a workshop developed by the colleagues from Tuzla, Sanel Hadžiahmetović Jurida and Tanja Pavlović. They discuss a specific approach in teaching translation, i.e. the product-oriented one, which includes error analysis and translation quality assessment. Errors are first described, then the reasons for them are found and finally the solutions are given to prevent them. However, error analysis, as the authors argue, must be taken with precautions. Making errors must be seen as a way of productive way of making students aware of all the obstacles that they may face while doing translation. The lecture proceeds with the analysis of students' errors (those frequent and less frequent ones) and their transformation into knowledge necessary for successful and meaningful translation.

The other presentation of the same authors focused on the role of TAP in translation studies. Pavlović and Hadžiahmetović Jurida point out that translation is not just an exchange of words and structures, but a communicative process that takes into consideration the reader of the translation within a particular situation within a specific culture. Therefore, in this presentation they focused on the other approach in teaching translation, i.e. a process-oriented one. The process-oriented approach provides an insight into the translation process itself and the cognitive efforts made by people who perform translation tasks. As the authors argue, a new process-oriented approach has been developed recently in order to gain more immediate access to the translator's mind. By adopting introspective methods from psychology, experiments have been carried out in which translators were asked to utter everything that went on in their minds while they were translating, and these monologues were tape-recorded. These monologues are referred to as think-aloud protocols (TAPs). These protocols have been analyzed in order to classify translation strategies, with the pedagogical aim of observing difficulties encountered by the students. The lecture presented this new approach and its practical usage in the classroom, with at least two pedagogical purposes. One is that the strategies observed in the TAPs may serve as models for successful translating and the other is that, if students training to become translators are used as subjects, TAPs may be used to find out where they have problems.

Melita Kukovec, from the University of Maribor, explains how a good command of grammar and vocabulary is not always enough for transferring meaning from one into other language. She deals with some frequent idiomatic expressions that use body parts and presents a selection of nearly sixty proverbs, suggesting also corresponding tasks for an efficient command of their use.

In her paper "Research Based Translation," Vesna Bulatović from the University of Montenegro, argues that with the body of international law continually growing and technical vocabulary becoming more specialised, there is a need to develop in translator students a skill for thorough research and analysis of available legal corpora as a basis for good translation. For such a complex legal text as the Criminal Code, as the author asserts, a translator may not rely on dictionaries and glossaries but needs to do research of many international legal instruments to be sure that the legal phrases used in the two languages speak the same legal language. Therefore, Bulatović's paper reports on three samples of practical legal research done for a translation of this piece of criminal legislation from Montenegrin into English.

Rudina Xhillari, from the University of Tirana, also deals with translation methods and techniques employed while translating legal terminology. Explaining how legal English poses difficulties for the translators of legal texts since it is considered complicated and has a wide scope of use, she expounds on the predominance of English in international business, as well as on its role as a legal language within the European

Union. Her paper, therefore, makes a list of the features of the legal texts that translators should consider. A huge problem with legal translation is the lack of equivalence at the word level due to the differences in the legal systems underlying the Source Language and Target Language, so to create texts having an equivalent effect both forms of equivalence should be used, i.e. formal and functional equivalence. As the translator should employ different translation methods and techniques with the aim of reaching the equivalence, the paper provides different examples of the translation of legal texts from English into Albanian by focusing on some of the specific features of legal English. Translating means overcoming problems encountered in the process of translation and legal translation means overcoming problems that arise due to the incompliance between two legal systems of two languages involved, incongruence between languages and different historical backgrounds. The paper also provides handouts that help students identify legal English features in different excerpts from legal texts and translate legal texts with the focus on those features.

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The second part of the book focuses on particular issues within the field of literary translation. It opens with a paper "Unfaithful Beauty or Faithful Monster: Insights from the English Bible Translations" by Petar Božović from the University of Montenegro. His work starts with a question: Should a translated document be domesticated or foreignised? Being one of the greatest undertakings in the interlingual communication in history, Božović argues, Bible translating illustrates well various complexities that translators face when approaching a text. His analysis of some predominant theoretical approaches in practice provides some insights into their advantages and drawbacks and thus suggests the most appropriate one. Furthermore, as Božović says, the English Bible translations are of a great importance to linguists since they were one of the most significant literary resources for enriching the English idiom and are a valuable source for tracing the language change through centuries.

"Style and Characterization in Drama Translation," a paper by Olivera Kusovac from the University of Montenegro, provides a brief overview of the issue of style in literature and then focuses on its importance for characterization in dramatic works and its implications for drama translation. The theoretical background is followed by examples from Tennessee Williams's plays and their Serbian translations, attempting to illuminate the impact of stylistic traits such as language varieties, repetition, alliteration etc. on characterization and their translation. The aim of this paper is to demonstrate how each translation solution has its own implications which (re)shape characters and the overall meaning of a play.

Branko Crnogorac from the University of Banja Luka deals with the short stories collection *The Middle-Aged Man* by Serbian author Momo Kapor from socio-cultural and historical points of view. Crnogorac shows how in his short stories Momo Kapor, one of the masters of the genre in the region of former Yugoslavia, presents the reader with a wide range of topics, heavily relying on his/her knowledge of history and cultural context of Yugoslavia under the Communist regime. It comes as no surprise then, as Crnogorac says, that translating these stories poses numerous obstacles in terms of transferring the concepts hidden behind skillfully constructed phrases and puns, teeming with sarcasm and irony, acid remarks, indeed kitmans, into the linguistic and cultural contexts completely oblivious of such notions. As the paper shows, the story *The Middle-Aged Man* (*Čovjek srednjih godina*) is no exception, as far as the bulk of Kapor's oeuvre is concerned, but it offers these ideas interwoven with the topic universally acknowledged, namely that of the middle-age crisis, making it easier for a contemporary Western reader to grasp.

The book naturally closes with the paper dealing further more with the impact of linguistic and socio-cultural changes, "Languages Age, Hence Translations Too – Translation of Fiction: a Never-ending Work in Progress," by Nick Ceramella from the Unviersity for Foreigners of Perugia. Ceramella gives us examples of a series of Italian translations from English to Italian, focusing on the first modern translators working between the 1930s and '40s, concentrating on Elio Vittorini (1908-1966). Ceramella shows how translation can have a broader cultural impact, effecting an actual *literary polysystem*, when these first moderns agreed to develop a revolutionary project, which through the translation of contemporary American authors would convey a message of literary, cultural and social innovation with a strong anti-fascist value with an idea to modernise Italian literature that had been stagnating for a long time by then. However, Ceramella elaborates, reading an old translation – because of its obsolete language (e.g. single words, whole sentences) and syntactic structures, grammar and lexical mistakes, factual errors and misinterpretations, and also because, as it often happened, entire paragraphs, which might have been left out because of the censorship imposed on books considered particularly dangerous for the ideas of freedom and democracy, religion or morality, embedded in them – does not always make pleasant reading and that, therefore, a forgotten book can be restored by an adequate and fresh translation. Yet, it requires a complex task of translational comparative analysis on which Ceramella also elaborates giving numerous examples. He concludes that to avoid coming out with a slavish transposition, a good translator needs not only to know the two languages s/he is working on very well, but also must be creative without distorting the stylistic, expressive, and narrative intentions of the original author.

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We hope that the intriguing issues, the numerous theories, analytical methods, conceptual tools, and translators' ideal goals addressed in this volume will be a significant collage of reference material for translation students. We gathered experience and knowledge from an international milieu of experienced teachers and translators and for a student forward looking and oriented towards an international labour market. We are grateful to all the contributors for their enthusiastic cooperation and to the universities of Montenegro and Skopje for their willingness to participate in realizing this publication as its publishers. Our thanks also goes to the European Commission for its recognition of our efforts in solving our immediate needs in the advancement of foreign language studies.

CULTURAL TRANSLATION: CULTURALLY ORIENTED TRANSLATION THEORY

Tatjana Panova-Ignjatovic
Ss. Cyril and Methodius University, Skopje

Linguistic peculiarities and cultural differences are the elements that are most difficult to convey through translation. While local setting can be retained easily enough and methods can be found to explain cultural references, the way the story is told can present serious challenges to the translator. Hence, it is extremely important for the translator /interpreter to be keenly aware of the differences existing between the source culture and the target culture (and the language into which the original text is to be rendered).

Cultural knowledge and cultural differences have been a major focus of translator training and translation theory. The main concern has traditionally been with words and phrases that are so heavily and exclusively grounded in one culture that they are almost impossible to translate into the terms – verbal or otherwise – of another. Long debates have been held over when to paraphrase, when to use the nearest local equivalent, when to coin a new word by translating literally, and when to transcribe. All these "untranslatable" cultural-bound words and phrases continued to fascinate translators and translation theorists.

So, the lecture will mainly focus on the theories regarding cultural translation and on translating methods and strategies for dealing with the cultural gaps.

As the cultures come together under the global communication umbrella, the words 'culture' and 'translation' are being increasingly linked. Questions regarding whether or not translations can account for culture or to what extent culture is relevant are very much at the centre of the debate. The two extreme views are that either everything can be translated without loss or that nothing can be translated without loss, as in the Italian expression traduttore /traditore / 'translator/traitor'. These viewpoints are, in fact, both correct, and can be sensibly discussed.

On Defining Culture

Translation and culture are so interrelated that translators can no longer ignore cultural elements in a text. That is why, before analyzing some translation theories related to cultural studies, it is very important to establish what culture is and what the problems raised by its passage into a different community are.

Defining culture is important, not as an academic exercise, but because the definition delimits how culture is perceived and taught. The word 'culture' comes from the Latin cultus, 'cultivation', and colere 'to till'. The metaphorical extension is apt. Seeds continually absorb elements from the land, or rather the ecosystem, to ensure their development. In the same way, people continually absorb unaware, vital elements from their immediate environment which influence their development within the human system.

The definition of the word 'culture' has been notoriously difficult. One of the oldest and most quoted definitions of culture was formulated by the English anthropologist Edward Burnett Taylor in 1871, which is used by the Encyclopedia Britannica (1983: vol. 4:657) to introduce the topic: "Culture is that complex whole which includes knowledge, belief, art, morals, law, customs and any other capabilities and habits acquired by man as a member of society". By 1952, American anthropologists Alfred Louis Kroeber and Clyde Kluckhohn (1961:181) had compiled a list of 164 definitions, and their lengthy (165th) contribution was as follows: "Culture consists of patterns, explicit, and implicit of and for behaviour acquired and transmitted by symbols, constituting the distinctive achievement of human groups, including their embodiment in artefacts; the essential core of culture consists of traditional (i.e. historically derived and selected) ideas and especially their attached values. Culture systems may, on the one hand, be considered as products of action, on the other hand, as conditioning elements of future action".

As David Katan (1999:16) confirms, "Despite a century of efforts to define culture adequately, there was in the early 1990's no agreement among anthropologists regarding its nature". Therefore, he proposes a definition of culture in terms of "a shared mental model or map of the world, which includes Culture, though it is not its main focus. The model is a system of beliefs, values, strategies and cognitive elements which guide the shared basis of behaviour. Each aspect of culture is linked in a system to form a unifying context of culture which identifies a person and his or her culture" (Katan 1999:17). Most of the definitions cited by Kroeber and Kluckhohn, in fact, relate to a part to this definition of culture.

Cultural Approaches to Translation

The expansion of translation research in the 1960s and 1970s coincides with an increased awareness that it represents an emerging academic discipline. Early theorists like J.C. Catfrod (*A Linguistic Theory of Translation*, 1965) feel that translation studies do not deserve the institutional autonomy of linguistics because they are a site not of theorizing about language but of applying linguistic theories (Venuti, 2004:150). It was E. A. Nida who first called his theoretical work a "science" of translation, giving the topic a scholarly coherence and legitimacy that it had thus far lacked (Venuti, 2004:150).

Georges Mounin (1963)
Les problemes theoriques de la traduction

The first theory developed in this field was introduced by Mounin in 1963 who underlined the importance of the signification of a lexical item claiming that only if this notion is considered will the translated item fulfill its function correctly. The problem with this theory is that all the cultural elements do not involve just the items, what a translator should do in the case of cultural implications which are implied in the background knowledge of SL readers?

Eugene A. Nida (1964) *"The Principles of Correspondence"*

The notion of culture is essential to considering the implications for translation and, despite the differences in opinion as to whether language is part of culture or not, the two notions of culture and language appear to be inseparable. In 1964, Nida discussed the problems of correspondence in translation, conferred equal importance to both linguistic and cultural differences between the SL and the TL and concluded that differences between cultures may cause more severe complications for the translator than do differences in language structure. It is further explained that parallels in culture often provide a common understanding despite significant formal shifts in the translation. According to him cultural implications for translation are thus of significant importance as well as lexical concerns.

Nida's definitions of formal and dynamic equivalence in 1964 consider cultural implications for translation. *Formal equivalence* 'focuses attention on the message itself, in both form and content'. He calls this type of translation a "gloss translation"[1], which aims to allow the reader to understand as much of the SL context as possible (Bassnett, 2002:33). *Dynamic equivalence* (later replaced by the term 'functional' equivalence) is based on the principle of equivalent effect, i.e. the relationship between receivers and the SL message (Bassnett, 2002:33).

Therefore, according to him, a gloss translation mostly typifies formal equivalence where form and content are reproduced as faithfully as possible and the TL reader is able to "understand as much as he can of the customs, manner of thought, and means of expression" of the SL context. Nida's theory emphasizes not formal correspondence. The surface manifestation does not really matter to Nida; changes in the text, the words, the metaphors are allowed as along as the target language text functions in the same manner as the source text (Gentzler, 1993:54).

Itamar Even-Zohar (1978) & Gideon Toury (1980)

It can be said that the first concept in cultural translation studies was the "cultural turn" that was presaged by the work on Polysystems and translation norms by Even-Zohar in 1978 and elaborated later in 1980 by Toury.

They dismiss the linguistic kinds of theories of translation and refer to them as having moved from word to text as a unit but not beyond. They themselves go beyond language and focus on the interaction between

[1] A gloss (from Koine Greek γλώσσα glossa, meaning 'tongue') is a note made in the margins or between the lines of a book, in which the meaning of the text in its original language is explained, sometimes in another language. As such, glosses can vary in thoroughness and complexity, from simple marginal notations of words one reader found difficult or obscure, to entire interlinear translations of the original text and cross references to similar passages.

translation and culture, on the way culture impacts and constraints translation and on the larger issues of context, history and convention.

The 'Polysystem' Paradigm

The idea that translation should be viewed as one specific instance of the more general phenomenon of inter-systemic transfer was developed by the 'polysystem' paradigm (Even Zohar 1978a, 1978b; Toury 1980, 1986), which sought a general model to understand, analyse and describe the functioning and evolution of literary systems.

Basically, this theory provided a new insight into translation, focusing on the translated text as an entity that exists within the target polysystem in its own right. (Even-Zohar, Itamar, 1990: 1-6)

Even-Zohar's and Toury's system theory work has helped translation studies break down certain conceptual barriers and find a method for better describing translations (Gentzler, 1993:138).

Translation is culture-dependent and therefore relative. Different cultures delineate and organize the field of translation in different ways. Norms are among prime instruments that cultures use to define and delimit the field of translation, because they mark the boundary between what is accepted as legitimate (or 'proper') translation and what is not.

Where does all this leave equivalence? In the traditional approach, equivalence defined translation. Only a target text which possessed a sufficient amount of equivalence, of the right kind, could be a translation.

The literature of equivalence formulates linguistic and textual models and often prescribes a specific translation practice (pragmatic, functional, communicative). The target orientation, in contrast, focuses on actual translations and submits them to detailed description and explanation (Venuti, 2004: 149-150).

Polysystems and descriptive translation studies have been the first group of scholars to begin to move the cultural study of translation. They explored the cultural systems that controlled translation and their impact on the norms and practices of actual translation work. One of the main assumptions was, and remains today, that translation is always controlled by the target culture; rather than arguing over the correct type of equivalence to strive for and how to achieve it, they insisted that the belief structure, value systems, literary and linguistic conventions, moral norms, and political expediencies of the target culture always shape the translations in powerful ways, in the process shaping translators' notions of "equivalence" as well. This "relativistic" view is typical of the *cultural turn* translation studies has taken over the past three decades or so: away from universal forms and norms to culturally contingent ones; away from prescriptions designed to control translators, to descriptions of the ways in which target cultures control specific ones (Robinson, 2003:195-196).

Cultural Turn[2]

Therefore, the move from translation as a text to translation as culture and politics is what they call a *Cultural Turn* in translation studies and became the ground for a metaphor adopted by Bassnett and Lefevere in 1990. In fact Cultural Turn is the metaphor adopted by Cultural Studies oriented translation theories to refer to the analysis of translation in its cultural, political, and ideological context.

Since 1990, the turn has extended to incorporate a whole range of approaches from cultural studies and is a true indicator of the interdisciplinary nature of contemporary translation studies. As the result of this so called Cultural Turn, cultural studies has taken an increasingly keen interest in translation.

Interdisciplinary Approach

One consequence of this has been bringing together scholars from different disciplines. It is here important to mention that these cultural theorists have kept their own ideology and agendas that drive their own criticism.

These cultural approaches have widened the horizons of translation studies with new insights, but at the same there has been a strong element of conflict among them. It is good to mention that the existence of such differences of perspectives is inevitable.

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2 The 'cultural turn' in translation studies is a term coined by Mary Snell-Hornby and taken up by Bassnett and Lefevere in their 1990 collection of essays to describe the major shift in emphasis from formalism to broader issues of context, history and convention. They argued that translations should always be considered in relation to the cultural environment of both the source text and the target text.

Hans J. Vermeer

In the mid-1980s Vermeer introduced one of the most influential theories within the realm of Translation Studies: the skopos theory[3] . It is entered into translation theory as a technical term for the purpose of translation and of action of translating.

In his worthwhile article entitled "Skopos and Commission in Translational Action", written in 1989, Vermeer sees translation primarily as a type of action. Taking into account the fact that translation is a cultural interaction, Vermeer's approach can be defined in a broader sense: Translation is a multicultural event.

The Skopos theory focuses above all on the purpose of translation, which determines the translation method and strategies that are to be employed in order to produce a functionally adequate result.
The result is TT, which Vermeer calls *translatum*. Therefore, knowing why SL is to be translated and what the function of TT will be are crucial for the translator.

Katharina Reiss & Hans Vermeer

In 1984, K. Reiss and Vermeer in their book 'Groundwork for a General Theory of Translation' concentrated on the basic underlying 'rules' of this theory which involve:
1. A translatum (or TT) is determined by its skopos,
2. A TT is an offer of information in a target culture and TL considering an offer of information in a source culture and SL.

This relates the ST and TT to their function in their respective linguistic and cultural context. The translator is once again the key player in the process of intercultural communication and production of the translatum because of the purpose of the translation. (Munday, 2001:73).

Peter Newmark

In 1988 Newmark defined culture as "the way of life and its manifestations that are peculiar to a community that uses a particular

[3] derived from the Greek word "ο σκοπός" for 'aim' or 'purpose'.

language as its means of expression", thus acknowledging that each language group has its own culturally specific features.

He also introduced 'Cultural word' which the readership is unlikely to understand and the translation strategies for this kind of concept depend on the particular text-type, requirements of the readership and client and importance of the cultural word in the text.

Peter Newmark also categorized the cultural words as follows:

1) Ecology: flora, fauna, hills, winds, plains
2) Material Culture: food, clothes, houses and towns, transport
3) Social Culture: work and leisure
4) Organizations, Customs, Activities, Procedures

Concepts:

- Political and administrative
- Religious
- artistic

5) Gestures and Habits (Newmark, 95)

He introduced contextual factors for translation process which include:

1- Purpose of text
2- Motivation and cultural, technical and linguistic level of readership
3- Importance of referent in SL text
4- Setting (does recognized translation exist?)
5- Recency of word/referent
6- Future of referent. (Newmark, 103)

He further clearly stated that operationally he does not regard language as a component or feature of culture in direct opposition to the view taken by Vermeer who stated that "language is part of a culture" (1989:222). According to Newmark, Vermeer's stance would imply the impossibility to translate whereas for the latter, translating the source language (SL) into a suitable form of TL is part of the translator's role in transcultural communication.

Translating Cultural Words and Notions

Language and culture may thus be seen as being closely related and both aspects must be considered for translation. Nord (1991) even uses the term *linguaculture*, in order to show the tight connection between these concepts. When considering the translation of cultural words and notions, Newmark proposed two opposing methods: transference and componential analysis. According to him transference gives "local colour," keeping cultural names and concepts.

Although placing the emphasis on culture, meaningful to initiated readers, he claimed this method may cause problems for the general readership and limit the comprehension of certain aspects. The importance of the translation process in communication led Newmark to propose *componential analysis* which he described as being "the most accurate translation procedure, which excludes the culture and highlights the message".

Newmark also stated the relevance of componential analysis in translation as a flexible but orderly method of bridging the numerous lexical gaps, both linguistic and cultural, between one language and another:

Translation Procedures

Peter Newmark, proposes different translation procedures (1988:82-91):

- Transference, which is the process of transferring a source language word to a target language text. Harvey (2000:5) called it transcription.
- Naturalization, technique which consists of adapting the source language word first to the normal pronunciation, then to the normal morphology of the target language.
- Cultural equivalent, i.e. replacing a cultural word in the source culture with a target language one.
- Functional equivalent, requiring the use of a culture-neutral word.
- Descriptive equivalent, which supposes that the meaning of the culture-bound term is explained in several words.
- Componential analysis: "comparing a source language word with a target language word which has a similar meaning but is not an obvious

one-to-one equivalent, by demonstrating first their common and then their differing sense components" (1988:114).
- Synonymy provides a near target language equivalent.
- Through-translation, implying literal translation of common collocations, names of organizations and components of compounds. It is also called calque or loan translation.
- Shifts or transpositions, technique which involves a change in the grammar, for instance the change from singular to plural or the change of a source language noun group to a target language noun etc.
- Modulation, which occurs when the translator transmits the source text message in the target text in conformity with the current norms of the target language.
- Compensation, a technique which is used when confronting a loss of meaning, sound effect, pragmatic effect or metaphor in one part of a sentence. The word or concept is compensated in another part.
- Paraphrase: the meaning of the culture-bound term is explained.
- Couplets occur when the translator combines two different procedures.
- Notes, which are additional information in a translation. They may appear in the form of footnotes. Some theorists consider that too many footnotes in a translation are inappropriate with regard to appearance, but they can explain for the target audience many of the source text contents.

Translation as Ideology

In the late 1980s and 1990s several new trends in culturally oriented translation theory have expanded upon and to some extent displaced descriptive translation studies. In particular, feminist and postcolonial approaches to translation have had a major impact on the field.

Jeremy Munday, in *Introducing Translation Studies* (2001:127-141), presents three areas where cultural studies have influenced translation studies in the 1990's:

- translation as rewriting (development of systems theory),
- translation as gender
- translation as postcolonialism.

Postcolonialism

In 1993, the Bengali critic and translator Gayatri Chakravorty Spivak was the one who introduced postcolonialism. Post-colonialism is one of the most thriving points of contact between Cultural Studies and Translation Studies. It can be defined as a broad cultural approach to the study of power relations between different groups, cultures or peoples in which language, literature and translation may play a role.

Spivak's work is indicative of how cultural studies and especially post-colonialism has over the past decades focused on issues of translation, the translational and colonization. The linking of colonization and translation is accompanied by the argument that translation has played an active role in the colonization process and in disseminating an ideologically motivated image of colonized people. The metaphor has been used of the colony as an imitative and inferior translational copy whose suppressed identity has been overwritten by the colonizer.

Sherry Simon (1996) *Gender in Translation: Cultural Identity and the Politics of Transmission*

In 1996, Simon mentioned that cultural studies brings to translation an understanding of the complexities of gender and culture and it allows us to situate linguistic transfer. Sherry Simon thus links gender and cultural studies to postcolonialism, following Gayatri Chakravorty Spivak. She sees a language of sexism in translation studies, with its image of dominance, fidelity, faithfulness and betrayal and how the translations are affected by the women's ideologies.

According to her feminist translators openly advocate and implement strategies (linguistic or otherwise) to foreground the feminist in the translated text. It may seem worthy to mention that the opposite of translation project occurs when gender-marked works are translated in such a way that their distinctive characteristics are affected.

Both gender studies and postcolonial theory focus on questions of domination, submission and resistance. While postcolonial approaches to translation have tended to analyse the power structures controlling translation and call for more resistance to those structures, feminist approaches have been more oriented towards resistance than to analysis (Robinson, 2003:198).

In 1992, Lawrence Venuti mentioned the effective powers controlling translation. He believed that in addition to governments and other politically motivated institutions which may decide to censor or promote certain works, there are groups and social institutions which would include various players in the publication as a whole. These are the publishers and editors who choose the works and commission the translations, pay the translators and often dictate the translation method. They also include the literary agents, marketing and sales teams and reviewers. Each of these players has a particular position and role within the dominant cultural and political agenda of their time and place. Power play is an important theme for cultural commentators and translation scholars. In both theory and practice of translation, power resides in the deployment of language as an ideological weapon for excluding or including a reader, a value system, a set of beliefs, or even an entire culture. He noted that translation studies needs to take into account the value-driven nature of the sociocultural framework.

Mona Baker, *In Other Words,* 1992

In 1992, Mona Baker (UK) stated that SL word may express a concept which is totally unknown in the target culture. It can be abstract or concrete. It may be a religious belief, a social custom or even a type of food.

In her book, *In Other Words*, she argued about the *common non-equivalents* to which a translator comes across while translating from SL into TL, while both languages have their distinguished specific culture.

She put them in the following order:

a) Culture specific concepts
b) The SL concept which is not lexicalized in TL
c) The SL word which is semantically complex
d) The source and target languages make different distinction in meaning
e) The TL lacks a superordinate
f) The TL lacks a specific term (hyponym)
g) Differences in physical or interpersonal perspective
h) Differences in expressive meaning
i) Differences in form
j) Differences in frequency and purpose of using specific forms
k) The use of loan words in the source text

Mona Baker also believed that it is necessary for the translator to have knowledge about semantics and lexical sets. Because in this case:

- S/he would appreciate the "value" of the word in a given system knowledge and the difference of structures in SL and TL. This allows the translator to assess the value of a given item in a lexical set.

-S/he can develop strategies for dealing with non-equivalence semantic field. These techniques are arranged hierarchically from general (superordinate) to specific (hyponym).

Coulthard, 1992

In 1992, Coulthard highlighted the importance of defining the ideal reader for whom the author attributes knowledge of certain facts, memory of certain experiences, plus certain opinions, preferences and prejudices and a certain level of linguistic competence. When considering such aspects, the extent to which the author may be influenced by such notions which depend on his own sense of belonging to a specific socio-cultural group should not be forgotten.

Coulthard stated that once the ideal ST readership has been determined, considerations must be made concerning the TT. He said that the translator's first and major difficulty is the construction of a new ideal reader who, even if he has the same academic, professional and intellectual level as the original reader, will have significantly different textual expectations and cultural knowledge.

Applied to the criteria used to determine the ideal ST reader it may be noted that few conditions are successfully met by the potential ideal TT reader. Indeed, the historical and cultural facts are unlikely to be known in detail along with the specific cultural situations described.

Furthermore, despite considering the level of linguistic competence to be roughly equal for the ST and TT reader, certain differences may possibly be noted in response to the use of culturally specific lexis which must be considered when translating.

Although certain opinions, preferences and prejudices may be instinctively transposed by the TT reader who may link them to his own experience, it must be remembered that these do not match the social situation experience of the ST reader. Therefore, Coulthard mainly stated that the core *social and cultural aspects* remain problematic when considering the cultural implications for translation.

Lawrence Venuti, 1995

Like the other cultural theorists, the American translation scholar Lawrence Venuti in 1995 insisted that the scope of translation studies needs to be broadened to take the account of the value-driven nature of sociocultural framework. He used the term *invisibility* to describe the translator situation and activity in Anglo-American culture.

He said that this invisibility is produced by:

1- The way the translators themselves tend to translate fluently into English, to produce an idiomatic and readable TT, thus creating illusion of transparency.

2- The way the translated texts are typically read in the target culture:

> A translated text, whether prose or poetry or non-fiction, is judged acceptable by most publishers, reviewers and readers when it reads fluently, when the absence of any linguistic or stylistic peculiarities makes it seem transparent, giving the appearance that it reflects the foreign writer's personality or intention or the essential meaning the foreign text - the appearance, in other words, that the translation is not in fact a translation, but the original. (Venuti, 1995)

Venuti discussed invisibility hand in hand with two types of translating strategies: *domestication* and *foreignization*. He considered domestication as dominating Anglo-American (TL) translation culture. Postcolonialists were alert to the cultural effects of the differential in power relation between colony and ex-colony, so Venuti bemoaned the phenomenon of domestication since it involves reduction of the foreign text to the target language cultural values.

Domestication entails translating in a transparent, fluent, invisible style in order to minimize the foreignness of the TT. Venuti believed that a translator should leave the reader in peace, as much as possible, and he should move the author toward him.

Foreignization, on the other hand, entails choosing a foreign text and developing a translation method along lines which excluded by dominant cultural values in target language. Venuti considers the foreignizing method to be an ethno deviant pressure on target language cultural values to register the linguistic and cultural difference of the foreign text, sending the reader abroad.

According to him it is highly desirable in an effort to restrain the ethnocentric violence-translation.

The foreignizing method of translating, a strategy Venuti also termed 'resistancy', is a non-fluent or estranging translation style (designed to make visible the persistence of translator) by highlighting the foreign identity of ST and protecting it from the ideological dominance of the target culture (Venuti, 2000: 334).

In his later book *'The Scandals of Translation: Towards an Ethics of Difference'*, Venuti insisted on foreignizing or, as he also called it, "minoritizing" translation, to cultivate a varied and heterogeneous discourse. As far as language is concerned, the minoritizing or foriegnizing method of Venuti's translation comes through in the deliberate inclusion of foreignizing elements in a bid to make the translator visible and to make the reader realize that he is reading a translation of the work from a foreign culture. Foreignization is closely adherent to the ST structure and syntax. Venuti also said that the terms may change meaning across time and location.

In order to support his arguments regarding the notion of minorizing translation along with resisting translation, Venuti gives a coherent example, namely, his own translation of the 19th century Italian writer Tarchetti's novel Fosca. Venuti's foreignizing strategy includes using archaic words and mixing Britishisms with the contemporary American language. In addition to that, by employing paratextual materials (i.e. an introduction), Venuti aimed at showing right from the start what his intention was to the reader/s.

The prevailing opinion regarding the fluency in a translated work has been one of the most fundamental aspects of Venuti's approach to translation: "The more fluent the translation, the more invisible the translator, and, presumably, the more visible the writer or meaning of the foreign text" (1994: 16). Venuti's statement also reflects how the scholar himself puts emphasis on the significance of the foreign text; thereby he, in the words of Susan Bassnett, "calls for translator-centred translation, insisting that the translator should inscribe him/herself visibly into the text" (1998: 25).

Theo Hermans, Translations in Systems, 1999

In 1999 Hermans stated that Culture refers to all socially conditioned aspects of human life. According to him, translation can and should be recognized as a social phenomenon, a cultural practice. He said that we bring to translation both cognitive and normative expectations, which are continually being negotiated, confirmed, adjusted, and modified by practicing translators and by all who deal with translation.

These expectations result from the communication within the translation system, for instance, between actual translations and statements about translation, and between the translation system and other social systems.

Hervey and Higgins

Regarding cultural translation Hervey and Higgins believed in cultural translation rather than a literal one. According to them accepting literal translation means that there is no cultural translation operation. But obviously there are some obstacles bigger than linguistic ones. They are cultural obstacles and here a transposition in culture is needed. (Hervey & Higgins, 1986:29).

According to Hervey & Higgins cultural transposition has a scale of degrees which are toward the choice of features indigenous to target language and culture, rather than features which are rooted in source culture. The result here is foreign features reduced in target text and it is to some extent naturalized. The scale is from an extreme which is mostly based on source culture (exoticism) to the other extreme which is mostly based on target culture (cultural transplantation):

> *Exoticism< Calque< Cultural Borrowing< Communicative Translation< Cultural Transplantation*

1) Exoticism
The degree of adaptation is very low here. The translation carries the cultural features and grammar of SL to TL. It is very close to transference.
2) Calque
Calque includes TL words but in SL structure therefore while it is unidiomatic to target reader but it is familiar to a large extent.
3) Cultural Borrowing
It is to transfer the ST expression verbatim into the TT. No adaptation of SL expression into TL forms. After a time they usually become a standard in TL terms. Cultural borrowing is very frequent in history, legal, social, political texts; for example, "La langue" and "La parole" in linguistics.
4) Communicative Translation
Communicative translation is usually adopted for culture specific clichés such as idioms, proverbs, fixed expressions, etc. In such cases the translator substitutes SL words with an existing concept in target culture. In cultural substitution the propositional meaning is not the same but it has similar impact on the target reader. The literal translation here may sound comic. The degree of using this strategy sometimes depends on the license which is given to the translator by commissioners and also the purpose of translation.

5) Cultural Transplantation

The whole text is rewritten in target culture. The TL word is not a literal equivalent but has similar cultural connotations to some extent. It is another type of extreme but toward target culture and the whole concept is transplanted in TL. A normal translation should avoid both exoticism and cultural transplantation.

Nico Wiersema, 2004

In 2004, Nico Wiersema in his essay "Globalization and Translation" stated that globalization is linked to English being a lingua franca; the language is said to be used at conferences (interpreting) and seen as the main language in the new technologies. The use of English as a global language is an important trend in world communication.

Globalisation is also linked to the field of Translation Studies. Furthermore, globalisation is placed in the context of changes in economics, science, technology, and society. Globalisation and technology are very helpful to translators in that translators have more access to online information, such as dictionaries of lesser-known languages. According to Wiersema such comments can be extended to the readers of translations. Should the target text be challenging for a reader, the internet can help him understand foreign elements in the text. Thus the text can be written in a more foreignising / exoticising manner.

He mentioned a relatively new trend wherein culturally bound elements (some, one might say, untranslatable), are not translated. He believed that this trend contributes to learning and understanding foreign cultures. Context explains culture, and adopting (not necessarily adapting) a selection of words enriches the target text, makes it more exotic and thus more interesting for those who want to learn more about the culture in question. Eventually, these new words may find their way into target language dictionaries. Translators will then have contributed to enriching their own languages with loan words from the source language (esp. English).

According to him, the translator has three options for the translation of cultural elements:

1- Adopting the foreign word without any explanation.

2- Adopting the foreign word with extensive explanations.

3- Rewriting the text to make it more comprehensible to the target-language audience.

According to Nico Wiersema, cultures are getting closer and closer and this is something that he believed translators need to take into account. In the end it all depends on what the translator, or more often, the publisher wants to achieve with a certain translation.

In his opinion by entering SL cultural elements:

a- The text will be read more fluently (no stops)
b- The text remains more exotic, more foreign
c- The translator is closer to the source culture
d- The reader of the target texts gets a more genuine image of the source culture.

Culturally specific items are linguistically represented items that pose a problem in translation because they do not exist in the target culture or have a different value as a result of factors such as ideology, usage, frequency, and so on (Aixelá, 1996: 57).

Javier Franco Aixelá breaks down the strategies available for translating these items into the two main categories of conservation and substitution, with sub-classifications on a scale from a lesser to a greater degree of intercultural manipulation.

• Conservation:
  - Repetition. Keep as much as possible of the original reference.
  - Orthographic adaptation (usually used when the original word is in a different alphabet).
  - Linguistic (non-cultural) translation. Use a denotatively very close reference, but one that still belongs to the culture of the source text.
  - Extra-textual gloss.
  - Intra-textual gloss.

• Substitution:
  - Synonymy (usually used on stylistic grounds to avoid repetition).
  - Limited universalisation, i.e., a less specific reference.
  - Absolute universalisation, i.e., a neutral reference.
  - Naturalisation.
  - Deletion (usually for reasons of perceived irrelevance or unacceptability).
  - Autonomous creation of a non-existent cultural reference.

When a culture specific item is left in its untranslated state in isolation, it operates as a "space of translation"—a palpable written trace of the foreign for the reader and an indicator that the text was written elsewhere, where the language and mores are different. Even though the word is invariably explained, its distinctness remains intact and can be made even more conspicuous by being italicised.

And according to Aixelá, the resulting increased exoticism or archaism of the word reminds us of one of the paradoxes of translation and one of the great pitfalls of the traditional notion of equivalence: that something absolutely identical can be absolutely different in its collective reception (61).

The choice of strategy is guided by many different factors. In addition to variables beyond the text, such as the publisher's aims or readers' expectations, and variables surrounding the text, such as previous translations of the same genre, author or text, are various factors within the text, including the type and breadth of the intercultural gap, the function of the item in the source text and issues of coherence within the target text. The crucial factor, however, according to Aixelá, in the degree of manipulation of culturally specific items is the extent to which the receiving pole decides to accept the restrictions posed by the source text (76-77).

Concluding Remarks

Cultural knowledge and differences have represented a major focus of translation scholars. For a very long time, translation has been associated only with language. Different translation scholars offer various ways in which translation problems could be solved so that the receiving audience may perceive the culture and the otherness of another world. Finally, to a certain degree and losing a part of the otherness of the source culture, culture can be translated by using some translation methods like the so-called equivalence, according to the functionalist theories.

The definitions on cultural translation appearing in the 1960s-1970s cover in general the same guidelines. First, there is a change of expression from one language to another one. Second, most of the theorists are for the primacy of rendering the message and its meaning in the target culture. Third, the translator is obliged to find the closest equivalent in the target language.

If we think of Cicero's words, in *De optimo genere oratorum*, who makes the firsts remarks on translation, he distinguishes two ways of translating:

- ut interpretes (in other words, literal translation)
- ut orator, a kind of translation that he prefers, being a form of creation.

In this context, the translator is associated to a writer.

Micaela Munoz-Calvo, from the University of Zaraoza, Spain, affirms that translators need "cultural literacy, communicative language competences and cross-cultural competencies as well" (2010:2-3), because they must interpret "socio-cultural meaning in cross-cultural encounters, contributing to the transfer of knowledge across cultures and to cultural development as well" (ibidem).

Obviously, the so-called 'Holy Grail' (Santoyo, 2010:14) of translation is the creation of an equivalent text. That is why the concept of equivalence in terms of translating culture, i.e. what differentiates and identifies us, becomes a crucial problem.

There are thousands of culture-bound terms, deeply rooted in culture, which the translator has to deal with.[4] That is why there have been many voices which claimed either for the possibility or for the impossibility of translation. Claims on either side have always existed. The myth of the Tower of Babel has been interpreted as either the beginning of translation or as a warning that translation is doomed to failure, according to the radical positions of the Church that the Word of God should be read only in the original.

Any remark on the translation of cultural elements must take into account the fact that translation has always offered many possibilities of confronting different cultural realities. Hence, questions about the areas of cultural production, the processes of cultural transfer, the negotiation of differences, but also questions about untranslatability, incompatibility, in order to arrive to the well-known problem of *traduttore-traditore*.

According to the great amount of translation strategies and methods offered by scholars, the translation of culture is, to a certain degree of acceptability, possible. It is the case of functionalist theories, for example, because from a pure linguistic position, not only the translation of culture but even the translation of each word becomes impossible.

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[4] The Eskimos have seven different expressions / lexicons for the word —snow. Can you differentiate the following: 'wet snow', 'packed snow', 'powder snow', 'fine snow', 'dry snow', soft snow'? The Marshalese Islanders do not have to worry about 'snow', but they have sixty terms for parts of the coconut and coconut tree. The north-Indians have many words like, roti, chapati, puri, parotha, tanduri, naan, phulka, kachauri, etc. These words do not have an English parallel. The word that comes closest is "Bread", but again this is another variety, generally from the bakery - not homemade.

Finally, translation is part of culture, or it is culture. And its very existence proves the possibility of entering a different world, a different vision and community through a translator's genuine work.

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SAYABLE VS. UNSAYABLE

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a) What's in a Name?

In the famous Balcony scene in Shakespeare's *Romeo and Juliet*, Juliet to account for her love for Romeo, her "enemy", makes the following argument in her monologue:

JUL:

'Tis but *thy name* that is my enemy.
Thou art thyself, though not a Montague.
What's Montague? it is nor hand, nor foot,
Nor arm, nor face, nor any other part
Belonging to a man. O, *be some other name*!
What's in a name? That which we call a *rose*
By *any other name* would *smell as sweet*.
So Romeo would, were he not Romeo call'd,
Retain that dear perfection which he owes
Without that title. Romeo, doff thy name;
And for that name, which is no part of thee,
Take all myself. *Romeo and Juliet* (II, ii, 1-2)

Our aim here is not to argue about Juliet's love for Romeo as expressed in these lines, but to depart our discussion from a good linguistic point she makes in these lines. Struggling with the fact that she cannot love Romeo because he is called Romeo Montague, the Montagues being enemies to the Capulets, her family, she suddenly asks: "What's in a name?" Obviously, Juliet's problem is Romeo's name. She realizes that a name is something that can be given and changed at any time, without affecting in this way the quality of the person, for which reason she wishes "be some other name." To reinforce her argument she brings another example, that of the rose. By the same reasoning Juliet practically develops a well-known linguistic argument, that of the relation between the word and its referent, or to use structuralist terminology, that between the signifier and the signified (form and content). Her quest is a quest for meaning. Thus "smell as sweet" and "Retain that dear perfection" allude to meaning.

Unlike Saussure, Juliet's conception of meaning is not structural and relational but referential. She believes that Romeo would "Retain that dear perfection" even if he were not called Romeo and the rose would "smell as sweet" even if it were not called a rose (See Figure 1).

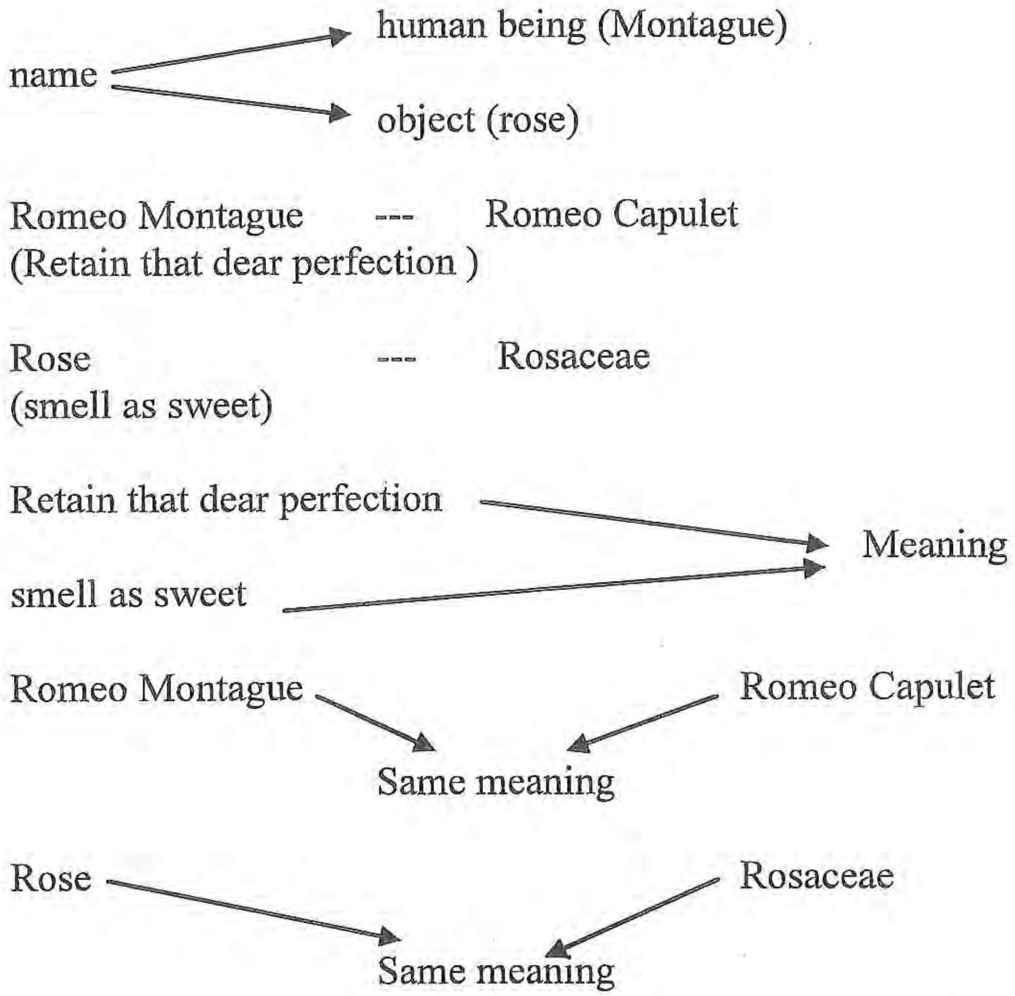

Figure 1. Juliet's conception of meaning

The same point is often made in translation, that is, retention of meaning in the translated word/text, to put it bluntly. In summing up translation, Newmark (1988a: 5) defines it as "rendering the meaning of a text into another language in the way that the author intended the text." Obviously this definition is far too general and does not encompass all possibilities of rendering the meaning.

In the following part of the text we will try to argue about meaning in translation especially as regards the word and its referent in the source language and their relation in the target language.

b) Meaning in Translation

Let us have a look at the following examples[5]. The first two are names of people. In both examples the referent is rather obvious. The names, either used in the SL or in the TL refer to a man called by that name. Hence, Juliet's point as discussed above. There is no change of referent, even though there is a change of name, that is, from the SL into the TL.

(1) Romeo (SL) – Romeo (in most target languages, for instance Albanian, Italian)
Peter (SL) – Pjetër, Pietro, Petar (TL: *Albanian, Italian, Serbian*)

Now let us consider these other examples:

(2) table (SL) – tavolinë, tavola (TL: *Albanian, Italian*)
school (SL) – shkollë, scuola (TL: *Albanian, Italian*)

Determining the referent here is not as easy as in the first examples. Although we immediately will tend to identify the referent as an object/ thing, a second careful thought will remind us that the referent in the case of both words is not necessarily an object. It can also be a concept. "School" may refer to a building in much the same way as it may refer to "formal education." "Table" may refer to an object, a piece of furniture usually used for eating, but it may also refer to a gathering of people for fun, business or discussion. So far the point made here is linguistic.

Let us consider another example:

(3) "Carry coal to Newcastle."

[5] In the examples brought here English will be considered source language and the other languages, Albanian and Italian in most cases, target languages.

As it can be noted, the search for a referent for the word "Newcastle" becomes problematic because Newcastle is to be found in the UK. Thus the geographical location used in this saying makes the search for equivalence in form and content impossible. The saying will make sense to a British speaker who will be quick to figure out its meaning, that is, "pointlessness of action", as he/she will be able to relate "coal" to "Newcastle," a coal area whose economy largely depended on coal trade. Any attempt to literally translate it into another language would lead to failure of meaning. Thus the point made here is more than linguistic. It involves other aspects of meaning, which collectively fall under culture. So, in Albanian the same meaning is conveyed through *E lirë kripa në Durrës, por të ha qeraja e rrugës* (literally, "Salt is cheap in Durrës, but it doesn't pay its way."), in which case "coal" is replaced by "salt" (*kripa*) and "Newcastle" by "Durrës", the largest seaport in Albania and a well-known link to other ports.

In this lecture we will focus exactly on what happens when we translate proverbs and sayings, more particularly see what is lost or preserved in translation, how cultural elements influence translation, what strategies are used and so on. It is for these reasons, especially for the fact that the lecture focuses on proverbs and how they are said in different languages that we preferred to entitle it "Sayable vs. Unsayable", so as to punnily allude to what is preserved, mainly in linguistic terms (semantics, syntax), hence the "sayable" versus what is lost due to cultural influences, hence the "unsayable."

c) Sayable vs. Unsayable

The translation of proverbs is a task which cannot be solved simply by resorting to certain strategies, methods or procedures used in the process. Although many translation theorists list several methods and techniques[6] as characterizing the process of translation, when it comes to proverbs and sayings, other aspects besides those described by the theorists should be involved. One element commonly to be found in proverbs are

[6] Nida (1964), among the first to describe translating procedures, largely divides them into technical procedures and organizational procedures. Newmark (1988b: 81) differentiates between translation methods and translation procedures: "[w]hile translation methods relate to whole texts, translation procedures are used for sentences and the smaller units of language." As we are dealing with sayings, we would then be more interested in the procedures.

culture-bound terms (CBTs), which Harvey (2006:2) defines as "concepts, institutions and personnel which are specific to the SL culture."[7]

Besides culture-bound terms, we would like to emphasize here that form is an important element in proverbs, which accounts very much for meaning. In "Analyzing and Utilizing Receptor Language Proverb Forms in Translation" Unseth (2003: 79; emphasis in original) argues: "But with proverbs, *the form is part of the meaning*; that is, to try to translate the 'meaning' of a proverb without translating into the form of a proverb is to translate only part of the meaning of a proverb." Unseth mentions a lot of techniques which are used to form proverbs, among them, techniques based on sound (rhyme, alliteration, assonance, meter, tone), on combinations of these sound techniques, on grammatical structures (parallelisms, rhetorical questions etc), on images and words (stereotypes, motifs, introductory formulas etc). These are worth considering when translating proverbs.

In this part of the lecture we will discuss a list of proverbs in English and ask students to translate them into their own language. For

[7] In accounting for their translation, Harvey (2006: 2-6) suggests four techniques:

1. *Functional Equivalence*: using a referent in the TL culture whose function is similar to that of the source language (SL) referent.
2. *Formal Equivalence* or *"linguistic equivalence"*: "word-for-word" translation.
3. *Transcription* or *'borrowing'*: i.e. reproducing or, where necessary, transliterating the original term.
4. *Descriptive or self-explanatory translation*: It uses generic terms (not CBTs) to convey the meaning; appropriate in a wide variety of contexts where formal equivalence is considered insufficiently clear.

Among the procedures proposed by Newmark (1988b) are: a. *transference*: the process of transferring an SL word to a TL text; b. *naturalization*: adapting the SL word first to the normal pronunciation, then to the normal morphology of the TL; c. *cultural equivalent*: replacing a cultural word in the SL with a TL one; d. *functional equivalent*: the use of a culture-neutral word; e. descriptive equivalent: the meaning of the CBT is explained in several words; f. *componential analysis*: comparing an SL word with a TL word which has a similar meaning but is not an obvious one-to-one equivalent, by demonstrating first their common and then their differing sense components; g. *synonymy*: a near TL equivalent; h. *through-translation*: the literal translation of common collocations, names of organizations and components of compounds, also called calque or loan translation; i. *shifts or transpositions*: a change in the grammar from SL to TL; j. *modulation*: reproducing the message of the original text in the TL text in conformity with the current norms of the TL; k. *recognized translation*: using the official or the generally accepted translation of any institutional term; l. *compensation*: loss of meaning in one part of a sentence is compensated in another part; m. *paraphrase*: the meaning of the CBT is explained; n. couplets: combining two different procedures; o. *notes*: additional information in a translation.

the purposes of this lecture, we have already provided two translations for each of them, one in Albanian and another in Italian[8]. Students are invited to provide equivalents for each of these proverbs into their own language and discuss which of these fall within the "sayable" category and which ones within the "unsayable" category. The "sayable" category will include all those instances in which the search for cultural equivalence or better correspondence between proverbs is successful and "unsayable" when this search is not successful. In the end, we will discuss the techniques and procedures used and decide whether this search for cultural equivalence will lead towards the sayable or the unsayable.

Despite these aspects, we would be more interested to look into how cultural elements are preserved or not in the TL. Although many techniques, methods and procedures have been suggested by several authors (Nida, Newmark, Bassnet, Baker and so on), still not all of them apply to the translation of proverbs. What is more, we emphasized earlier that form is important for meaning in translating proverbs. The point to be made when considering the translation of proverbs is as Wilson (2010) puts it:

> The main advantage is that a large body of accepted translations for proverbs exists between various languages, thus removing any question of validity on a specific translation example. A second, equally important, reason is that proverbs generally include metaphors and thus provide a body of culturally accepted metaphor translations. Furthermore, as they are heavily embedded in culture and reveal conceptual thinking, proverbs provide insight into a language group's way of thinking. This insight is reciprocal, in that it can provide a guide to the translation of texts not previously translated.

This is exactly what we ask students to do, that is, not simply to attempt to translate them, but to think about how they are rendered in the TL, how they are said in their own language, to see whether an equivalent proverb exists in their native language and if yes, whether it preserves the linguistic structure and meaning of the SL proverb.

Below is the list with the proverbs in the SL (English) and their equivalents in the TL (Albanian, Italian):

[8] The choice of these two languages is not intentional. It is based on the authors' knowledge and command of these two languages, Albanian being their native language and Italian, a language they can use practically at the same level as English.

Source language		Target language	
English		Albanian	Italian
1.	Curiosity killed the cat.	Kurioziteti vrau macen.	Tanto va la gatta al lardo che ci lascia lo zampino.
2.	When in Rome do as the Romans do.	Sipas vendit dhe kuvendi.	Paesi che vai, usanze che trovi.
3.	Better late than never.	Më mirë vonë sesa kurrë.	Meglio tardi che mai.
4.	Don't bite the hand that feeds you.	Dora që të ushqen nuk kafshohet.	Non mordere la mano che ti nutre.
5.	In unity there is strength.	Bashkimi bën fuqinë.	L'unione fa la forza.
6.	Those who sleep with dogs will rise with fleas.	Po ndenje me krundet, do të të hanë pulat.	Chi va dormir con i cani, si leua con i pulici.
7.	There's no place like home.	Ec e bridh ngado, por shtëpinë mos e harro.	A ogni uccello il suo nido è bello.
8.	Too many cooks spoil the broth.	Shumë mami e nxjerrin fëmijën çyryk.	Troppi cuochi guastano la cucina.
9.	Two heads are better than one.	Dy mendje janë më mirë sesa një.	Due teste sono meglio di una.
10.	Easier said than done.	Nga e thëna në të bërë të ndan një mal i tërë.	Tra il dire e il fare c'è di mezzo il mare.
11.	No news is good news.	Asnjë lajm nuk vjen për mirë.	Nessuna nuova, buona nuova.
12.	A bird in the hand is worth two in the bush.	Më mirë një vezë sot, sesa një pulë mot.	Meglio un uovo oggi che una gallina domani.
13.	Don't judge a book by its cover.	Mos i shiko gunën, por punën.	L'abito non fa il monaco.
14.	Kill two birds with one stone.	Të vrasësh dy zogj me një gur.	Prendere due piccioni con una fava.
15.	A friend in need is a friend indeed.	Një mik i mirë, duket në kohë të vështirë.	Al bisogno si conosce l'amico.
16.	Speech is silver, silence is golden.	Heshtja është flori, fjala - argjend.	Il silencio è d'oro e la parola è d'argento.
17.	Like father, like son.	Dardha bie nen dardhe.	Tale il padre, tale il figlio.
18.	Time is money.	Koha është flori.	Il tempo è denaro.
19.	The early bird gets the worm.	Kush ngrihet herët gjen qesen me flori.	Il mattino ha l'oro in bocca.

Table 1. Sayings in English (SL) and their equivalents in Albanian and Italian (TLs)

d) Discussion and Final Remarks

Students were invited to provide equivalents of these proverbs in their own language. We were able to collect them in German, Serbian, Montenegrin, Macedonian, and Slovenian. They have not been included here simply for the fact that being unfamiliar with these languages we were afraid of misrepresenting them in the final version of this lecture.

We then asked students to note how these proverbs were used and formed in all these languages and more specifically to compare the versions in their own language with the versions in the other languages. Proverbs in the SL (English) were no longer used as the sole reference point for comparison because the question addressed at this stage of the lecture was "how do you say it?" The intention was to identify all possible common cultural elements in these proverbs.

Below we will present a summary of the discussion resulting from this comparison. The comparison as represented here involves three languages only, Albanian, English and Italian. In discussing how the above-listed proverbs are conveyed in these languages we identified the following occurrences:

a. *Full correspondence* in the three languages (usually semantic and syntactic, in some cases only semantic). This is the case of proverbs 3, 4, 5, 9, 11, 14, 15, 16, 18.
b. *Partial correspondence*, usually between English and Italian, or Italian and Albanian. For instance, proverbs 2 (Alb-Ita), 6 (Eng-Ita), 8 (Eng-Ita), 12 (Alb-Ita), 17 (Eng-Ita)
c. *No correspondence*. This is the case of proverbs 10, 13 and 19. Thus in proverb 10 the Albanians consider the "mountain" as an obstacle between the said and the done, whereas the Italians the sea. Proverb 13 *Don't judge a book by its cover* in Albanian literally is "Don't judge his clothes but his work", the word "clothes" being used in a vernacular version and in Italian "Clothes don't make a priest." Proverb 19 *The early bird gets the worm*, in Albanian is "He who gets up early finds the sack of gold," and in Italian "Morning has gold in its mouth."
d. *Translation*. In the case of proverb 1, there is a need to translate it into Albanian because it does not exist in this language or at least we were not able to find a proverb that would come closer to its meaning.
e. *Replacement of culture-bound words*. In proverb 6 the English and the Italians refer to dogs and fleas, whereas the Albanians to

chickens and bran. In proverb 12 the English say *A bird in the hand is worth two in the bush*, whereas the Albanians and the Italians say "Better an egg today then a chicken tomorrow." In proverb 17, the English and Italians say *Like father, like son*, whereas the Albanians say "Pear falls under pear."

f. *Additional culture-bound words*. In some cases besides common culture-bound words, other words are added as in the case of the first proverb. The Italian proverb shares the "cat" element with the English proverb but it is worded somewhat differently with the words "fat" and "footprints" added to it as well. Thus in the Italian version, the cat goes after fat but leaves its print in it.

A discussion of the versions of these proverbs in other languages revealed most of the occurrences mentioned above, but what is interesting to point out is the fact that proverbs in Albanian, Macedonian, Montenegrin, Slovenian, Serbian shared more cultural elements owing most likely to their Balkan heritage. It resulted that agrarian and peasant life influenced this heritage.

In discussing the procedures used to render these proverbs into their own language, students confirmed that they resorted only to a couple of them because in the case of proverbs they had to figure out the meaning first and next instead of simply translating them into their own language, they had to think about how they said them in their own language.

In the end they all voted in favour of the "sayable." Apparently we share much more than we think we do in cultural terms. In any case, this is a rather tentative conclusion and a larger body of proverbs needs to be taken into consideration before any final comments are made.

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THE LACK OF EQUIVALENCE AT WORD-LEVEL: STRATEGIES AND SOLUTIONS FOR DEALING WITH IT

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Introduction

The notion of equivalence in translation represents one of the most discussed and elaborated issues among scholars and professionals in the last fifty years. There are many theorists who have carefully studied and scrutinized equivalence in the translation process, and thus provided fruitful ideas for further studies.

In this paper, the author is going to give a brief elaboration of the term 'equivalence' as represented through the views of some of the most outstanding linguistics, such a Jakobson, Nida, Vinay and Darbelnet, Baker and Catford, all of whom have greatly influenced the way we perceive equivalence nowadays. In the second part of this paper, the author is going to concentrate on the sources for the lack of word equivalence, and the strategies for dealing with it.

1. Literature Review

In the theory of translation, generally prevail three types of different approaches that analyze the concept of translation equivalence, TA. In the first group, there are the scholars who tend to leave aside the cultural aspect of translation, and concentrate more on the linguistic aspect of it. This approach is considered to have some flaws, as a result of its ignorance of the cultural element that languages consist of. On the other side, there stands the other group of scholars who analyze TA from a pragmatic point of view and have a functional oriented approach to it. The third group of scholars is represented by those as Baker, who tend to involve both aspects, the linguistic and pragmatic one, in analyzing TA.

One of the first scholars to have made a great contribution to the theory of translation, is Roman Jakobson. His concept of 'equivalence in translation' is considered to have had a huge impact in the development of translation studies. According to Jakobson's (1959) and his semiotic approach to language, there are three kinds of equivalences:

- Intralingual (within one language, i.e. rewording or paraphrase)
- Interlingual (between two languages)
- Intersemiotic (between sign systems)

Furthermore, Jakobson suggests that in terms of grammar languages differ from one another at different degrees, but this doesn't necessarily imply that translation is not possible. He also adds that, whenever dealing with the lack of equivalence, translators should dare and use loan words, neologisms or semantic shifts, with the only aim of transferring the meaning of the item from the SL to TL.

Eugene A. Nida is another outstanding theorist who claims that 'equivalence' shouldn't be seen as a clear cut concept, but as a notion which shows different degrees of closeness between the item of SL and TL. Nida states that there are two kinds of equivalences, the formal and dynamic equivalence. In the second edition by Nida and Taber (1982), these two notions, now renamed in formal correspondence and dynamic equivalence, are furthermore explained. The formal correspondence represents the closest possible TL equivalent of a SL word or phrase. Being aware of the fact that these formal correspondences not always exist, Nida suggests that translators should be wise and careful with using it, as it may result in ambiguity and misunderstanding. Unlike formal correspondence, the dynamic equivalence is defined as a process when the translator seeks to translate the meaning of the original word in such a way, that it would trigger the same impact on the TL as the original word did in the TL.

According to Vinay and Darbelnet (1995), equivalence in translation 'replicates the same situation as in the original, whilst using completely different wording' (1995:342). In addition, they state that by these means of translation, the trasnlation can maintain the stylistic impact of the SL text in the TL text. It is stated that this procedure is mostly favorable for the translation of idioms, clichés, nominal and adjectival phrases etc.

Catford is another outstanding scholar who has greatly contributed to the development of the translation study. Concerning the equivalence, Catford (1988) defines it as a replacement of a textual material in one language (SL) by an equivalent textual material in another language (TL). What makes Catford unique in his field is the introduction of types and shifts of translation, which appear during the process of translation. Accordingly, he presents level shift, where the SL item in one certain level (e.g. grammar) is translated with a TL item in another level, and the category shifts which consist of structural, class, unit, and system shifts.

Baker (1992) distinguishes four different levels of equivalence in relation of the translation process.

- Equivalence at word level and above word level
- Grammatical equivalence
- Textual equivalence
- Pragmatic equivalence

In this paper we are going to scrutinize the first division, the equivalence at word level, and see the concepts and rules of its function.

2. Non-equivalence at Word Level

Non-equivalence in the process of translation is a very common problem which may appear at different linguistic levels. One of the first elements to be considered during the translation process, in the bottom up approach, is the word equivalence. The lack of equivalence in this linguistic level appears as a result of the distinct lexical and morphological features of SL and TL. There are different reasons and factors to be considered for the lack of equivalence at this basic level of translation, i.e. word level, and regarding this issue Baker (1992) gives a list of some common types of non-equivalence and some strategies for dealing with them.

2.1. Culture Specific Concepts

Every language tends to posses certain culture specific words that bear a unique meaning for that culture and language. Normally these words are associated with the religious belief, custom or type of food. There are many such culture specific examples across languages such as the abstract concept of "speaker" (of the House of Commons), which has no equivalent in some languages such as Russian, Chinese and Arabic. A good Albanian example for this type of non-equivalence represents the noun 'besa' which is almost impossible to be translated in any other language, but carrying a very unique meaning in its SL.

2.2. The Lack of a Lexicalized Item in the TL

Certain SL concepts may happen to be quite well understood in the TL, but the TL lacks a lexicalized unit to transfer this meaning. A good example to illustrate this type of non-equivalence is the English word 'landslide' which, even though well understood, does not have a translation equivalent in many languages.

2.3. The SL Word is Semantically Complex

The morphological complexity of a concept does not necessarily result in a semantically complex meaning. There are examples where one single word carries semantically quite a complex meaning and mostly these examples refer to cultural specific terms.

2.4. The SL and TL Make Different Distinctions in Meaning

This problem of non-equivalence happens when the SL makes more or fewer distinctions in meaning than the TL. Under such circumstances, very often, the context is the element that helps the translator which lexis to use.

2.5. The Target Language Lacks a Superordinate Term or a Hyponim

There are languages that are rich in terms of hyponyms, but have no general term to cover the general meaning, or vice versa. An example for the lack of superordinate term is the English term 'facilities', which does not have a ready equivalent in the Russian language. Instead, the Russian language has a very well developed system of hyponyms, which stand for the different types of facilities.

2.6. Differences in Expressive Meaning

The difference in expressive meaning is a very important aspect of translation, as its ignorance may lead to various uncomfortable situations. Words like "homosexuality" and other sexually related terms provide good examples for this illustration. "Homosexuality" is not an inherently pejorative word in English, although it is often used in this way. In addition, the pejorative meaning of this term is more present in Arabic, a fact which makes its use in neutral context almost impossible.

2.7. Differences in Form

Many languages tend to have certain grammatical forms that do not have direct translation equivalents in the TL. These are various prefixes and suffixes used with the aim of adding propositional meaning to the language. A good example for the existence of such forms are certain grammatical forms in languages like Albanian, Serbo-Croatian, Turkish etc, which express optative mood. Moreover, there are many languages that do not possess such equivalent forms in their structures and as such need to use other mechanisms to achieve the same effect.

2.8. The Use of Loan Words in the SL

Loan words trigger another serious problem in the process of translation. Within this framework there are the 'false pairs' which are words or expressions that have the same form but convey different meanings. False pairs are normally associated with historically and culturally related languages like English, German, French, but also with more distant ones like Japanese and Russian.

3. Strategies for Overcoming the Problem of Non-equivalence at Word Level

The problem of non-equivalence is a very common problem in the translation practice. In order to overcome these difficulties and deal with them confidently, we are going to present some common strategies used by experienced translators. According to Baker (1992) these are the following useful strategies for overcoming non-equivalence.

3.1. Translation by a Superordinate

This is one of the most frequently used strategies in the daily practice. Below you can find an example to illustrate this strategy. In this example the meaning of the verb 'wash' includes the meaning of the verb 'shampoo', and thus conveys the same propositional meaning.

Source text: Shampoo the hair with a mild WELLA-SHAMPOO.

Target text : *Wash hair with a mild WELLA-SHAMPOO.*

3.2. Translation by a More Neutral/Less Expressive Word

It happens very often that the word equivalents do not have the same degree of expressive meaning in the SL and TL. The following example illustrates a translation by a less expressive and more formal equivalent than the one used in the SL.

Source text: *The mountain home of panda is wet and lush.*

Target text: *The mountain habitat of panda is wet and lush.* (back translated from Chinese)

3.3. Translation by Cultural Substitution

This strategy represents another canny approach to the problem of non-equivalence used by translators. It is used when the translator wants to achieve the same impact on the reader as the word used in the SL. These words are normally associated with the cultural and historical values of the language and nation, and as such, cannot have the same impact and meaning in the other cultures.

Source text: *The Patrick Collection has restaurant facilities to suit every taste – from the discerning gourmet, to the Cream Tea expert.*

Target text: ....*to satisfy all tastes - from those of the demanding gastronomists to those of the expert in pastry.* (back translated from Italian).

3.4. Translation by Using a Loan Word

This strategy is also used to deal with the culture specific items, modern words, etc. This happens when the translator decides to keep the original word and may additionally give explanation to its meaning. The loan word, in these cases, is normally put in inverted commas.

3.4. Translation by a Paraphrase Using a Related Word

This strategy is normally used when the concept exists in both languages, but their lexicalization in both languages differs in terms of its form and frequency of usage.

Source text: *Hot and cold food and drinks can be found in the Hornet's Nest, overlooking the Alexick Hall.*

Target text: *In the Hornet's Nest, which overlooks the Alexick-Hall, you can have hot and cold meals and drinks.* (back translated from German)

3.5. Translation by Omission

Omission is another strategy used by translators under certain circumstances. If the item is not vital to the meaning of the phrase, or its absence does not hinder the reader from understanding the meaning of the text, the translator may decide to ignore these words or concepts.

3.6. Translation by Illustration

This is a very useful strategy for cases when the TL lacks an equivalent, but on the other hand, it refers to a physical entity which can easily be illustrated to convey the meaning.

4. Conclusion

Non-equivalence at word level represents a very common challenge in the practice of translation, and as such, attracts the attention of many scholars around the world. The translators, on the other side, ought to be aware of all the difficulties that this problem poses, and need to make careful and wise choices when translating these problematic concepts. Furthermore, they need to be well acquainted with the grammatical, cultural and religious characteristics of both languages in order to convey author's closest intended meaning, and still sound authentic and original in the TL.

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AN APPROACH TO CONSECUTIVE INTERPRETING INSTRUCTION

Igor Lakić

1. Introduction

Very often people, sometimes even students of foreign languages, do not make a difference between interpreting and translation. A simple explanation is that translation is written and interpreting oral. This disctinction certainly requires different approaches to the job of translator and interpreter respectively, although they do have some common characteristics.

One of the basic things that distinguishes interpreting and translation is probably a different approach to the text or utterance that is transferred to the target language. Thus, Nolan (2005: 3) says:

> The translator relies mainly on thorough research with background materials and dictionaries in order to produce the most accurate and readable written translation possible. The interpreter relies mainly on the ability to get the gist of the message across to the target audience at the spot.

This implies that translation is aimed at looking for as precise translation of sentences as possible, providing exact equivalents for the words used, with the purpose to convey the meaning of the source language in the best possible way. Interpeting, on the other hand, is similar in that it is also aimed at conveying the meaning precisely, but is not focused on precision in terms of vocabulary. Interpreters do not have the time to think of synonyms and select the best ones. They simply produce speeches in the target language having in mind the meaning, rather then individual words. Of course, good and experienced interpreters will also be precise in selecting the appropriate terminolgy adapted to the register used by the speaker.

There are different types of interpreting. The most common type of interpreting in the world is the so-called *conference interpreting*, which can be *consecutive* (after the source langauge utterance) and *simulataneous* (as the source language text is being presented) (Pöchhacker, 2007: 18). As for consecutive interpreting, which often implies interpretation of longer utterances, sometimes several minutes long, note-taking is an important skill to acquire. When this type of interpreting is done in negotiations, in communication between doctors and patients or in courts, where only a sentence or two are produced in the source language and then interpreted, it is called *dialogue interpreting* (also *bilateral interpreting* or *liaison interpreting*) (Pöchhacker, 2007: 16). This is just a form of consecutive interpreting.

In this paper, I will focus on some characteristics of consecutive and simulatenoues interpreting. After that I will discuss the communicative and pedagogical features of interpreters and stages in their work. Finally, I will provide some ways in which classes of consecutive interpreting, or rather dialogue interpreting, are organised at the Institute of Foreign Languages, University of Montenegro. It is important to stress here that the students of the first year are mainly exposed to dialogue interpreting as the most frequent, or rather, the only type of consecutive interpreting in the country.

2. Characteristics of Consecutive and Simultaneous Interpreting

These two types of interpeting have quite a lot of things in common, but there are aspects that are different. Let us consider some of them.

Consecutive interpreting is increasingly used in the EU institutions. Although people may have an impression that EU institutions function mainly through simultaneous interpreting, the need for consecutive interpreting is constant in different meetings, press conferences etc.

It is ideal for small meetings. In small meetings, with just several people, there is no need to work with booths, equipment etc. In such a way, it requires less space and fewer people and is therefore less expensive. During the meetings interpreters have direct contact with speakers, which may facilitate the process of interpreting.

In addition, consecutive interpreting is used in courts, hospitals and other institutions, where there is no need for booths and equipment. Communication with the defendants in court, inmates in prison, ill people in hospitals, immigrants or asylum seekers and many other groups is carried out mainly through consecutive, or rather dialogue interpreting.

Finally, consecutive interpreting requires skills of analysis, note taking and memorising. These three features are crucial in this job and without them it is virtually impossible to do the job properly. These features will be discussed in more detail later in the paper.

Simultenous interpreting includes listening, analysis and delivering the message at the same time, which is a difficult skill that needs to be developed. It is therefore very complex and demanding. Another difficulty is that there is no contact with the speakers since interpreters sit in a booth. This requires excellent command of a large number of skills and sub-skills. In addition, simultaneous interpreting requires excellent knowledge of the languages used, excellent general knowledge and the knowledge of the topic, although this is also true of consecutive interpreting.

The main difference is that they require different types of concentration. Consecutive implies excellent memory and note-taking skills, while the delivery in simultaneous interpreting is almost instant because the interpreter follows the speaker, speaking at the same time. With conecutive, interpreter gets the whole message which they then convey, while simultaneous interpreters do not have the whole message, which means that some prediction skills can be useful. That is why using several skills at the same time is necessary in simultaneous interpreting.

Following the line of thoughts and the links between them is characteristic for both types, but this skill is studied through consecutive interpreting.

3. Interpreter as a Teacher and Communicator

Interpreting is like teaching, in a way, because an interpreter does not only convey the message mechanically into another language but often has to explain what was said. Roderick Jones (2007: 4) says:

> the interpreter is called in to *explain* what each of the participants wishes to say in turn. The interpreter should have something of a pedagogical streak, their work being one of continuous *explanation* and *explication*. Unlike a teacher, the interpreter does not express

their own message; but like a teacher, their task is to make sure that the message is genuinely assimilated by the audience.

Interpreters are expected to provide faithful reproduction of the speech they are interpreting. However, if it is necessary for the audience to understand properly the message, the interpreter may deviate slightly from the original, without changing the meaning or provide additional information in order to bridge a gap in understanding when necessary. This certainly requires a pedagogical streak in the interpeter, whose delivery, reminding of explaining, is essential for a good interpretation.

This also means that interpreters need to have qualities necessary for doing the job satisfactorilly. Not every person is ready and apt to be an interpeter. Therefore, future students of interpreting need to pass an aptitude test to qualify for studying interpreting.

There are a number of qualities that ideal candidates need to have. Here are some of them:

- Excellent knowledge of their mother tongue (language A), as well as B and C languages – fluency, accuracy etc.
- Excellent general knowledge – this is the quality that is a must; without it, it is practically impossible to be a good interpreter;
- Knowledge of registers, terminology, specialised knowledge (law, economics…)
- Making glossaries – good interpreters have their own glossaries; sometimes interpreter can do a certain topic years after he/she did it for the first time and the glossary is there to shorten the period of preparation for the conference;
- Ability to deliver information – some people are simply not eloquent, concentrated enough or cannot overcome stage fright;
- Manners of delivery
- Communication skills
- Analytical skills/logical reasoning
- Skills of synthesis
- Presentation skills
- Good memory
- Time management
- Stress management – this is closely linked to the communication and presentation skills, but also to the ability to deliver the information; interpreting can be stressful and managing stress is crucial for successful interpreting.

In addition, interpreting requires:

- Life-long learning
- Intellectual curiosity
- Motivation
- Adaptability
- Self-confidence, determination
- Ethics

Obviously, it takes a lot to become a good interpreter. There are many requirements that need to be met. The road to becoming a good interpreter is therefore long. Only the best ones can pass the accreditation test with the European Commission in Brussels. This very demanding test implies consecutive interpreting of 6-minute speeches from and into A and B languages and from C into A and B languages. A chunk of 6 minutes is certainly long and can be dealt with only if all the above mentioned requirements are met. The candidates are expected to do retour (from and into a language). In addition, candidates interpret 10-minute speeches simultaneously for the languages they want to be accredited for. Therefore, good training is essential to pass a test like this.

4. Stages in the Work of a Consecutive Interpreter

There are three stages in the work of a consecutive interpreter, according to Jones (2007, 11-38):

- Understanding
- Analysis and memorising
- Delivery of the message

4.1. Understanding

Very often, students have problems in delivery because they concentrate on words, rather than ideas and meanings. As I have already mentioned, interpreting is about conveying ideas rather than sticking to individual words. When thinking about words, students start panicking if they think they do not know their meaning, neglecting the information and losing the track of the speech. Jones (2007: 37) says: "A literal, word for word interpretation is not only undesirable, it is often impossible".

The point is to train students to listen to the ideas expressed and get the meaning of unknown words, if necessary, from the context".

However, in order to understand ideas it is important to have good knowledge of the topic (who, what, when, why, how). Good preparation is therefore necessary and through the process it is easy to pick up the new words anyway.

Understanding certainly implies excellent knowledge of both languages. It may, however, happen that the interpreter may fail to understand bits of the speech and the question is what to do in such a situation. Certainly, in closed and small meetings it is always advisable to ask the speaker to repeat or explain what he/she meant. When the interpreter is in front of a huge audience, where it would be inappropriate to ask these questions, it is better to skip that part than to distort the meaning by improvising. However, the interpreter should be able to conclude how to act in such situations.

4.2. Analysis

This type of speech can help the interpreter in thinking about the appropriate strategies and vocabularly once they start interpreting. Jones (2007: 14-15) mentions the following types of speeches:

- *argumentative* speeches include different points of view of a given topic, as well as pros and cons, and lead to a synthetic conclusion;
- *narrative* speeches follow chronological sequence of events;
- *descriptive* speeches describe a scene, event or statistical data and can be quite frequent in conferences;
- *polemical* speeches are those in which the speaker tries to convince the audience into his/her attitudes;
- *rhetorical* speeches are speeches where the content is of secondary importance and the goal is to leave an impression.

Characteristics of the speeches impose a need for a selection of appropriate langauge units which, if well predicted and planned, can certainly facilitate the process of interpreting.

4.3. Message Delivery

A good interpreter is a good communicator. It means that the interpreter needs to establish contact with the audience from the beginning, by introducing himself/herself and by establishing eye contact. The interpreter is an important link in the process and it is therefore important to act accordingly.

The interpreter has to be efficient in his/her work. Interpretation should be shorter by a quarter than the original. Speakers sometimes unnecessarily repeat ideas, make pauses and that is where a good interpreter can achieve efficiency and save time for other things.

In the whole process, the interpreter, no matter how improtant he/she is for the process, must sometimes be creative, original but remain inconspicuous at the same time.

Jones (2007: 3) gives important advice: "The more creative the interpreter, the more they are faithful to the text; the more original they are – enhancing communication – the less obtrusive they are to the participants of the meeting."

5. Interpreting Classes

It would be wrong to think that interpreting courses include language training. Once someone decides to come to an interpreting course, their language skills need to be very developed, because an interpreting course is not a language course, it is a course of developing interpreting skills.

At the very outset, students should be trained to concentrate, listen and analyse the speech they are listening to. This is not an easy task, though, as many students tend to concentrate on individual words, rather than on the meaning, which makes the delivery virtually impossible. One should have in mind that this type of listening is different from the normal one, when we think about response. In this situation, the interpreter has to reproduce the speech in the target language. That is why analytical skill and good memory are of crucial importance, in addition to concentration. Developing of these skills must start from the very beginning of the interpretation training.

The training is organised in three stages:

- memory exercises
- transition stage
- interpreting stage

Memory exercises are aimed at memorising the utterance of the source language. The purpose is also to make students think how they perceive the information, how they analyse it and what logic they find in the message in order to memorise it. It is important to mention that no interpreting takes place at this point. Students just repeat the information in the same language they receive it. The purpose is to concentrate on the information rather than interpretation.

The exercise usually starts with repetition of numbers. Students listen to numbers which they repeat, first shorter ones (17, 25, 145 etc.) and then those with 6 or more digits. In consecutive interpreting numbers are certainly not memorised (note-taking is of use here), but the purpose of this exercise is to make students create associations or memorise numbers in their own way. This develops analytical skills up to an extent.

The next exercise implies repetition of directions in combination with numbers (eg. 25 left, 37 right, 27 left, 69 right...).

These exercises, which turn out to be fun, make students realise the importance of thinking about the information and analysing it.

The next exercise includes repetition of sentences, again in the source language. Students are advised to focus on the information, not individual words. However, students here single out several key words that summarise the idea expressed in the sentence.

Finally, students listen to short texts and retell them with as many details as possible, again in the source language. Classroom discussion on the manner the students remember the information can be of great use to everyone as it may give some idea to the students who have not found their own way how to organise information.

Many of our students who had had some interpreting experience before they came to the course told us that the biggest problem for them was the fact that they concentrated on how to interpret the information they were listening to. The next problem was the panic they had once they thought that the did not know a word. As a result, somewhere towards the end of sentences they simply did not follow the information and could not interpret what was said. This kind of exercise, where students focus on the information and not on interpretation, helped those students overcome the problem.

Transition stage is the stage where interpreting is introduced. In this stage students listen to the information and then repeat it in the same language to make sure that the information is properly understood. After that, they translate it into the target language. It helps students focus on the information rather than interpretation, just like in the previous stage, but in this case they go one step forward.

Translation is introduced after two weeks of exercises in the first two stages. Students start from easier to more complex speeches, as well as from known to unknown ones, without note-taking, which is introduced in the next semester.

The experience with our students show that the transition stage is very important for making them focus on the information and meaning rather than words.

6. Conclusion

The role of interpreters is crucial in that they enable communication that would be otherwise impossible. However, that does not mean that they should be the focus of attention. On the contrary, they need to be unobtrusive, ensuring at the same time smooth communication.

Candidates for interpreting courses need to meet a number of requirements, such as the excellent knowledge of the languages they interpret from and into, broad general knowledge, good memory and analytical skills and many others. They need to understand that interpreting is not mechanical transfer of utterances from one language into another with a focus on every individual word but rather the process in which meanings are conveyed. Therefore, candidates need to show that they possess some of these qualities or at least a potential to develop them. The training of interpreters has to be well structured and carried out under the guidance of experienced interpreters.

Interpreters are mediators in communication. Thus, they are not just technical persons in meetings and conferences, but an important link that enable communication among participants.

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SKILLS IN SIMULTANEOUS INTERPRETATION

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Instead of an Introduction

Language is simply alive, like an organism. We all tell each other this, in fact, when we speak of living languages, and I think we mean something more than an abstract metaphor. We mean alive. Words are the cells of language, moving the great body, on legs. Language grows and evolves, leaving fossils behind. The individual words are like different species of animals. Mutations occur. Words fuse, and then mate. Hybrid words and wild varieties or compound words are the progeny. Some mixed words are dominated by one parent while the other is recessive. The way a word is used this year is its phenotype, but it has deeply immutable meanings, often hidden, which is its genotype. The separate languages of the Indo-European family were at one time, perhaps five thousand years ago, maybe much longer, a single language. The separation of the speakers by migrations had effects on language comparable to the speciation observed by Darwin on various islands of the Galapagos. Languages became different species, retaining enough resemblance to an original ancestor so that the family resemblance can still be seen. (Lewis Thomas)

I start this paper fascinated by Lewis Thomas's words on language, that express the best introduction of what language is in the function of transcoding it into another one. That is why I use the words of Lewis Thomas as an illustrative passage within the theme of simultaneous interpretation. So, every simultaneous interpreter should have the above words in mind when dealing with translation of spoken words.

Here will be considered parameters, provided equipment, highly skilled professionals and outcome results obtained during simultaneous translating, done by fourth year students of the Faculty of Foreign Languages in Belgrade. The research was done in five days work of 35 hours, with 50 students instructed by the professional team[9] of a professor, an assistant and two technicians who have been recording students' interpreting and equipped them with professional cabin equipment, including microphones and headphones.

1. Students' Working Instructions

Learning tactics always require a type of struggle. If there is no struggle, then the student already knows, or does not want to know any more. Professional learning environments are safe places to struggle, where the teacher poses problems and then facilitates learning. The goal of this practice is to create independent student interpreters. This is accomplished by the supervision of 35 hours of students' professional practice.

The below listed exercises are based on experiences gained in the students' training for future simultaneous interpreters. These exercises are designed to build skills in the methods of simultaneous interpretation.

The purpose of the exercises is to show that the students should become more aware of the speaker with whom they identify and how they are affected by his/her speech. The exercises emphasize (Selešković, Lederer 2007:190-197): 1) *dual-tasking,* 2) *input analysis,* 3) *transcoding battle* - foreign language knowledge can influence native language performance in exclusively native contexts, 4) *audio-visual terminology management* – in order to assure consistency and quality of all the students' translations, 5) *interpretation transfer* – the interpreter repeats everything the speaker says verbatim (word for word), 6) *avoiding* delays in *interpretation* analysis *techniques* – data analysis and interpretation, 7) summarizing, *paraphrasing and* retelling *of speech* and 8) *working memory training.*

The parameters listed here below are based on experiences gained in the training of the fourth year students and they emphasize *dual-tasking* and *input analysis*.

9 Bojović B, PhD Docent, Parezanović T, PhD student, two technicians from the Translation Centre of the Association of Scientific and Technical Translators of Serbia, Belgrade.

Online students' problems	Students' mistakes	Error correction by teacher	Students' feedback
1. strong accent	25%	15-20%	15-20%
2. incorrect grammar	20%		
3. incorrect lexical usage	25%		
4. linguistic and reasoning style	Comprehension of the texts is very good, (13% short memory)		
5. saturation, reformulation in TL, delaying tactic	15%	15%	15%
6. the subjective impression of interpreter about language flexibility	Comment: it is enjoyable to listen to the students		
7. the efficiency of tactics, looking for a term in a dictionary or finding an important word in a document which was read and marked before the conference	10%	10%	10%
8. reformulation tactics	Instant naturalization		
9. optimize quality on the basis of meaning not form	Self confidence 90%		
10. parallel reformulation, invent a speech segment	Proper dealing with translation techniques, (10% only with mistakes)		

Table of the parameters for students

It is recognized that formal training in translation schools is the most practical way to teach and test abilities to provide the market with reliable professionals (see Gile 2009). The training of students is based on professional experience, techniques, strategies and tactics used and learned at our translation classes in the previous semester. According to my experience, only students provided with an appropriate framework, can understand the professor's suggestions, which guide them to analyze rationally and attain optimum quality through language analyisis. The diversity of texts and parameters gave optimal results in such a highly professional group.

2. Students' Interpreting Results and Their Effects on Future Work

95	95	95
100	95	90
100	100	100
90	95	95
90	85	85
80	80	80
100	90	90
90	90	95
95	95	95
95	100	95
85	95	90
90	90	85
90	95	90
80	100	90
90	95	80
80	100	95
90	95	100
75	75	90
70	70	60
90	90	90
90	100	95
90	100	95
90	85	90
90	95	90
90	95	95
80	80	85
85	90	90
100	95	90
100	100	100
90	95	95

100	100	100
95	90	100
100	90	90
95	100	100
100	100	95
95	95	95
90	85	85
100	100	100
100	100	100
85	95	90
95	95	100
100	100	100
90	95	95
90	95	100
91.25	93.30	92.39
	STUDENTS' PERCENTAGE POINTS	92.31

The percentage table determined by the points achieved in interpreting the practice texts

Shown above is the percentage table of the students obtained on the basis of the points achieved in the practice texts interpreting from **E-S, S-E, ESP-S**[10]. The texts were taken from various sources, but they are authentic, in order to enrich the students' experience in the use of English.

Bilingual interpretation produced no significant losses in the amount of information conveyed. The result of 92.31 % suggested that the interpreting procedure of matching up *input* and *output* language items occurs in excellent simultaneous interpretation. Simultaneous interpretation is viewed as an issue of both cognitive and linguistic interest. These two tables of parameters and percentages were designed to measure the intelligibility, informativeness of transmitted message and the efficiency of interpreting tactics. The three category texts were read

[10] **E-S** (English-Serbian), **S-E**(Serbian-English), **ESP-**S(English for Specific Purposes-*Legal English*-Serbian); Points are from **0-100**.
Bold numbers **91.25**; **93.30**; **92.39** are their results for their individual text interpreting from E-S, S-E and ESP-S).

aloud and simultaneously interpreted. The first materials were the ones for "warming up", in the sense that there were general English texts in two directions with the highest intelligibility and informativeness scores of 91. 25 % and 93. 30 % for each table column.

The results of the first table of parameters showed very high quality interpreting including: 1) almost excellent knowledge of the working language and coping with interpreting problems (meaning noisy channel or other sound interferences); 2) capacity analysis; 3) capacity for synthesis; 4) excellent capacity for concentration; 5) excellent linguistic and reasoning style and reformulation tactics; 6) around 13% of short-term memory in translation of unknown names which were composed of several words.

Interpreting simultaneously, the interpreter is separated in the cabin. He/she speaks simultaneously as the speaker does, so he/she does not have to memorize or write down what has been said. On the other hand, the phases of comprehension and expression are intertwined. The interpreter formulates the message on the basis of semantic extracts, he expresses a comprehensive thought while analysing and comprehending the other one (Seleskovic 1988:158). The first translation theorist who was interested in the cognition of translation was Seleskovic D, Paris. As a conference interpreter she tried to analyze the mental mechanisms of interpreting, through introspection and field observation. Her theory was central in the 1970's and it is still influential.

The rhythm of the speaker is intruded upon by the interpreter, although they (the speaker and interpreter) can be different in spirit and start from a totally different basis in information processing (Seleskovic 1988:159).

Availability issues in English language production were easily detected, because all of the students were aware of and recognized hesitations when they could not remember a particular word or phrase. The concrete manifestation of not having language available was evidenced by hesitational pauses, but they were successfully changed with a descriptive solution.

In interpreting, constraints are strongly determined by the speakers' style, including language, voice, accent, rhythm and other delivery parameters, but also by insufficient availability of documents for preparation and by the working environment. (Gile 2009:231).

3. New Technologies in the Service of Teaching

Translation schools at universities have a double role: to educate professional translators, who will be able to easily find employment and to cultivate the nature of the spirit of a translator, to accept various views, whether they are totally opposite to their own. It is important that translators should have a wide knowledge and know how to connect it with the given context. In that sense new communication and information technologies are of great use and help. (Selešković-Lederer 2007:357).

The general knowledge of a translator is of enormous importance, including knowing about at least three different cultures, that open up to him/her a way to new ones.

The source language word may express a concept which is totally unknown in the target culture. The concept in question may be abstract or concrete; it may relate to a religious belief, a social custom, or even a type of food. Such concepts are often referred to as culture specific. (Baker 1999:21)

The process of globalization has certainly favored English. English has become the language of international communication, the language of international business and academic conferences, and it has been used in almost every field of work from science to advertising. Modern times are based on computerized technology of Internet media, the networked society and the growing influence of new technologies. Undoubtedly, all of the above is reflected in the making of new words, terms and social nets, which are all connected to contemporary culture and its new forms of communication technologies. Cultural digitalization has become universal. So, cultures are constantly changing, thus causing mobility of students as well as teachers. But one of the most important things that teachers should recognize is to encourage students' participation in practical classroom (translation centre) activities guided by a professional coach. Cultural factors determine, to a varying extent, the way information is expressed in each language. Another language-specific factor is the *similarity* or lack thereof between the source language and the target language in lexical, syntactic, and general information terms. With respect to lexical units, phonetic or morphological similarity between the source-language word and a target-language word may accelerate the retrieval of an appropriate target-language word from long-term memory. (Gile 2009:185). In spite of good preparation in many fields, gaps in the students' knowledge are inevitable. For to be an excellent interpreter you are supposed to have broad general knowledge and deepen it constantly. Such general language difficulties affect both comprehension and production. When interpreters are aware of actual or potential comprehension and reformulation problems, they tend to use a rather small set of coping tactics to limit their impact. (Gile 2009:179) So called *extralinguistic knowledge* is knowledge of reality as opposed to knowledge of the language or *linguistic knowledge*.

Concluding Remarks

To sum up, the performed practical work, exercises and training are designed specifically to build skills involved in simultaneous translation. For maximum routinization, all fourth grade students should practice their language knowledge in a Translation Centre, because these centres are the source of the professional work. The students were encouraged to exchange their opinions about various texts and passages they analyzed and translated personally. Professional development means working on oneself, as well as sharing knowledge and experience with others in the students groups.

Concluding this paper it must be said that simultaneous translation needs a high degree of skills mastership in order to be successful. Technical conditions with cabin equipment, sound transmission, various technical channels, headphones and good volume are the prerequisites of successful simultaneous translation work.

As has been shown, simultaneous translation is a very demanding discipline. Professional and personal preparation for simultaneous or conference interpreting should be fundamental and it needs much time. The subject of this paper was to resolve ambiguities about qualitative simultaneous interpreting. However, the basic aim was to follow the speaker in his/her communicative intention and register. While listening to colleagues' simultaneous interpreting very much was learnt, and attention was especially paid to the way they dealt with crisis places when they come up to. A survey and team work conducted at the Translation Centre showed that a simultaneous interpreting course at university level plays an indispensable part in the overall education of future language professors and professionals.

For these reasons we have used well known translation techniques, strategies and methods in translation, learned in the first semester of our teaching (see Hlebec B). The strategies were identified by an examination of authentic examples of the interpreted passages and texts in English and Serbian, along with good knowledge of both the source and target languages. Questions of fidelity and the role of translation in literature and culture, an increasing proportion of texts on interpreting and translation are becoming technical and specific and focus on linguistic, psycholinguistic, terminological and professional issues (Gile 2009). He also pointed out that the learning and interpreting strategies advocated by teachers were the best done exercises for interpreting tasks, adding that training methods should be constantly improved and keep pace with the fast technological changes in the world. I choose Gile's definition of interpreting, translation and training in order to have a concluding picture of it. He says that interpreting and translation can be defined as performing essentially the same function, namely re-expressing in one language what has been expressed in another for communication or other purposes. Formal training is not mandatory, but it can perform at least two important functions. One is to help individuals who wish to become professional interpreters or translators enhance their performance to *the full realization of their potential*. The other is to help them develop their translation skills *more rapidly* than through field experience and self-instruction, which may involve grouping in the dark and learning by trial-and-error.

Recently, having read a new handbook of practical grammar of the English language for high school students named *English for Perfectionists*, I would honestly add this and recommend it to all future students and interpreters who are dealing with grammar problems, because it would make it easier for them to find a solution for a language problem he/she has found. Also, it is necessary to underline that stylistic, grammatical and meaning perfection could not be assumed at the highest level of equivalence without consultations with native speakers, as the most competent ones, for in this case English.

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INTERPRETATION TIPS AND TRICKS – "WHAT IF?"

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In the practice of language interpretation, whether consecutive or simultaneous, the interpreter inevitably faces some challenges along the way, which can cause problems for the unprepared.

This paper has two main goals. The first is to provide students with some basic strategies and advice for dealing with bumps along the road of their possible future jobs in interpretation, to use as a starting point in developing their individual methods and practices. The second is to propose some techniques for sharpening their interpretation skills.

What is What

The most obvious difference between translation and interpretation is in that the former is usually in writing, whereas the latter is oral. The translator has the time and resources to make the end-product quite faithfully convey the meaning of the original text to the target language. The interpreter on the other hand performs a live conversion of the general ideas and concepts from the source to the target language. Consecutive interpretation (CI) is a strain on memory capabilities and is more personal, while the simultaneous interpreter only has seconds at his/her disposal to make choices in wording and phrases, and has to be able to listen (i.e. understand) and speak (i.e. produce) at the same time. Simultaneous interpretation (SI) is usually done in teams of at least two people, taking turns interpreting, while the other one(s) can assist by monitoring accuracy and looking up terminology.

Dialogue Simulation

One of the direct techniques for consecutive interpretation practice is simulating a dialog between two parties of different languages. This exercise requires three to four students and a handout containing sample dialog text. Appendix A is an example of a "portion of a discussion between a social worker from a school and a foster parent", taken from Sherwood-Gabrielson et al. (70) and supplemented with the Second Language (in this case Serbian) translation of the speakers' utterances for monitoring purposes.

For this exercise, one student reads the role of the social worker (SW), another student reads the role of the mother (M), and the third student acts as interpreter between the two, of course without having access to the handout. A forth student may be included as additional monitor.

In the first step, student A (SW) speaks, followed by student C (Interpreter) who gives the appropriate interpretation, during which both student A and B monitor its accuracy. Then student B (M) responds, student C interprets, and A and B continue to monitor. The same process is repeated back and forth throughout the dialog. Students can at intervals take turns being SW, M and Interpreter.

Through this exercise students experience the closest thing to the "real deal", meaning that they gain valuable insight into their current competences in information input, processing and output, along with peer evaluation, which gives them an idea of what they should most work on.

Also, they discover some problems and difficulties which are inherent to interpreting between the two specific target languages they deal with, and can be encouraged to work out some possible solutions.

Interpretation is a skill, and just like in any other one, the best way to become good at it is to practice as much as possible. Appendix B (Sherwood-Gabrielson et al., 224) gives step by step exercises for building up competences required for simultaneous interpretation.

Possible Problems in Interpretation

> You know how it happens ... you think they've told you most of what you'll need to know to do your best possible work while being comfortable, safe, and all that; but, what happens? You show up and somewhere between three minutes and three hours later the

thought, '*Darn. I wish someone had told me to expect that!*' pops into your head. Yup. Happens to everyone at some time or another. (Tips for Terps)

Having gone through interpretation exercises, students get an idea of some of the problems that an interpreter can be faced with. One of the most common issues is that you are not familiar with a word, phrase or expression that the speaker uses. In CI, it is best, and no shame at all, to ask for an explanation from the speaker. No one knows all the words in all the languages, and it is far better to ask than to omit what you do not know. In SI, it is best to focus on the meaning of the whole sentence or paragraph rather than on the single word, unless that meaning cannot be conveyed without that word. In that case, do not hesitate to say something like "the interpreter didn't hear/understand the last few phrases/sentences, please ask the speaker to repeat".

More often than not, in CI the speakers get carried away and deliver lengthier segments of speech than is the capacity of the interpreter to remember. In such cases it is, again, no shame and even preferable to ask the speaker to repeat the missing portions. Sometimes all it takes for you to remember a missing segment is to hear a word or two from its beginning. In SI, the speaker can get carried away in such a way to neglect the inevitable delay in rendering the message into the target language, which is due to the specific expressive efficiency of languages, and to deliver their speech too fast. In such cases, feel free to signal the distress you are in to the speaker or attending staff in any way you can, because if the pace is too high you will burn out soon enough and will have insufficient energy for the entire event.

Another situation is when the mood of the conversation between the two sides in CI is emotional or unpleasant. The interpreter should remain impartial and reflect mainly the meaning of the utterances, with a small dose of the original intonation, required by the very nature of the words and phrases used. At times, inexperienced speakers will seem to address the interpreter when speaking, most commonly noticeable in the fact that they tend to look at the interpreter instead at the other party of the conversation. This can lead to both parties developing a sense that they are conversing with the interpreter, further leading to the interpreter being emotionally (and more often than not physically) engaged during the event.

Be Prepared

Once the interpretation has started, it is usually too late to go about learning the new keywords, searching for ventilation if it is too hot in the cabin or something to eat if you get hungry or your sugar level drops. This is why, just like in any other profession, a good preparation is half the work, and there are some things you can do to avoid the most common problems that might arise.

Of course, the first, or "golden rule" of interpretation is to always ask for materials in advance. The more time you have to study the subject-matter, the better a job you will do, and there is nothing more valuable than the actual presentations, outlines and documents that will be presented at the event. You want to have the up-to-date agenda and protocol, in order to be able to plan your time, and preferably meet the presenters and speakers, especially in SI, where the cooperation happens from a distance. It is always good to make the speakers acknowledge your presence and the difficulties of your work, as well as to agree on a way of mutual communication during the event. Always have the speaker (and presentations screens) in line of sight, and make sure you are in theirs. There are other guidelines that you could give to the speakers, and some of them are listed in Appendix C (Blachon).

Although originally created for sign language interpreters, the Tips for Terps page at the TerpTopics online resource provides useful advice for any breed of interpreter, in the form of a list of essential items one should bring to an event. The common sense required to think of bringing these items along only comes after one has faced certain difficulties, so to spare the future interpreter of coming across those difficulties unprepared, here are some of the most common assets in an interpreter's arsenal:

- pencil and paper
- flashlight / portable table light
- water
- snacks and candy/nuts (not ones that make loud noises when opening or eating them)
- cell phone (for emergency contacts; keep on fully silent, possibly with vibration)
- folding chair
- portable fan, etc.

Recent developments in information technology have brought about lightweight and convenient-sized netbooks, tablets and smartphones, which can be of great use for example in SI in quickly looking up the meaning of an unknown word or concept using the appropriate software.

In the End

Of course, most of the methods and techniques offered in this paper are a mere reflection of personal experience and experience gathered from various sources on the web. Ultimately, it is up to the individual interpreter to find their preferred mode of operation, their own practice tools and interpreting practices, and this paper is meant to serve somewhat as a guideline for students who intend to have a crack at language interpretation.

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Appendix A
– Social Services Dialogue –

Portion of a discussion between a social worker from a school and a foster parent.

Context: The foster parent has identified some problem areas at home and has requested assistance from the school social worker in assessing the child's skills and behaviors.
SW = Social worker, speaks in English
M = Mother, speaks in Serbian
INT = Consecutive interpreter, interprets between SW and M.

SW: OK. This is basically saying that you are giving us permission to do an initial assessment to see if she qualifies for special education services. My name is Sara Smith. Here is my business card with my name, phone number, and address. I have a form here that you would need to complete in order for us to do an assessment.
INT: U redu. U suštini, ovime nam dajete do znanja da ste saglasni da izvršimo preliminarnu procjenu da ustanovimo da li zadovoljava uslove za nastavu za djecu sa posebnim potrebama. Ja sam Sara Smit. Izvolite moju vizit-kartu, sa mojim imenom, brojem telefona i adresom. Ovdje imam i obrazac koji bi trebalo da popunite da bismo mogli da izvršimo procjenu.
M: Da li želite da popunim ovaj formular i dam vama?
INT: Do you want me to complete this form and give it to you?
SW: Yes, you would need to sign the form and date it. But first, why don't you tell me about your concerns regarding Mary's development.
INT: Da, trebalo bi da potpišete i napišete datum. Ali prije toga, recite mi šta vas brine u vezi sa Merinim razvojem.
M: Pa, ima problema sa hodanjem na nogama.
INT: Well, she has problems walking on her feet.
SW: Can you describe what you mean?
INT: Možete li mi opisati na šta mislite?
M: Hoda na prstima. Još otkako smo je dobili mnogo hoda na prstima. Štipa se i ponekad se udara nogama. Uskoro će dobijati napade bijesa.
INT: She tiptoes. Since we got her she tiptoes a lot. She pinches and sometimes kicks. She will start having temper tantrums.
SW: Anything else? Speech concerns?
INT: Još nešto? Poteškoće u govoru?
M: Da, jer priča toliko brzo da ne možete razumjeti šta govori. Jedino ako slušate dovoljno pažljivo i dovoljno brzo, tek onda možda možete razumjeti šta govori.
INT: Yeah, because she talks so fast that you cannot understand what she is saying. And if you listen close enough and fast enough, maybe you can understand something that is coming out.
SW: You want us to see if she has some special education needs?
INT: Želite da ustanovimo da li joj je potrebna posebna nastava?
M: Da.
INT: Yeah.
SW: Now, does she have a dentist?
INT: Ovako, ima li svog zubara?
M: Da, zubar joj se zove Dr. Vijeli.

INT: Yeah, her dentist is Dr. Vielli.
SW: How do you spell that?
INT: Kako se to tačno piše?
M: Ne znam, ali mogu saznati.
INT: I don't know, but I can find out for you.
SW: Has she ever been tested by a speech clinician or psychologist?
INT: Da li je ikada bila na pregledu kod stručnjaka za govor ili psihologa?
M: Da, mislim da jeste, ali ne znam ko je bio stručnjak za govor, ali imam izvještaj od psihologa.
INT: Yes, I believe that she has but I don't know who the speech clinician is, but I do have a report from the psychologist.
SW: I would like to take this and make a copy; is that OK?
INT: Htjela bih da ovo kopiram; je li to u redu?
M: Slobodno. Trebaju li vam kopije ičega drugog?
INT: Fine. Do you want copies of anything else?
SW: Sure, whatever you have would be helpful. I would like to make copies and then send them back to you. Are there other agencies besides Clark County that is involved with her?
INT: Svakako, šta god da imate može biti od pomoći. Ja bih napravila kopije pa vama vratila originale. Da li se za njen slučaj brine ijedna druga ustanova osim okruga Klark?
M: Samo okrug Klark.
INT: Just Clark County.
SW: The other questions we need to answer have to do with her birth and you might not have those answers. Did the mother have regular medical care during the pregnancy?
INT: Još nam trebaju odgovori na pitanja vezana za njeno rođenje, a vi možda nemate te odgovore. Da li je majka redovno bila na pregledima tokom trudnoće?
M: Ne, nije imala redovne preglede. To znam.
INT: No, she did not have regular medical care. I do know that.
SW: Did your foster child have any problems when she was born with jaundice, breathing problems, infections, or feeding problems?
INT: Da li je vaše pastorče po rođenju imalo problema sa žuticom, disanjem, infekcijama, ili ishranom?
M: Ne, nije imala problema kada je rođena.
INT: No, she did not have problems when she was born.
SW: Do you know at what age she sat alone, crawled, walked, spoke in two to three word sentences, or was toilet trained?

INT: Znate li u kojem je dobu prvi put sjedila sama, propuzala, prohodala, progovorila u rečenicama od dvije-tri riječi, ili kad je naučila na tutu?
M: Ne znam kad je progovorila ili propuzala. A još uvijek nije naučila na tutu.
INT: I am not sure when she started talking or crawling. She still is not toilet trained.
SW: OK
INT: U redu.
M: Zlostavljali su je.
INT: She was abused.
SW: How was she abused?
INT: Kako su je zlostavljali?
M: Ostavljali su je u sobi sa zaključanim vratima. Nismo tačno sigurni. Ali nešto se dogodilo pa njena majka nije mogla da se uvijek vodi računa o njoj. Ostavljali su je sa drugim ljudima, ne znam ko su oni bili.
INT: She was put in rooms and the doors were probably locked. We don't know for sure. But something happened so her mother was not always able to care for her. She would be left with other people—I'm not sure who they were.
SW: Has she had any other medical problems like hay fever or allergies?
INT: Da li je imala druge zdravstvene probleme, poput polenske groznice ili druge alergije?
M: Ne, ali je imala stomačne probleme.
INT: No, but she is a very fussy eater.
SW: What about her vision? Is that OK?
INT: A kakav joj je vid? Je li dobar?
M: Mislim da jeste.
INT: I think so.
SW: Do you have any other comments that you think would be helpful in completing this assessment?
INT: Ima li još nešto što biste dodali, a da mislite da bi moglo pomoći u ovoj procjeni?
M: Pa, teško mi je razumjeti šta govori, i meni i drugima. Moj muž često mora da je pita da ponovi šta je rekla, pa ni iz drugog puta ne razumije.
INT: Well, her speech is hard for me and other people to understand. Often my husband has to ask her to repeat and then he won't understand it the second time he hears it.
SW: Do you have concerns about how she plays or does things?
INT: Brine li vas kako se igra ili radi neke stvari?
M: Kad pokuša da sastavi slagalicu, ne može da uklopi dijelove.

INT: If she is trying to put a puzzle together, she can not coordinate the pieces.
SW: All of this is very helpful. I will make the copies I need and then we will have you sign this form. Thank you for the information; it has been very helpful and I think we can get Mary assessed to see if she needs some special education services.
INT: Ovo je sve bilo korisno. Iskopiraću dokumente i onda ćete mi potpisati ovaj obrazac. Hvala vam na informacijama; bili ste od pomoći, i mislim da ćemo moći izvršiti procjenu da vidimo da li Meri treba nastava za djecu sa posebnim potrebama.
M: Hvala vam na pomoći.
INT: Thank you for your help.

Appendix B
– SI exercises –

Simultaneous Interpreting:
(take it step-by-step with these exercises)

Take the approach of a professional athlete and divide up the simultaneous interpreting task into its constituent skills: listening, analysis, understanding, short term memory, re-producing, self-monitoring. Work on these skills separately and gradually build up to using them all at the same time.

1. As you walk down the street repeat the license plates of vehicles that pass you, as well as the color and make of the car. Try to remember as many as you can and then repeat the details back to yourself. When this becomes easy try translating the information into your second language.
2. Take a piece of paper and divide it into two columns. Listen to two tapes (in your two languages) and take notes on both at the same time, dividing your notes into the appropriate column. This helps you to cultivate split attention.
3. Listen to the stock exchange announcements in both of your languages or have a friend read you an article from the financial section of the newspaper. Note down all the figures to work on accuracy of numbers and names.

4. To improve your short term memory take a text, read the first sentence, cover it and repeat it. Then read the first and second sentences, cover them and repeat them. Then read the first, second and third sentence... and so on...
5. Increase you concentration levels by listening to and/or shadowing a radio program with a lot of background noise (your kids watching cartoons for example!) This will increase your ability to concentrate massively.
6. 'Shadow' a radio broadcast. This means repeating exactly what you hear word for word but with a time lag of a few seconds. As this becomes easier try to increase the time lag between you and the original, to paraphrase or to work in your second language.
7. Practice 'frozen' interpreting. For example listen to a section of speech, stop the recording and then interpret it instantly afterwards. This practices all of the elements of simultaneous interpreting but removes the time pressure. When you have practiced the recording a few times and are familiar with it try to simultaneously interpret several sections without stopping the recording.
8. Maintain a log book in which you record progress made and weaknesses to work on. Divide this book into two sections: one for 'generative' mistakes that you can work on that will have more of an impact (e.g., not saying 'urn' or 'err' when interpreting) and one for one-time errors (e.g., items of vocabulary).
9. Try to simultaneously paraphrase - from English to English, etc. Leave a short time lag (until you have a unit of meaning) and then start to simultaneously paraphrase what you are listening to in a radio broadcast/on a recording. Radio is better than TV as it is generally slower and the meaning is contained in the words, without images supporting the meaning.
10. Listen to an interview or other broadcast in your second language on the radio and silently (just mentally) interpret it into your mother tongue language. Then try to interpret it out loud—and compare the difficulty.

Additional resources for simultaneous interpreting

1. DeGroot, Annette M.B. The cognitive study of translation and interpretation. *Cognitive Processes in Translation and Interpreting.* (1997). Pp. 25-56.

2. Gonzalez, Roseann Duenas, Victoria F. Vasquez, and Holly Mikkelson. *Fundamentals of Court Interpretation.* (1991). (Simultaneous Interpreting chapter.)
3. Mikkelson, Holly. *The Interpreter's Edge*, Generic Edition (all languages), www. acebo.com.
4. Patrie, Carol. *Effective Interpreting Series: Simultaneous Interpreting from English* (Study Set on DVD.)
www.dawnsign.com/shopping/Detail.cfm7ProductlD=184.
5. Visson, Lynn. *From Russian into English: An Introduction to Simultaneous Interpretation*, second edition. (1999). Focus Publishing / R. Pullins Company.

Appendix C
– guidelines for speakers in SI –

"Your presentation is going to be reproduced simultaneously by one or several interpreters into one or several foreign languages. In order to make sure that your audience gets the full benefit of your 'performance,' please consider the following points to ensure your interpreters can do justice to it.

*Speak slowly, and...
...Pause between sentences, and/or after you've made a point.
==> Especially if you are reading your presentation. Interpreters cannot 'think up' words and appropriate expressions in the target language as fast as you can pronounce them.

They may need to use more words than you to express the same thing, especially if you've had time to review and polish your speech, and they are doing it in a split second. They will need time to catch up with what you are saying, and can only do so when you pause.

* Beware of your accent. Try to speak in as neutral an accent as possible, and/or slow down.
==> Whether you are a native speaker of English or not, your interpreters might have difficulties if they can't understand your accent. They may be from a different area, or a different English-speaking country, or they may themselves be non-native speakers of English.

* Check with the interpreters all throughout during the presentation.
==> Make sure everything is fine (the speed of your delivery, the sound system, ...) You can a) look at them in the booth and/or b) ask them directly: they hear you! Remember to do so regularly during the whole presentation.

* Speak loudly, clearly, and close to the microphone.
==> Make sure your interpreters can hear you well. If you don't have a lapel mike, and move away from the podium, chances are they will not be able to hear and understand what you are saying, and will not be able to translate anymore.
* Repeat questions from the audience.
==> Often interpreters cannot hear the audience, and will not be able to translate the question to the rest of the non-English speaking audience, or simply might not be able to understand your answer. Even if there is a microphone in the audience, it might be difficult for the interpreters to hear it.

* Remember these guidelines throughout the whole presentation.
==> Once you are caught in the delivery of your presentation, it is very natural to not remember these guidelines. Do consider adding flags at regular intervals in your notes to remind you of them. ('INTERPRETERS?!', or 'SLOW DOWN!' in red in the margin at the bottom of each note page, for example.)"

ERROR ANALYSIS FOR ACHIEVING MEANINGFUL TRANSLATION

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1. Introduction

There seems to be a growing awareness all over the world in translation studies, which are not faced with misunderstanding and opposition. According to Kussmaul (1995: 5) there are two approaches in teaching translation, product-oriented and process-oriented ones. The product-oriented approach includes error analysis and translation quality assessment. Errors are first described, then the reasons for them are found and finally the solutions are given to prevent them.

However, error analysis must be taken with precaution. Making errors must be seen as a way of productive way of making students aware of all the obstacles that they may face while doing translation. This lecture deals with the analysis of students' errors (those frequent and less frequent ones) and their transformation into knowledge necessary for successful and meaningful translation.

When we take a look at the dictionary definition of the terms *translate* and *translation* everything seems so simple and easy. Here are the definitions found in Collins COBUILD *English Dictionary for Advanced Learners:*

- **translate**

1 translate translates translating translated

If something that someone has said or written **is translated,** it is said or written again in a different language.

2 translate translates translating translated

If a name, a word, or expression **translates** as something in a different language, that is what it means in that language, (c) HarperCollins Publishers.

According to these definitions, it is the procedure in which we simply take something said or written in one language and say it or write it in another language. The second definition becomes even more problematic since it implies that when we translate a word we actually find what it means in the other language. One "small" thing which has been left out here is the fact that words are polysemous and their meanings are numerous which extremely complicates the whole procedure.

Different meanings of the same word in the native and foreign language rarely match (Riđanović 2007: 2).

According to Duff, "language competence is a two-way, not a one-way system" (1989: 6). Kussmaul (1995: 20) claims that "learners of a foreign language and translators are often not aware of the fact that words might have more meanings than the meaning they know." This fact is indeed true and it should be emphasized constantly since those who forget it risk making some serious mistakes in translation.

This process of transferring elements of one language to another is so much more than pure and simple translation of words, phrases and sentences. There is so much more at stake in this process. It includes all levels of one language such as syntax, lexis, culture etc.

The corpus for this paper has been collected from a number of actual translation works made by junior and senior students majoring in English at a university level over the past few years.

The aim of the author is to offer some guidelines for all those who will be actively involved in the process of translation for various purposes by emphasizing the most important issues of this language activity. The paper might serve as a practical material which will show what we should pay our attention to when translating so as not to make serious mistakes. Kussmaul (1995: 5) explains the term "product-oriented error analysis" dividing it into three steps:

1. description of errors,
2. finding the reasons, and
3. pedagogical help.

This paper might be used at least as a valuable input for the first step.

2. Theoretical Framework

Translation is inevitably under the influence of our native language. Duff (1989: 6) states: "We all have a mother tongue or first language. This shapes our way of thinking and, to some extent, our use of the foreign language." Riđanović (2007: 1) claims that the largest number of mistakes is the result of unconscious literal translation which happens under the influence of our mother tongue. Since this influence is mostly unconscious the first step and the most difficult task would be to make learners aware of this interference. Kussmaul (1995: 21) states that translators sometimes offer the meanings which do not make sense in the appropriate context.

Duff claims (1989: 11) that there are general principles which are relevant to all translation:

- meaning (the translation should reflect the meaning of the original text accurately)
- form (the ordering of words and ideas in translation should match the original as closely as possible, although we must be aware of the fact that differences in language structure often require changes in the form and order of words)
- register (levels of formality)
- sentence language influence (translator's thoughts and choice of words are too strongly molded by the original text)
- style and clarity (we should try not to change the style of the original)
- idiom (since idioms are notoriously untranslatable there are several possible solutions)

Riđanović claims (2007: 363) that there are six basic categories of mistakes:

1. false friends
2. naive translation equivalents
3. mistakes that occur as the result of the lack of common sense thinking
4. sentences which are badly written in the source language
5. sociolinguistic mistakes
6. material mistakes

Kussmaul (1995: 143) claims that language errors are the most important in foreign language teaching. He includes the following: wrong use of tenses, prepositions, word order, idioms, collocations etc. emphasizing that we must try to imagine the effect the misuse offenses, word order etc. has on the target reader.

Nord (1997: 75) classifies translation errors into four categories according to a functional classification: pragmatic, cultural, linguistic and text-specific.

2.1.. A Historical Background to the Field of Error Analysis

Until the late sixties, the prominent theory regarding the issue of second language learning was behaviouristic, which suggested that the learning was largely a question of acquiring a set of new language habits. Therefore, errors were considered as being the result of the persistence of existing mother tongue habits in the new language. Consequently, this idea made the researchers of applied linguistics devote their studies largely to the comparison of the native and the target language in order to make predictions and explanations about errors. However, errors that were not explained in this way were underestimated. As a result, all errors whatever their origins were dealt with the same technique of further drilling and exercise.

Error analysis, a branch of applied linguistics, emerged in the sixties to demonstrate that learner errors were not only because of the learner's native language but also they reflected some universal learning strategies, as a reaction to contrastive analysis theory, which considered language transfer as the basic process of second language learning as what behaviouristic theory suggested. Error analysis, on the other hand, deals with the learners' performance in terms of the cognitive processes they make use of in recognizing or coding the input they receive from the target language. Therefore, a primary focus of error analysis is on the evidence that learners' errors provide with an understanding of the underlying process of second language acquisition. At this point, Keshavars (1997) suggests that the field of error analysis can be divided into two branches: (i) theoretical, and (ii) applied.

Theoretical analysis of errors, as mentioned before, primarily concerns the process and strategies of language learning and its similarities with first language acquisition. In other words, it tries to investigate what is going on in the minds of language learners. Secondly, it tries to decode the strategies of learners such as overgeneralization and simplification, and thirdly, to go to a conclusion that regards the universals of language learning process whether there is an internal syllabus for learning a second language.

Applied error analysis, on the other hand, concerns organizing remedial courses, and devising appropriate materials and teaching strategies based on the findings of theoretical error analysis.

Identification of Errors

Identifying an error goes beyond explaining what an error is. However, as linguists pay attention to the distinction between an error and a mistake, it is necessary to go over the definition of the two different phenomena.

According to *Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics* (1992) a learner makes a mistake when writing or speaking because of lack of attention, fatigue, carelessness, or some other aspects of performance. Mistakes can be self-corrected when attention is called. Whereas, an error is the use of linguistic item in a way that a fluent or native speaker of the language regards it as showing faulty or incomplete learning. In other words, it occurs because the learner does not know what is correct, and thus it cannot be self-corrected.

To distinguish between an error and mistake, Ellis (1997) suggests two ways. The first one is to check the consistency of learner's performance. If he sometimes uses the correct form and sometimes the wrong one, it is a mistake. However, if he always uses it incorrectly, it is then an error. The second way is to ask learner to try to correct his own deviant utterance. Where he is unable to, the deviations are errors; where he is successful, they are mistakes.

Sources of Errors

As there are many descriptions for different kinds of errors, it is inevitable to move further and ask for the sources of errors. It has been indicated in the fist part of the study that errors were assumed as being the only result of interference of the first language habits to the learning of second language. However, with the field of error analysis, it has been understood that the nature of errors implicates the existence of other reasons for errors to occur. Then, the sources of errors can be categorized within two domains: (i) interlingual transfer, and (ii) intralingual transfer.

Eror Correction and Error Analysis

At the beginning of the study, the question "why students make mistakes or commit errors" was held. Now, some other questions rise: How should teachers correct students? What kind of feedback should they give? Does each error need to be treated? Error analysis has an important role in finding the answers to these questions.

In general, the teacher's job is to point out when something has gone wrong and see whether the student can correct himself, then, to find out if what the student say or write is just a mistake, or it is global or local. However, the technique of correction is not simply presenting the data repeatedly and going through the same set of drills and exercises to produce the state of over learning. On the contrary, it requires that the teacher understand the source of the errors so that he can provide appropriate remedy, which will resolve the learner's problems and allow him to discover the relevant rules. Thus, the source of the error is an important clue for the teacher to decide on the sort of treatment. Harmer (1998) suggests three steps to be followed by the teacher when errors occur. The teacher first listens to the students, then identifies the problem, and puts it right in the most efficient way. Corder (1973) states that knowledge of being wrong is only a starting point. Skill in correction seems to lie in determining the necessary data to present to the learner and what statements, descriptive or comparative, to make about it.

Since no teacher has time to deal with all the errors of the students, a hierarchy should be established for the correction of errors according to nature and significance of errors. In such a hierarchy, priority should be given to errors which may affect communication and cause misunderstanding. If a teacher knows about all these items, he can direct himself accordingly. For example, Brown (2000) suggests that local errors as in the following example usually need not be corrected as the message is clear and correction might interrupt a learner in the flow of productive communication:

* I gave *she* a present.

On the other hand, global errors need to be treated in some way since the message is not comprehended clearly:

* Daddy my car happy tomorrow buy.

Errors in pluralization, use of articles, tenses, etc. are less important than errors regarding word order, the choice of placement and appropriate connectors in terms of the comprehensibility of the sentence. Therefore, it is implied that priority in error correction should be given to global errors in order to develop the students' communication skills. The knowledge of error analysis enables the teacher to monitor the students' errors in this frame and take precautions where needed.

Different kinds of tasks may require a different treatment. The reaction of the teacher towards errors and the type of feedback to be given is usually determined by the position of the error in the objective of the task.

Oral works are at crucial point in terms of corrections and feedback time. For oral works, it is usually recommended that students making mistakes during a fluent speech should not be interrupted, but be reminded of the mistakes and talk about the reasons. The type of the feedback- form or content should be decided on according to the goal of the study. If the goal is to make the students practice a certain grammar point, it may be necessary to give a form feedback. Or else, if a pronunciation item is being practiced, the teacher should correct the related mistakes without interrupting the speaker (Ur, 1996).

For correcting written works, it is accepted that the teacher should not correct the students' mistakes directly but instead, should put marks indicating there is something wrong with that sentence, word, or punctuation. There are symbols to show the kind of mistake that teachers use. For example, it is better to write 'sp' for spelling mistake near the wrong word, to write 'rw' for the sentences need to be written once again, etc. than writing the correct form. Thus, students are able to correct themselves looking for the source of their mistakes.

The existence of errors has been subject to all language-teaching theories as they represent an important aspect of second language learning. There are different opinions by different language teaching approaches regarding error correction (Ur, 1996). Below is what they suggest for the correction of errors:

Audio-lingualism: There is little need for correction at first sight. The latter is not useful for learning. *Cognitive-code learning*: Mistakes should be corrected whenever they occur to prevent them from occurring again.

Interlanguage: Mistakes are an important part of learning. Correcting them is a way of bringing the learner's interlanguage closer to the target language.

Communicative approach: Not all mistakes need to be corrected. The focus should be on the message rather than mistakes.

Monitor theory: Correction does not contribute to language learning.

What Corder points out below summarizes the view of error correction in language teaching (1973):

Language learning is not parrot learning; we do not 'learn' or 'practice' examples. They are the data from which we induce the system of the language. Skill in correction of errors lies in the direction of exploiting the incorrect forms produced by the learner in a controlled fashion.

2.2. Corpus-based Error Analysis

Richards, Platt and Platt (1992: 127–8) describe *error analysis* as developing in the 1960s with the goal of demonstrating that many learner errors were not due to the learners' mother tongue, but to universals of second language acquisition. They also state that by the 1970s error analysis had largely been superseded by studies of interlanguage and second language acquisition. As Altenberg and Granger (2002: 14) point out, error analysis has often been viewed negatively, "as retrograde, a return to the old days when errors were considered to be an entirely negative aspect of learner language". However, as they argue (Altenberg & Granger 2002: 14), "it [error analysis] is a key aspect of the process which takes us towards understanding interlanguage development and one which must be considered essential within a pedagogical framework." In knowing what learners can be expected to have acquired at a certain stage in their learning, teachers and materials designers are put in a position where they can optimise their input. Analysing learner errors is a useful way of finding out the stage of learning learners have arrived at.

As Altenberg and Granger (2002: 14) also point out, error analysis with the use of computers is quite diferent from its earlier manifestation, where the focus was on decontextualized examples. With the use of corpora and corpus tools, analysts are able to consider both the context of use and the cotext of individual errors. At the same time, it might be added, with the use of tagging, analysts are able to retrieve large numbers of errors of the same type, thus determining the prevalence of a particular error within a given group of learners. In addition, where learner corpora are compared with corresponding native speaker corpora by contrasting the number of uses of a given item, consideration can be given to the question as to whether learners are avoiding an item, a sensible strategy if learners are not confdent in the use of the item, but one which needs to be attended to, if learners are to make their language more native-like. In addition, in some cases, because of pedagogical practice, students may overuse a given item; this again needs to be taken into consideration.

2.3. Error Analysis and Lexis

Another difference between old-style error analysis and computer-based approaches is in the focus of analysis. In the 1960s and 1970s linguistics and language teaching were under the influence of structuralism. This meant a focus on syntax and phonology, at the expense of lexis. While this situation was most predominant in the United States, in Great Britain, led by linguists such as Firth, Halliday and Sinclair, at the same time, a much diferent approach was adopted in linguistics (if not language teaching), with lexis viewed as an important linguistic level in its own right, although at the same time interdependent with grammar (Halliday's "lexico-grammatical" level [Halliday 2004]). Lexis, according to this view, could be analysed syntagmatically, as well as paradigmatically. "You shall know a word by the company it keeps", in the words of Firth (1957: 179). This emphasis on the syntagmatic dimension of lexis, as mentioned at the beginning of this paper, was discussed by Halliday and Hasan (1976) in *Cohesion in English*, where the idea of collocation, or how words tend to co-occur, was developed. Collocation is concerned with purely lexical relations (Stubbs 2001: 65). However, there are also relations between lexical and grammatical words, referred to as colligation (e.g. Stubbs 2001: 64).

3. Analysis

This part of the paper presents the analysis of the mistakes found in students' translation. These mistakes are divided into four smaller sections - language structure, content, culture and miscellaneous which all include various elements.

3.1. Language Structure

This part of the paper mainly presents mistakes related to grammar and the organization of a sentence. It is obvious that there is no translation without grammar. We must follow the rules. The analysis below shows some of the most frequent mistakes related to grammar which can be avoided if students become aware of their importance.

3.1.1. Articles

The mistakes in the usage of articles (or the lack of them) might not come as a surprise if we take into consideration their complex usage and numerous rules as well as the fact that articles do not exist in the Bosnian language. But what does come as a surprise is the fact that students make mistakes even in those examples where the rules are pretty much clear and easy to remember. Here are some of them:

(1) B: ...u "iAmbience" salonu *zidovi su rotirajuci...*
E1: , ."iAmbience" saloon has *a rotating walls...*
(2) B: . jedan od najuglednijih...
E2: ..one of XXX most *eminent...*
(3) B:: . .to bi trebao biti tek prvi film...
E3: .it should be merely XXX *first film...*

In the example E1 there is an indefinite article preceding a plural noun which is not possible in English. Examples (2 and 3 E) show that students omitted definite article *the* which is obligatory in front of superlative adjectives and ordinal numbers.

3.1.2. Tenses

When it comes to tenses it seems that the most difficult task is to determine the tense for a particular sentence, although not all tenses are equally difficult. Namely the largest number of mistakes has been noticed for Present Perfect Tense (example 6). This includes sequence of tenses as well. Besides the problems related to the choice of an appropriate tense there are also instances when students use "new" combinations thus creating non-existing tenses in the English language (4) or even the cases where irregular verbs become regular (4).

(4) B: Moze li Slovenija pobijediti na Eurosongu?
E: *Could* Slovenia *won* Eurosong?
(5) B: ..ona je poslala pismo bivsem ministru...
E: ...she *sended* a letter to...
(6) B: Istrazivanja brusnice se vode vec godinama, otkada je ustanovljeno da sok od brusnice.

E: The ongoing researches *are conducted,* ever *since it has been established* that cranberry juice...

3.1.3. Passive

Passive constructions cannot exist without an exact number of elements: an object of the action, auxiliary verb TO BE in the appropriate tense and the past participle of the main verb. Exactly these elements create problems in translation. The most frequent mistakes are that auxiliary verb TO BE is omitted or not put in the appropriate tense or that the past participle of a verb is not correct.

(7) B: Ocekuje se da ce plan biti objavljen danas.
E: It expects that the plan will be announce today.

3.1.4. Reported speech

The most problematic issues regarding the reported speech are the backshift and the word order particularly in questions.

(8) B: Pitala me zasto nisam potpisala ugovor.
E: She asked me why I haven't sign the contract.
E: She asked me why I didn't sign the contract.
E: She asked me why didn't I sign the contract.

3.1.5. IF clauses

Here students usually have problems with identifying the type of the clause where the most difficult appears to be the mixed type conditional.

(9) B: Da Fleming nije otkrio penicillin, danas bi mnoge bolesti jos bile neizlijecive.

E: If Fleming had not discovered penicillin many diseases would not have been cured.

E: If Fleming hadn't have invented penicilin many deceases wouldn'thave been cured by today.

E: If Fleming hasn't discovered penicilyn many diseases would still be curable today. E: If Fleming have not found penicilin a lot of diseases would still be in curable today.

3.2. Content

This section includes mainly the mistakes related to lexis or the choice of words, style and formality and spelling.

(10) B: *Pitao sam se kada ce se predavanje zavrsiti.*
E: *I was asking myself when the lecture would be over.*
(11)B: *Glavna tuziteljica* Haskog tribunate Carla Del Ponte izjavila je jucer...
El: *Main prosecutor* of the Hague Tribunal stated yesterday...
E2: *The main female persecutor...*
(12)B: Vijece ministara Europske Unije je...
El: The *Secretary Council* for the EU...
E2: *European Union Minister Council...*
E3: the *Europe Union Council of Ministers...*
E4: *EU Council of Men*
(13)*B: Parlamentarna skupstina Vijeca Europe...*
El: Parliamentary Council of Europe...
E2: European Council Parliament
E3: the Council of Europe's Parliament
(14)B: *Aerodromsko osiguranje* nije dopusti 1 o...
El: *Aeroplane insurance* did not let...
E2: *Airport safety* would not let...
(15)B: *...medunarodna zajednica...*
E1: *inter-ethnic community...*
E2: the international union...

Frequent cases of no capitalisation concerning proper nouns have also been identified, as in:

(16) bosanski: bosnian americki: american spanjolski: Spanish francuski: french, often misspelled: Franch

One other thing has also been noticed. Students tend to undermine the level of formality and use short forms and contractions even in the formal translations. One very frequent example is the usage of the word *until*. For example they tend to use its short form *till* even in formal text and then it influences their writing so much that when they use its full form they make spelling mistakes and write *untill*.

3.3. Culture

The issue of culture specific terms has been in the scope of linguistic research for so long but it seems that it will remain a never-lasting quest. Some linguists claim that culture specific terms cannot be translated and some claim that there are some ways to incorporate them in translation. But there are other problems besides culture-specific terms. Nord (1997: 79) claims that "in order to understand tire specificity of another culture, you have to know your own culture first." It should also be mentioned that some culture-related terms are connected to the development of general knowledge (daily politics, sports, films, popular culture etc) which becomes essential.

(17) B: Al Pacino je osam puta bio nominiran za Oskara za filmove poput *"Kuma", "Serpica"...a zlatni kipic* Americke filmske amademije osvojio je 1992.godine.. .za ulogu u filmu *"Miris zene".*
E1: .. .for films such as *"Bridesmaid", "Little Dish"...* for his role in the film *"Woman's Pefume".*
E2: .the small golden statue..."Woman's smell" ..."Godmother".
E3: .."Serpic"... ..." A Godfather"..."the Bowl" ..."The Grandmother"...

These examples clearly illustrate a highly problematic area for some students of English who lack the basic knowledge of the American film industry.

- "Kuma" —> Bridesmaid, Godmother, etc
- "Serpica" —» "Little Dish", "the Bowl"

(18) B: *Ruska Pravoslavna crkva* je pozvala svoje vjenrike da bojkotuju Madonnin koncert u Moskvi...
El: *Russian Catholic Church...*
E2: .. .urged its worshippers...
E3: tried to prohibit Madona to hold her...
19) B: *...vladavina prava...*
E1: ...system of government...
E2: ...the government of rights...
E3: ...the rule of justice...
E4: ...the rule of right...
E5: ...rulling right...
E6: ...rights government...

E7: ...government under justice

E8: ...governmental rights...

(20) B: .. je opet savladao *madridski Real* na domacem terenu...

E: ... .bet *Real, a team from Madrid,* at home...

(21) B: ... .*visocke* piramide (Visoko, BiH)

E: ... .the pyramids of *Visoco...*

(22) B: ... .te *predstavnik Ambasade Libije...*

E1: ... .and a delegate of the *Lebanon Embassy...*

E2:... a representative *of Libya's Ambassady...*

It is extremely important for a translator to have general knowledge of history and popular culture of both languages. This is of course easier said that done since this 'general knowledge' is not something we can acquire in a very short period of time and there are no rules for it. This requires precaution and constant inspection as well as the notion that we must not take the facts from the text for granted.

(23) B: Godine svinje u Kini

E1: Pig year in China

E2: The Pig's year in China

E3: A year of pigs in China

E4: Year of swine in China

3.4. Miscellaneous

There are some mistakes in translation which cannot easily be identified or put into a separate group. Therefore the authors of the paper decided to put them into this section.

(24) Multiple mistakes in one sentence:

B: Nekoliko poznatih *svedskih i islandskih modela,* aktivista za zastitu zivotinja, jucer je u *centra Budimpeste* protestirajo... E: A couple of famous *Sweden and Island activists* for protection of animal rights, yesterday demonstrated *in the centre ofBudimpest...*

(25) B: U grupi B UEFA-ine Lige prvaka, *londonski okrsaj.. .z&vrsio* je *neodluceno...*

E: *Londol duel* of UEFA's League of Champions....ended in *a goalless draw.*

(26) Incorrect cases
B: James Law gradi toranj u obliku *"iPoda"*
E: James Law building tower in the shape of *"iPoda"*
B: ...poputYouTubea
E: ...as YouTubea
B: ...obisli su bosansku Piramidu Mjeseca i tunele *u Prijekom* i *na Ravnama...*
E: .. .visited the Moon Pyramid and also the tunnels *in Prijekom* and *on Ravnama...*

The following examples demonstrates the mistake which was made because students failed to conclude that EPP stands for Ekonomsko propagandni program (commercials) and leaving the term as in the source text they created something which would be totally unknown to a speaker of English. Some of the options even have the plural morpheme and the definite article.

(27) B: *...umetanje EPP-a* prije i tokom filmova.
E1: installing of *the EPP*
E2: inserting of *EPPs*
(27) B: *...isprva nisam vjerovao* da je ovdje nekada postojala *velika civilizacija...*
E: ...in the beginning I *didn't totally believed* that a *huge civilisation* existed here... The last example illustrates Kussmaul's statement regarding translations which result in sentences without any sense. Sentence B makes a reader think that a dog is the owner of a company.
(28) E: I stood in need of my dog's company.
Bl: Stajao sam naraspolaganju *firmi moga psa*
B2: prikljucio sam se potrebama drustva ljubitelja pasa

4. Conclusion

Translators or learners of a foreign language sometimes forget that, since they are bilingual, they can understand the meaning using both texts. This is impossible for monolingual persons who then rely on translators as their "guides" through information.

Riđanović highlights that a good translator must not translate words and phrases but thoughts (2007: 358). That actually means that we have to translate some sentences undermining particular words or phrases and to transfer the general idea.

Duff claims that there are three qualities essential to all language learning which are developed by translation: accuracy, clarity and flexibility. "It trains the learner to search (flexibility) for the most appropriate words (accuracy) to convey what is meant (clarity)" (1989: 7)

When we evaluate other people's translations we must limit the process to the ending result. This does not mean that we never analyze why certain mistakes were made. The aim of the authors is precisely this: to use these mistakes in the analysis which will consequently lead to a better understanding of the complexity of translation.

As Duff puts it: "In translation there is rarely a 'right' answer (though there may be several wrong ones"(1989: 7). There is no magic formula for the process of translation. Only a lot of time, patience and hard work.

Error analysis enables teachers to find out the sources of errors and take pedagogical precautions towards them. Thus, the analysis of learner language has become an essential need to overcome some questions and propose solutions regarding different aspects.

- ☐ Error analysis identifies the strategies that language learners use.
- ☐ It looks for the answer of the question 'why do learners make errors?'
- ☐ It determines the common difficulties in learning and helps teachers to develop materials for remedial teaching.

In short, error analysis has twofold aims including theoretical and practical aspects. Theoretical objectives contribute to the linguistics studies and the most obvious practical use of the error analysis is to the teacher. Errors provide feedback about the effectiveness of his teaching techniques and show him what part of the syllabus he has been following needs further attention. They enable him to decide on whether to move on to the next item or not.

Studying the learner language in terms of the errors is something that teachers have always done for very practical reasons. Through the results of tests and examinations, the errors that learners make are a major element in the feedback system of the teaching-learning process. For this reason, it is important that the teacher should be able to not only detect and describe the errors from a linguistic view, but also understand the psychological reasons for their occurrences. Therefore, the diagnoses and treatment of errors is one of the fundamental skills of the teacher.

Correction of errors is as important as identification and description of them. In fact, the last two are preliminary for error treatment. The sources and the sorts of the errors are determiners for the sort of feedback. In conclusion, the inevitable existence of errors has led researchers to study them and find out the natural steps for language learning. Findings of error analysis function as facilitator in language teaching in many ways only if the teacher is aware of them and able to make use of them in the teaching process appropriately.

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THE ROLE OF TAP IN TRANSLATION STUDIES

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1. Translation Studies

Translation studies is a relatively new discipline which saw an expansion in the last three decades. As Munday (4) states: "The practice of translating is long established, but the discipline of translation studies is new." He further points out that the term translation itself has several meanings: "it can refer to the general subject field, the product (the text that has been translated) or the process (the act of producing translation, otherwise known as translating)" (ibid). He is the author of the following definition:

> The process of translation between two different written languages involves the translator changing an original written text (the source text or ST) in the original verbal language (the source language or SL) into a written text (the target text or TT) in a different verbal language (the target language or TL). (Munday 5)

Although translation has played a crucial role in human communication in many aspects (social, scientific, artistic etc), it should be emphasized that the study of translation as an academic subject has only really begun in the past sixty years, and that in the English-speaking world this discipline is generally known as 'translation studies".

This term owes its existence to the Dutch-based US scholar Holmes who, in his key paper delivered in 1972, but widely available later in 1988, describes the then nascent discipline as being concerned with "the complex of problems clustered round the phenomenon of translating and translations" (173). Holmes's paper has been generally accepted as the founding statement for the field. The crucial thing here is that Holmes presents an overall framework, describing what translation studies covers. As Baker (277) states: "His map of the discipline is now widely accepted as a solid framework for organizing academic activities within this domain."

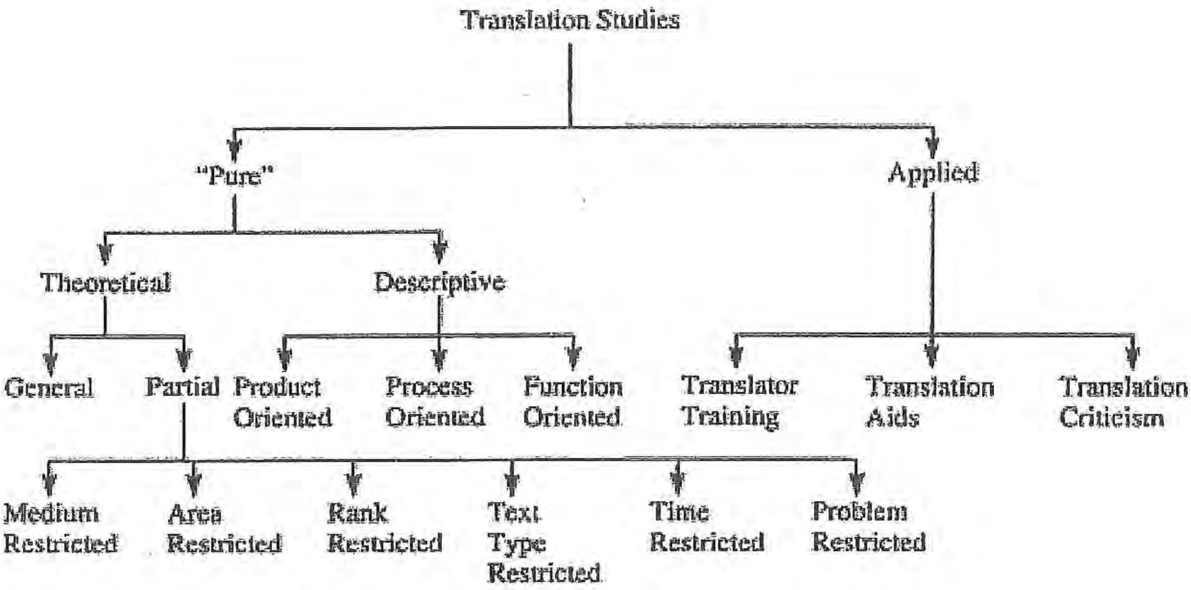

Figure 1 - Holmes's 'map' of translation studies (in Baker 278)

The fact that this discipline has obviously developed and expanded can be confirmed by an interesting fact showing how fast this discipline found its position in the academic community. Namely, Snell-Hornby, writing her first edition of *Translation Studies: An Integrated Approach*, clearly emphasized "the demand that translation studies should be viewed as an independent discipline" (2) while in the second edition of this work published in 1995, she already talks about "the breathtaking development of translation studies as an independent discipline" (viii). In her introduction to *The Routledge Encyclopedia of Translation*, Baker talks about the richness of the "exciting new discipline, perhaps *the* discipline of the 1990s."

There are several reasons why translation studies has become more prominent. One of them is certainly the proliferation of specialized translation and interpreting courses and the other is that the 1990s saw a proliferation of conferences, books and journals on translation in many languages, along with various professional publications, periodicals etc.

"From being a little-established field a relatively short time ago, translation studies has now become one of the most active and dynamic new areas of research encompassing an exciting mix of approaches" (Munday 7). Although the practice of translation is long established, the study of the field developed into an academic discipline only in the second half of the twentieth century.

In the past, translation exercises were regarded as a means of learning a new language, since from the late eighteenth century to the 1960s, language learning in secondary schools in many countries was dominated by the grammar-translation method. This method fell into disrepute, particularly with the rise of the communicative approach in the 1960s and 1970s. In that period, translation tended to become restricted to higher-level and university language courses, either in translation workshops (in the USA), or within the subject of research of contrastive analysis.

> The evolving field of translation studies can point to its own systematic models that have incorporated other linguistic models and developed them for its own purposes, while at the same time, the construction of the new discipline has involved moving away from considering translation as primarily connected to language teaching and learning (Munday 9).

Actually, the focus is on the study of what happens in and around translation and translating. The more systematic and mostly linguistic-oriented approach to the study of translation began to emerge in the 1950s and 1960s.

2. The Future of Translation Studies – a Move Towards Interdisciplinarity

As Munday (182) points out: "despite the boom in interest in the field at the end of the twentieth century, there still remains a reluctance within some sections of the academic world to place translation studies on an equal footing with longer-established disciplines." Translation studies is an example of a field which can bring together approaches from a wide range of language and cultural studies, modifying them for its own use and developing new model specific to its own requirements.

Translation studies has a primary relationship to disciplines such as linguistics (especially semantics, pragmatics and applied and contrastive linguistics), modern languages and language studies, comparative literature, cultural studies (including gender studies and postcolonial studies and philosophy). However, it is important to mention that the relationship of translation studies to other disciplines is not fixed; this is the explanation for the changes in its status over the years, from the 1960s and a strong link to contrastive linguistics to the present primacy of cultural studies.

These relationships to other disciplines become especially important when it comes to applied translation studies, which as a discipline includes elements of other disciplines in which translators are to translate (for example law, politics, medicine, finance, technical sciences) as well as the practical knowledge in information technology.

Snell-Hornby sees translators working in the field as concerned with "a world *between* disciplines, languages and cultures" (The Turns 35). Actually, this is the sign that current theorists have begun to consider translation in an interdisciplinary manner. Snell-Hornby (ibid) calls for translation studies to develop its own particular models and conventions and to focus on the web of relationships in the context of text, situation and culture rather than a classical linguistic approach of the individual word.

The interdisciplinary approach gained ground in recent years and translation has now established strong primary relationships to essentially non-linguistic disciplines. In the recent period, translation studies has gone beyond purely linguistic approaches to develop its own models. Snell-Hornby describes this change by her book named *The Turns of Translation Studies*.

One can easily conclude that translation studies is at the intersection of the existing fields and that it is developing a new interdisciplinary character. It is evident that the future may show even more specialization as well as the cooperation in joint projects. At the same time, the tools and the technology which translators and theorists have at their disposal alter and develop on a daily basis. Such advancement opens new areas of study as well as the new options in the existing ones. Access to data of all sorts will be speeded up while text analysis is reshaped.

The Internet also changes the status and visibility of translators and translation. The need for translation increases as well. Search engines now offer automatic machine translation of individual pages and whole websites and most of them include English either as ST or TT. Translation is thus available as Munday (191) says "at the touch of a button." Internet users are one-click away from the translation they need. However, that kind of translation conceals the human involvement and gives the impression that it is an easy and automatic process.

Munday (191) predicts the following: "while information technology is bound to become more influential as a tool and subject of translation studies research in the future, the current wealth of ideas that is being generated within the field will no doubt also involve a re-evaluation and re-invigoration of older models."

3. Translation Process

3.1. The Nature of the Translation Process

Prior to the investigation into translation processes aimed at examining possible differences between L1 and L2 translation, we need to explain the nature of the translation process. Malmkjær (163 in Pavlović 22) points out that:

> "translation process" may be used to designate a variety of phenomena, from the cognitive processes activated during translating, both conscious and unconscious, to the more "physical" process which begins when a client contacts a translation bureau and ends when that person declares satisfaction with the product produced as the final result of the initial inquiry.

In translation practice, the cognitive aspect cannot be separated from the physical. It is obvious that translation is a decision-making process as well. In his discussion of translation competence, Pym (490) states that "the kind of processes we are interested in are clearly as much social as they are cognitive". One must bear in mind the inseparability of these aspects especially when analyzing a particular phenomenon. Pavlović (20) states: "while particular studies will naturally tend to focus on one of these perspectives, it is important not to lose sight of the other." For example, although this study of directionality focused on some aspects of the "translation process" (morpho-syntactic and semantic ones), it also includes important and relevant information about the actual translation practice in Bosnia and Herzegovina with respect to directionality, and thus places the translation processes in their social context.

House (150) points out that, in using the term "process of translation", "we must [...] keep in mind that we are dealing here not with an isolable process but rather with a *set* of processes, a *complex series* of problem-solving and decision-making processes [...]." House (ibid) claims that the selection and the sequencing of the various operations that make up the translation process is conditioned by "semantic, pragmatic, situation-specific and culture-specific constraints operating on two 'levels' – that of the source and that of the target language" – and also by "the emergent translation text itself both in its physical realization and its on-line cognitive representation". All this proves how complex the translation process actually is.

This distinction between "conscious" and "unconscious" has been discussed by many scholars and translation theorists. It seems that the process(es) of translation can be described in terms of Shön's (in Pavlović 25) concept of "reflection-in-action". The notion refers to a situation in which "our thinking serves to reshape what we are doing while we are doing it". The issue of conscious versus unconscious processing is indeed one of the central themes in research into translation processes. The fact that additional terms, such as "automatic", "routine", "non-routine", "intuitive", "strategic", "controlled" and "uncontrolled" are also used makes the situation even more complex.

3.2. Key Concepts in Research on Translation Processes

3.2.1 Translation – a (non)-Linear Process

The issue of (non) linearity of the translation process has been attracting translation theorists for a long period of time, with surprisingly opposite results. Some claim that translation is a non-linear process while other researchers have nevertheless observed the opposite to be the case. Kiraly (in Pavlović 28) found that his subjects "progressed through the text in a basically linear fashion", and a very similar observation is found in Jensen (in Pavlović 28).

In comparative studies, researchers have nevertheless been able to observe that some subjects proceeded in a more (or less) linear way than others. Krings observed that the professional proceeded in a more concentric fashion through the text, as opposed to the linear progression of the nonprofessional while Tirkkonen-Condit says that research has shown that "*ambitious* translators tend to work in a spiral kind of fashion:

they do not try to solve all problems at once but leave problematic points open and come back to them over and over again until a feasible solution emerges" (in Pavlović 29). As Pavlović (29) concludes: "It remains to be seen whether future studies will confirm the link between a higher instance of non- linearity and a higher degree of translation competence."

3.2.2. Problems

Translation processes have been conceived of as problem-solving activities (e.g., Tirkkonen-Condit 2000). Therefore, one type of analysis of all those elements which translators face during their translation process can be seen as related to translation problems. What can we do? We can look at the number and type of problems as well as the ways in which they are dealt with. Such an analysis of "problem spots" as Pavlović (29) calls it, can be of particular interest for the research such as this, which aims at improving the pedagogical function of translation as well.

However, the term "problem" has one disadvantage. That is the fact that it may cause some negative connotations. That was the reason why some scholars suggested other terms such as "attention units" or "problem units" (see Jääskeläinen, Kiraly).

Shön's (in Pavlović 32) discussion of "problems of real-world practice" seems useful in understanding the nature of such problems, which "do not present themselves to practitioners as well-formed structures." For this reason, Livbjerg and Mees's definition of a translation problem *or* unit as seen "from the perspective of the participating subjects" seems particularly useful:

> A translation unit is any word or phrase in the text, or any aspect of such a word or phrase, which is verbalized by any single participant and for which he or she expresses any degree of doubt about its proper translation. (Livbjerg and Mees 129)

As Pavlović (33) states: "If translation is seen as a problem-solving process, the means for solving those problems are often conceived of as strategies." Translation theorists and practitioners usually see a difference between strategies, behaviors and processes. For Kiraly (ibid), "strategies do not solve translation problems – they are merely plans that can be implemented in an attempt to solve problems." Tirkkonen-Condit (123) further stresses that, in translation, "tolerance of ambiguity and uncertainty is needed [...] for reconciling the optimal with what is *feasible*".

3.3. Methodological Issues in Research into Translation Processes

Investigation of translation processes has intensified over the past two decades largely due to the application of the introspective verbal reporting method known as think-aloud (thinking aloud) protocols or TAPs. The development, achievements and limitations of this method have been discussed in the literature (see Tirkkonen-Condit, Kussmaul). What follows is the explanation of think-aloud protocols as a method of data collection in the investigation of translation processes.

Weatherby (194) claims that the translation courses (especially those into L2) must serve both to improve students' translation strategies in general and prepare them to undertake professional translation into L2. Weatherby (ibid) quotes Wills who refers to translation teaching as "an open field which calls for experimentation and innovation" (193) and suggests that one of the ways of putting this into practice might be exploiting think-aloud protocols (TAPs). Weatherby believes that the findings from various TAP studies can help in answering questions related to translation process in general and the features of L1 and L2 translations, and that "we can draw interesting conclusions."

3.3.1. Think-aloud Protocols (TAPs)

Translation is not just an exchange of words and structures, but a communicative process that takes into consideration the reader of the translation within a particular situation within a specific culture. Kussmaul (1) claims that there seems to be a growing awareness all over the world in translation studies, which are not faced with misunderstanding and opposition.

According to Kussmaul (5) there are two approaches in teaching translation, product-oriented and process-oriented ones. The product-oriented approach includes error analysis and translation quality assessment. Errors are first described, then the reasons for them are found and finally the solutions are given to prevent them. The process-oriented approach provides an insight into the translation process itself and the cognitive efforts made by people who perform translation tasks.

Kussmaul (5) states that it is generally assumed that when learning a foreign language we get a mixture of mother tongue and foreign language, a so-called "interlanguage", on the basis of which some errors can be explained. They usually result from interferences in a very broad sense as when the learner transfers the phonological, grammatical or lexical system of his/her mother tongue onto the foreign language. However, it is not so rare that the opposite situation happens, namely that learners transfer some elements of their second language onto the structure of their first language.

A new process-oriented approach has been developed recently in order to gain more immediate access to the translator's mind. By adopting introspective methods from psychology, experiments have been carried out in which translators were asked to utter everything that went on in their minds while they were translating, and these monologues were tape recorded. These monologues are referred to as think-aloud protocols (TAPs) (Kussmaul 7).

These protocols have been analyzed in order to classify translation strategies, with the pedagogical aim of observing difficulties encountered by the students. Kussmaul is aware that by using TAPs we are "closer" to the translator's mind, but that we still to some extent have to infer what goes on. However, he hopes that there is an improvement by degree when analyzing protocols instead of errors.

Think-aloud protocols, also known as concurrent verbal reports, are a method of data collection in which the subjects are asked to "think aloud," i.e. to verbalize their thoughts concurrently with cognitive processing (Pavlović 39). This method has faced both approval and criticism.

This is how Kussmaul explains this new method of research: "It was felt that in order to complement the hitherto predominantly deductive and often also normative models of the translation process, empirical and inductive methods should be developed. The models presented until then usually described what ideally happened or rather – with a pedagogical aim – what should happen, in translating" (177). Scholars like Krings, Jääskeläinen, Tirkkonen-Condit, and Kussmaul soon realized that something needs to be done so that this situation changes.

In these think-aloud experiments subjects are asked to utter everything that goes on in their minds while they solve a task (which is in our case a translation task). Their utterances are then either video-taped or tape-recorded and then further transcribed into think-aloud protocols, which are then analyzed from a variety of viewpoints, depending on the researcher primary field of interest. Kussmaul (178) claims that these analyses have at least two pedagogical purposes. One is that the strategies observed in the TAPs may serve as models for successful translating, and the other is that if students training to become translators are used as subjects, TAPs may be used to find out where they have problems.

The most frequent method used in TAPs consists of monologue protocols (experiments in which one subject talks to him/herself while translating a text. Kussmaul (180) states that monologue protocols are still predominantly the main tool for gaining access to the translation process. However, some arguments have been given against them such as the fact that subjects often tend to stop verbalizing (either when they have to spend some time thinking or when they do routine tasks).

In the last twenty years the value of TAPs has recently been questioned. Monologue protocols contain a large amount of descriptive talk and long stretches of silence (pauses). In addition to that, the processes leading up to the decisions are often not verbalized.

Dialogue protocols may provide the solution to this problem. The fact that in dialogue protocols a standard communicative situation occurs (with questions asked and answered, arguing for or against certain solutions, criticizing or defending solutions etc) guarantees that verbalization will constantly flow.

Some solutions for solving or minimizing these problems have been suggested. Kussmaul (183) suggests that we could choose "matching" subjects (in terms of their psychological or social profiles and temperments), but he claims that we must be aware that we cannot completely control our variables. Kussmaul (ibid) claims that TAP data provide rich material on which a variety of hypotheses can be tested and research with a variety of aims can be pursued. It provides a valuable insight into the study of identification of problems, solution to problems, associations, corrections, the usage of dictionaries etc.

Our research has been conducted on "non-translators". This term refers to novices, meaning non-professional subjects who participated in the translation task. As Kussmaul and Tirkkonen-Condit (191) state: "What matters is the trainee's talent for linguistic and stylistic sophistication. Expert knowledge combined with bilingualism does not guarantee translating skills, but neither does training or professional experience in translation, if linguistic and stylistic talent is lacking."

Think-aloud protocols have become very useful in revealing some stages of decision-making. As Wills (59) puts it:

> They have become rather popular in recent years, because they offer a means of identifying alternatives a student takes into consideration in executing a translation task and how s/he approaches a final solution. An important factor in decision making is trial and error: students randomly choose an option and observe the outcome (later on made to observe and weigh the outcome) (*Ibid*).

Since only few empirical studies have been conducted with the aim of testing the think-aloud methodology and its effects on the translation processes, it is evident that a relatively larger sample is needed for conclusive evidence to be provided related to the effect of thinking aloud on processing in translation. The suggestion is that qualitative think-aloud data should always be combined with quantitative descriptive statistical data, which will ensure more valid conclusions.

3.3.1.1.The Validity of TAPs

As some authors point out, thinking-aloud seems unnatural (explaining this by the fact that in a normal working situations person does not usually talk to oneself all the time). House (159) concludes that during the analysis of the think-aloud protocols the talk seemed slightly "un-natural." Kussmaul (in Pavlović 45) similarly states that "thinking-aloud protocols are usually monologues, with the disadvantage of creating a somewhat artificial situation. Normally, when one translates one does not talk about what one is doing."

However, there are contrary views as well. Pavlović (45) states that naturally occurring instances of collaborative translation, that is, translation involving more than one person working jointly on the same source text, would thus provide a possible source of authentic data.

4. Research Design

Figure 1 shows an outline of the different stages of the study, from the source texts and subjects, through data elicitation, processing and analysis, to the findings and conclusions.

Texts	SOURCE TEXTS 1 AND 2			
Subjects	NOVICE TRANSLATORS			
Data elicitation	pre- and post-translation questionnaires	collaborative translation sessions	collaborative translation	report writing
Raw data	completed questionnaires	audio recordings	target text translations	IPDRs
Data processing	transcription			
Processed data	translation protocols			
Data analysis	quantitative and qualitative analysis			
Findings	findings and synthesis			
Conclusions	conclusions			

Figure 1 - Research design for the study

Two source texts, one in English and one in B/C/S, were chosen. Subjects were recruited for the study. In the central part of the study, a series of translation tasks were conducted in which a set of subjects were asked to fill out a pre-translation questionnaire and then collaboratively translate two source texts, one into L1 (B/C/S) and the other into L2 (English). This was followed by a post-translation questionnaire. The collaborative sessions were audio-recorded. Later, the collaborative translation protocols obtained from the sessions were transcribed and coded. The target texts (translations) were collected and given to the external evaluator for evaluation.

Introspective data from the Integrated Problem and Decision Reports (IPDRs) were used to supplement additional information. All the data were analyzed quantitatively and qualitatively. The findings were triangulated and main conclusions formulated.

4.1. The Setting of the Study

The study took place in Tuzla, Bosnia and Herzegovina, at the Department of English language and literature, the Faculty of Philosophy.

The subjects were asked to translate two texts – one from English into B/C/S and the other from B/C/S into English. While translating, subjects verbalized the source text and the target text segments in both English and B/C/S. Where it was possible, the tentative and final verbalizations were translated in English. In the TAP excerpts, the elements commented are put in bold; their English translation generally follows in square brackets.

4.2. The Subjects Participating in the Study

Thirteen subjects (all third-year students), or three groups of three and one group of four, participated in collaborative translation sessions, which were the central part of the study. All the participants in the TAPs were novice translators (3rd year students) (the commonly used term for such translators is also non-experts). The subjects are native speakers of B/C/S. All subjects volunteered for the participation in this study and gave their written consent. In all the translation tasks, the same subjects were asked to translate in both directions, from and into their L1.

The subjects' previous contact with translation in the educational setting had included both, individual work (in class and at home) and collaborative work, mainly in pairs or groups of three to four students. Small groups would also interact with each other to exchange questions and discuss the most challenging or most interesting parts or aspects of the texts.

The study took place at the end of the summer semester of the academic year 2010/2011. The fact that "novices" were chosen as particularly suitable for the research study of this type is best explained by Pavlović (70) who points out that their translation competence is expected to be relatively high, but they are also expected to encounter some problems. These subjects were also suitable for this method of data collection as they were used to working collaboratively. Therefore, it was expected that this situation would seem rather natural and that it would not cause much stress.

Volunteers were not assigned to groups, but rather whole groups of students who had worked collaboratively in class or who were closer friends and colleagues volunteered for the project together. This is known in literature as self-selection (Pavlović 70). The idea was to ensure a relaxed, friendly atmosphere in which the subjects would talk more freely and take an active part in the discussion with the people they knew and had worked with before. Such setting may help decrease potential stress related to the fact that the subjects participate in a special kind of task. If this is to be checked from the recordings and questionnaires, this has been achieved to a high degree.

4.3. The Source Texts and the Translation Task

The subjects were asked to translate two texts, one from English to B/C/S ("Text 1") and one from B/C/S into English ("Text 2"). The texts, which can be found in Appendix A, are non-technical, general-language texts. The text in English tells us the story of the history of the Welsh language while the text in B/C/S brings the story of Tuzla and its salt. Both are around 140-word long excerpts from travel guides – a guide to Ireland (published in the National Geographic Magazine) and a guide to Tuzla (created as a book with photographs and pictures).

4.4. Transcription of Collaborative Translation Sessions

Probably the most detailed phase in any research on translation processes which uses audio- recordings is the transcribing of the translation sessions. This task involves writing down everything the subjects are heard saying. The stage is rather time-consuming since the researcher must listen to the recorded material over and over again until one is sure that all the things said are really transcribed. Pavlović (75) states that producing a transcript might facilitate the sharing of protocols with the wider research community. In this study, for example, the students' verbalizations were mostly in their L1, B/C/S. An English gloss had to be produced in order to make the protocols accessible to English-speaking users. In the transcripts, bold font style was used for solutions, while the translation of the utterances is given in square brackets.

5. Analysis

The analysis of the recorded material was directed towards revealing the types of problems which the subjects encounter during TAPs.

5.1. Translation Problems

The definition for translation problem has been taken from Livbjerg and Mees. According to them, *translation problem* is defined "from the perspective of the participating subjects" as "any word or phrase in the text, or any aspect of such a word or phrase, which is verbalized by any single participant and for which he or she expresses any degree of doubt about its proper translation" (129).

5.2. Orthographic Problems

This category of problems refers to the situations when the subjects are in doubt about the proper spelling of a word chosen as a solution. Capitalization is included in this category, as well as the cases of punctuation that are unrelated to syntax, e.g. (spelling the years or periods or numbers which is sometimes different in B/C/S and English, putting a comma after certain letters in abbreviations etc.). Other instances of punctuation, such as whether to use a comma before a relative clause or to use it in order to separate a subordinate clause or adverbial, were considered syntactic problems. This category also covers the cases where the subjects are not certain whether the word should be spelt as one or two words in the target text.

L1 translation (translation from the second language into the first):
ST segment: An early form of *Welsh* was spoken in Britain 1,500 years before Old English took root.

a) J: *Velškog*, kako to pišemo? [Welsh, how do we write this]
V: Je li to malim? [is it a small letter]
A: Jeste, velški je pridjev. [yes, Welsh is an adjective]
M: Znači malim. [so, it is a small letter]

b) A: Jedna rana forma *velškog* …
E: Se pričala u Britaniji ... *velški* malim? [is the word *velški* spelt with small letters]
J: Velškog da. [yes]
A: 1500 godina.
J: I think that in the Welsh language the Welsh should be in capital letters.
E: *Vel-ški* [emphasizing the morpheme *ški*]

E: Pa i kad pišeš bosanski pišeš malim [well, when you write bosanski [Bosnian] it is also spelt in small letters]

J: Velikim [in capital letters]

A: I ja mislim da je malim [I also think that it is in small letters]

J: OK.

In both examples (a) and (b), the subjects have difficulties in deciding whether the adjective *velški* (Welsh) should be written in capital or small letters in B/C/S. This is a rather frequent in this direction of translation in general, although the rule for the spelling of adjectives derived from the names of the countries is strict and clear. Namely, in B/C/S such adjectives are always spelt in small capitals and they can be easily recognized by the final morpheme *ski/ški/čki*. This is exactly what subject E emphasizes in example (b).

L2 translation (translation from the first language into the second):
When it comes to L2 translations, the subjects are mainly interested in the general spelling of words, although the problems with capitalization and using hyphens were also registered.
ST segment: U Tuzli je pronađeno najstarije sojeničko naselje u Evropi, koje datira iz neolita, za razliku od ostalih sojeničkih naselja pronađenih u Evropi, koja datiraju iz *gvozdenog doba.*

c) L: Iron Age.

A: Iron Age.

M: Did I say it's Iron Age?

A: Do we need article?

L: No, we just need capital letters.

A: Which date back to...

L: Iron Age.

A: Both capital letters?

L: Yes.

d) V: *Gvozdeno doba,* mislim da ja trebam tražiti doba, jel de [I think I should look for the word age, right]?

A: Možeš i ovamo [You can look here too.]

V: Ne mogu, samo piše dalje da nešto tražim ..... šta ono tražim, doba, ... željezno, brončano, to je to, the Iron Age, Iron i Age velikim [no, I can't, it only says that I should look something else, ... what am I looking, age, ... iron, bronze, this is it, the Iron Age, both Iron and Age in capital letters].

5.3. Morphological Problems

Morphological problems are those related to the form of the word, such as choosing between various possible suffixes or prefixes. It is important to mention that the selection of the plural morpheme *s* is considered a syntactic problem in the cases where the selection of the singular or plural form was seen at the level of sentence.

L1 translation (translation from the second language into the first):

ST segment: *Most of us* are unaware that Celts once dominated ......

e) L: *Mnogi od nas.*

A: *Mnogi od nas, mnogima od nas* nije poznato da su Kelti...

f) A: So, *većina nas nije svjesno* da.

V: Ne, [no], let's not complicate, *većina nas nije svjesna.*

g) A: So, ... *većina nas.*

S: Aha

A: Nije svjesna.

S: *Većini* nije poznato.

A: So, we change *većina nas* into.

S: *Većini* nije poznato.

This problem shows the instances where the appearance of a problem at a morphological level can be closely related to other linguistic aspects such as syntax or semantics.

L2 translation (translation from the first language into the second):

ST segment: U Tuzli je pronađeno najstarije sojeničko naselje u Evropi *koje datira iz neolita*

h) L: Koje datira iz neolita.

M: *Which dates.*

L: *Dates back.*

A: Are we going to say ... *one of the oldest lake-dwelling community in Europe ... date...s back*?

M: *Dating* back.

L: *Hark* back.

M: Maybe *harks* because it's singular.

A: *Harking* back to the neolit was found......., if we can use ing form in this ... *dating, harking.*

M: Yes.

A: Yeah?
M: *Dating* yes, *harking.*

In this particular example, the subjects test several options, changing the morpheme added to the word. First, they suggest a relative clause in postmodification and adding the morpheme *s* to the word (Present Simple Tense, 3rd person singular). After that they suggest adding the *–ing* morpheme, in order to create a postmodification by a participle clause.

5.4. Lexical/Semantic Problems

This category is defined as the situation when the subjects think about using different words or phrases, while attempting to decide which of them is the "right one" for their target text. Lexical problems include collocations, idioms, metaphors, names, as well as the higher semantic aspects above word and phrase level. It is important to mention that some of these problems were expected, which was confirmed by the analysis of the transcribed material.

L1 translation (translation from the second language into the first):
ST segment: … to describe "barbarians" living *inland* from the Mediterranean Sea.

i) A: Inland.
L: *Kopno* [land] probably.
A: *From the Mediterranean Sea … unutrašnjost, na kopnu* [on land]?
M: *Na kopnu* okruženom Mediteranskim morem [on land surrounded by the Mediterranean Sea].
L: Ili *u unutrašnjosti* [or].
M: *U unutrašnjosti.*
A: *Na kopnu…* and what are we going to write about *the Mediterranean Sea*?
M: Okruženom Mediteranskim …
A: Koji su živjeli na kopnu okruženom [surrounded], to stavljamo? Mediteranskim … morem.

j) M: Inland.
V: *Na obalama* Mediteranskog mora [on the coast].
J: But this inland means away from the coast.

V: Then... *daleko od* Mediteranskog mora [far away from the Mediterranean Sea].

J: Can we mention *kopno* [land] here?

V: *Daleko u kopnu od Mediteranskog mora* [deep in the land].

A: Can we say koji su živjeli ... *u unutrašnjosti* ... *u području Mediterana* [inland, at the territory of the Mediterranean].

J: Yes, that's good.

k) A: *Living inland,* šta znači ovo [what does this inland mean] *inland*?

J: *Daleko od mora u kopnu* [far away from the sea]. (this is the solution found in the dictionary)

J: *From the Mediterranean Sea,* to mi je malo bilo, ovamo je daleko u kopnu [it is a bit, here it says deep in the land] ... možemo reći ovo [we can say] *u unutrašnjosti.*

E: Koji su živjeli *daleko od Sredozemnog mora* [far away from the Mediterranean Sea].

l) A: *Inland*?

M: *Unutrašnjost zemlje.*

A/S: Ali to nije [but, it's not that].

M: *Prema kopnu* [towards land].

S: Možda *u kopnu* [perhaps in land]

M: Je li možda *daleko od kopna* [is it perhaps far away from land], možemo li samo reći *na kopnu* [can we simply say on land]?

S: *Daleko od mora* [far away from the sea].

A: Možda samo *na području blizu Mediteranskog mora* [maybe we can say just on the territory near the Mediterranean Sea].

M: *Na području* [on the territory].

A: *U blizini mora* [near the sea].

M: *Duboko u kopnu* [deep inland].

A: Koji su živjeli ... *na području* ... *dalje od obale* [lived on the territory further from the coast].

M: Živjeli *na kopnu* [lived on land], unutrašnjost [inside, inland].

S: *U unutrašnjosti* [inside, inland].

M: *U unutrašnjosti područja* [inside the territory], oh, I cannot find a solution.

M: Oh my God.

A: *Inland from the Mediterranean Sea,* what shall we do?

M: Može li se reći samo *na kopnu* [can we just say on land]?

S: Ne može ... možda *na području od* ... *Mediterana* [no, we can't, perhaps on the territory away from the Mediterranean].

A: Pa može ... živjeli *na području* [well yes, lived on the territory].

M: *Mediterana.*

S: Ili da kažemo *na području Sredozemlja.*

A: *Na području Sredozemlja,* bravo, ja mislim da je to to [well done, I think that this is it]

This example has been chosen for two reasons. The first reason is the fact that this lexical element was a problem for all the groups. It can be seen that all the groups did not have the same number of solutions, and that some came to the solution faster. However, example (l), with as many as 23 different solutions discussed and suggested during the translation tasks (not all of them presented here), shows the level of complexity of this problem.

L2 translation (translation from the first language into the second):

ST segment: ... *za razliku od* ostalih sojeničkih naselja ...[unlike]

m) A: Was found in Tuzla ... while the rest, or ... *za razliku od* ostalih sojeničkih naselja u Evropi koja datiraju iz gvozdenog doba, za razliku ... here we can say *while.*

L: Neolita.

A: Or *in the contrast to.*

M: Or *distinguishing it from the other.*

n) A: *Apart from.*

A: *Apart from.*

J: Ne možeš [you can't use] *apart from.*

A: Nego? [but what else] ... *in difference.*

J: *In difference,* to ima [we have that].

A: *Apart from,* to baš ide u ovom slučaju [this is exactly what should be used in this case].

M: Pa to je kada ... [well, that's when ...]

J: Apart from this and apart from that.

J: *Compared to.*

V: E compared.

A: Može [yes].

M: Ili možda [Or perhaps] *in contrast to.*

A: *Compared to* other.

o) E: *Za razliku.*

J: We don't have to translate word for word.

E: (repeats the sentence once again) Za razliku od ostalih sojeničkih naselja pronađenih u Evropi ... *za razliku*.

J: How did you start this sentence?

E: The oldest archeol community in Europe that harks back to the New Stone Age was found in Europe ... I think we'll have to change.

A: OK, I think I have it ... *unlike, versus* ...

E and J (laughing): *Unlike*, of course.

This example shows how the subjects heavily rely on their lexical knowledge even when that leads them to inappropriate translations. It is rather surprising that the subjects, examples (m) and (n), did not look for this word in the dictionary. This is best presented in the third example for this ST segment (o), which shows the subjects' reaction (laughter) when they found the appropriate solutions in the external source.

5.5. Syntactic Problems

This category covers the uncertainty regarding the relations among the words in the sentence (for example order of sentence elements, word order within sentence elements, the choice of active versus passive, the usage of tenses and articles.

L1 translation (translation from the second language into the first):
ST segment: The word "Celtic" comes from the Greek Keltoi, *first appearing* in the sixth century *to describe* "barbarians" living inland from the Mediterranean Sea.

p) L: *Da opiše* ... da opiše.

M: Maybe, *kojom bi se, da bi opisala...*

A: Or *opisuju* ... *ći*, to describe.

M: What do you think?

A: *Opisujući*... barbare... ahhh, koji žive ... inland from the Mediterranean Sea, what do you think about *opisujući*?

L: I'm not sure about that word, ... *da opiše*, ili ...

This example shows the complexity of the TL options for the realization of to-infinitive clause. The subjects here used various types of dependent clauses such as participle clauses, relative clauses (both active and passive), adverbial clauses etc. opting for the participle clause *opisujući*.

L2 translation (translation from the first language into the second):
ST segment: Tuzla je *jedno od najstarijih naselja u Evropi sa* kontinuitetom življenja.
q) S: Tuzla is *one of the oldest settlements in Europe,* or *one of Europe's oldest settlements*, which is shorter?
A: Ha [what]?
S: Which is shorter?
A: *One of European oldest settlements.*
S: ***One of Europe's oldest settlements.***
A: That's better, because we have this settlement with continuity of living (referring to the structure and the fact that the noun settlement will be postmodified by the prepositional phrase)

5.6. Textual Problems

These problems refer to the choice regarding the above-sentence level of the text, such as the changes in the division of the text into sentences. It must be mentioned here that the subjects were more concentrated on other types of problems, which is the reason why the number of examples is not that high. However, the fact that the subjects did discuss some of the text-related problems speaks in favor of their acquiring the basic elements of translation competence beyond the mere translation of words, phrases and structures.

L1 translation (translation from the second language into the first):
ST segment: Most of us are unaware that Celts once dominated the breadth of Europe ...
r) A: Većini ljudi nije poznato da su Kelti veoma dugo dominirali većinom Evrope od Crnog mora sve do Atlantika.
M: Here *većini* and here *većinom*, I don't like this.
A: Aha.
A: What can we put there for most of us?
M: *Most of us.*
L: *Mnogi od nas.*
A: *Mnogi od nas, mnogima od nas nije poznato da su Kelti ...*

L2 translation (translation from the first language into the second):
ST segment: U Tuzli je pronađen i veliki broj predmeta iz neolita, među kojima posebno mjesto zauzimaju posude za proizvodnju soli iz slane vode.

s) J: A large number of objects dating from the Neolit.

A: Aha.

M: *Again dating*?

J: Ja [yeah].

M: *That would be the third time we mention it, dating, dating, dating*.

V: De nađite ...[Can you find it].

A: From the Neolite, Neolithic.

M: From the Neolithic.

V: Brilliant.

J: *Which were also found*, može li tako [can we say it like that]?

It was noted in the analysis that the subjects identified these problems after they translated the text. Namely, while reading their first draft, they noticed some of these problems, which is not surprising, taking into consideration the fact that only then were they able to grasp the meaning and structure beyond the sentence level.

6. Conclusion

The lexical/semantic problems prevail in both directions of translation, 57.45% of all problems in L1 translation and 50.00% of all problems in L2 translation belong to this category. The morpho-syntactic problems take the second place. Namely, 30.21% of all problems in L1 translation and 37.61% of all problems in L2 translation were related to this category. Besides these major groups of problems, the subjects also encounter orthographical and textual problems. The fact that textual problems were also registered shows that novice translators are also aware of the higher linguistic features of translation, other than those related to the language structure and lexis.

This type of research can be used for exploring other elements and factors of the translation process such as: directionality ("directionality" refers to the fact that translations can be done from a foreign language into a mother tongue or vice versa); actions/interactions (the ways in which the subjects handle the situations, problems and issues they encounter in the translation process); solutions to the problems; verbalizations (verbalizations refer to everything the subjects are heard saying to each other during the collaborative translation protocols); the usage of dictionaries; socio-linguistic aspects of translation; differences between individual and collaborative translations etc. In that way the analysis of TAPs may prove to be extremely valuable for generalization of the findings which are the results of the research into translation processes.

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