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✔ نمونه سوالات پیام نور : بیش از ۱۱۰ هزار نمونه سوال همراه با پاسخنامه تستی و تشریحی

✔ کتاب ، جزوه و خلاصه دروس

✔ برنامه امتحانات

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اهداف درس

- هدف کلی این درس آشنا کردن دانشجویان با اصول ومبانی نظری ترجمه می باشد .

دانشجویان بعد از آشنائی با مفاهیم کلیدی ارئه شده در این درس می توانند بطور علمی تری به ترجمه عملی بپردازند.

Chapter 1

Form and Meaning

Translation is basically a change of **form**. By form or **surface structure**, it is meant the actual words, phrases, clauses, sentences, paragraphs, etc. which are spoken or written.

Translation consists of transferring the **meaning** of the source language into the receptor language. It is meaning which is being transferred and must be held constant.

The best translation is the one which a) uses the **normal language forms** of the receptor language, b) communicate the **same meaning**, c) maintain the **dynamics** of the original source language text.

There are certain characteristics of language which have a direct bearing on principles of translation. First, **Meaning components** are "packaged" into lexical items, but they are "packaged" differently in one language than in another.

Second the same meaning component will occur in several surface structure lexical items (forms). That is to say a single **meaning** may be expressed in a variety of **forms.**

The third characteristics of language which affects translation process is that one **form** will be used to represent several alternative **meanings**.

Primary meaning & Secondary meaning

- A **primary meaning** usually comes to mind when the word is said in isolation. **Secondary meanings are** the additional meanings which a word has in context with other words.

The characteristics of "skewing", that is, the diversity or the lack of one-to-one correlation between form and meaning, is the basic reason that translation is a complicated task.

To translate the form of one language **literally** according to the corresponding form in another language would often change the meaning. It is *meaning* which should be transferred not the linguistic *forms*.

A "word-for-word" translation which follows closely the **form** of the source language is called **a** **literal translation.** **A** **literal translation** does not communicate the **meaning** of the source text.

Anything which can be said in one language can be said in another. It is possible to translate. The goal of the translator is to keep the **meaning** constant.

Chapter 2

Kinds of Translation

Form-based translations attempt to follow the form of the source language and are known as **literal translations**.

Meaning-based Translation

Meaning-based translations attempt to communicate the meaning of the source language text in the natural forms of the receptor language. Such translations are called **idiomatic translations.**

In **modified literal translation** , translators modify the order and grammar enough to use acceptable sentence structure in the receptor language. However, the lexical items are translated literally.

Literal and **modified literal** translations err in that they choose literal equivalents for the words. But in a modified literal translation, the translator usually adjusts the translation enough to avoid real nonsense but unnaturalness still remains.

Idiomatic translations use the natural forms of the receptor language, both in the grammatical constructions and in the choice of lexical items. A truly **idiomatic translation** does not sound like a translation.

Translations are **unduly free** if they add extraneous information not in the source text, if they change the meaning of the source language, or if they distort the historical and cultural facts of the source language text.

The translator's goal should be to produce an **idiomatic translation.** An **idiomatic translation** reproduces the meaning of the source language in the natural form of the receptor language.

Parts of speech are language specific. Each language has its own division of lexicon into classes such as nouns, verbs, adjectives, etc. It will not always be possible to translate a source language noun with a noun in the receptor language.

Grammatical constructions vary across languages. Grammatical choices in the translation must be based on the **function** of the grammatical construction in the receptor language , not on a literal rendition of a source language **form.**

All languages have **idioms**, i.e. a string of words whose meaning is different than the meaning conveyed by the individual words. A literal word-for-word translation of idioms will not make sense.

Names of animals are used **metaphorically** in most languages. But the comparison is often different. For example, when someone is called *pig* in English, it usually means that he is dirty or a greedy eater. In other languages pig may not have the same value.

Chapter 3

The Semantic Structure of Language

Another way of looking at **form** and **meaning** is to think of them as **surface structure** and **deep structure**.

Deep & surface structures

One of the basic assumptions of this book is that there is a valid distinction between the **deep** (semantic) and the **surface** (grammatical, lexical, phonological) structures of languages.

An analysis of the *surface structure* does not tell us all that we need to know in order to translate. Behind the surface structure is the deep *structure*, the meaning. It is the meaning that serves as the base for translation.

Meaning is structured. It is not just an inaccessible mass. It can be analyzed in ways that are useful to the translator. It is a network of semantic units and the relations between these units.

Semantic structure is more nearly *universal* than **grammatical structure**. That is, all languages have **meaning components** which can be classified as THINNG, EVENTS ATTRIBUTES, or RELATIONS.

THINGS include all animate beings, natural and supernatural and all inanimate entities *(boy, ghost, angel, stone, galaxy, blood).* *EVENTS* include all actions, changes of state (process) , and experiences *(eat, think, melt, stretch, smile).*

ATTRIBUTES include all those attributes of quality and quantity ascribed to any **THING** or **EVENT** *(long, few, all).* RELATION include all those relations posited between any two of the above semantic units *(with, since, or).*

Boy , which is a THING , is a single lexical item in English. However , it is made up of several **meaning components**- HUMAN BEING, MALE, and YOUNG.

Some languages also have a word which includes three **meaning components** of the word **boy** in a single lexical item. However, other languages do not.

If there were no skewing, the relationship between semantic structure and grammatical structure would be as follows:

THINGS................... nouns, pronouns

EVENTS...................verbs

ATTRIBUTES...........adjectives, adverbs

RELATIONS.............conjunctions, prepositions, particles, enclitics, etc.

In surface structure, units are grouped into increasingly larger units in a **hierarchy** of grammatical structures. Morphemes unite to form words, words unite to form phrases, phrases unite into clauses, and etc.

Semantic structure is organized **hierarchically.** Meaning components unite into *concepts*, concepts into *propositions,* propositions into *propositional clusters*, propositional clusters into *semantic paragraphs*, semantic paragraphs into ,*episodes,* and etc.

It is desirable to make a distinction between those things in language over which the speaker can exercise *choice* and over which *no choice* is available for him. The former reflect *meaning*. The latter is *form* of language.

The **meaning** which is chosen will be influenced by the **communication situation.** The speaker (or writer), basing his choices on many factors in the **communication situation** , chooses what he whish to communicate.

Once the speaker has determined the meaning, he is limited to use the **forms** (grammatical, lexical, phonological) of the language in which he whishes to communicate that **meaning.**

Chapter 4

Implicit Meaning

REFERENTIAL MEANING is what the communication is about. It is the information content. It refers to certain thing, event, attribution, or relation which a person can perceive or imagine.

Organizational meaning

ORGANIZATIONAL MEANING puts the referential information together into a coherent text. It is signaled by features such as deictics, repetition, groupings and by many other features in the grammatical structure of a text.

Situational meaning

SITUATIONAL MEANING concerns with factors such as the relationship between the speaker and the addressee, the time, setting etc.

Explicit information

- **Explicit** information is the information which is **overtly** stated by lexical items and grammatical forms. It is a part of the surface form.

Implicit information

The **implicit** information is that for which there is **no form** but the information is part of the total communication intended or assumed by the writer.

Implicit referential meaning

In any text, the reference to certain **THINGS, EVENTD, ATTRIBUTES**, and **RELATION** will be left **implicit**. For example, if someone asks, " *how many people came?* " he answers *"Ten"*. In this context it is clear that the reference to *people* and *came* is left **implicit.**

A text is a unit. It is organized in some logical way. It is characterized by cohesion, continuity, groupings, and patterns of prominence. There is a flow of old and new information, redundancy which helps signal the unity. But languages differ in how these matters are indicated.

In many languages, leaving some information **implicit** is one feature used to signal *ORGANIZATIONAL MEANING*. Part of the information which occurs in the semantic structure is left implicit in the grammar.

One of the challenges facing a translator is knowing when to supply the information which is **implicit** in the text. The translator should make some of the implicit information more explicit.

As will be discussed later, the translator does not want to add information which is not part of the text he is translating. There is a difference between *implicit* information and information which is simply *absent* and never intended to be part of the communication.

Implicit information vs. absent information

There is a difference between *implicit* information and information which is simply *absent* and never intended to be part of the communication.

Chapter 5

Steps in a Translation Project

The four T's

The **text** refers to the source language document which is to be translated. The **target** refers to the audience.

Team & Tools

Team refers to the people who will be involved in the project. **Tools** refers to the written source materials which will be used by the translator as helps.

Definition of Exegesis

- **Exegesis** refers to the process of discovering the meaning of the source language text which is to be translated

Exegesis is the step which includes the *preparation* and *analysis* which must be done before anything at all can be written in the receptor language.

The *analysis* of the source text includes resolving ambiguities, identifying implicit information, studying key words, interpreting figurative senses, recognizing secondary senses of words and the secondary function of grammatical structures.

Transfer

After a careful analysis of the source language text, the translator begins drafting piece by piece, section by section. The **transfer** results in the **initial draft.**

The purpose of **evaluation** is threefold: accuracy, clearness, and naturalness. The questions to be answered are1) Does the translation communicate the **same meaning** as the source language? 2) Does the audience understand it **clearly**? 3) Is the form of the translation **natural** receptor language grammar and style?

Evaluation

The purpose of **evaluation** is threefold: accuracy, clearness, and naturalness.

The questions to be answered in evaluation are: 1) Does the translation communicate the **same meaning** as the source language? 2) Does the audience understand it **clearly**? 3) Is the form of the translation **natural** receptor language grammar and style?

Consultation

The translator(s) will expect that the consultant is interested in three matters: 1) accuracy of content, 2) naturalness of style, and 3) effect on the receptor language audience.

Before the translator prepares the final draft of the translated text, decisions about format need to be discussed with the whole translation team, the consultant, the potential publisher and those who will promote distribution.

Chapter 6

Words as "Bundles" of Meaning

A word is a *"bundle"* of **meaning components.** The translator needs to be able to analyze the lexical items (words) of the source text in order to translate them.

Concept refers **_not_** to form (word) but only to the meaning concept. A **concept** is a recognizable unit of meaning in any given language. A **concept** is a bundle of components of meaning.

The first step in the analysis of words is to determine whether the word is referring primarily to a THING **concept,** an EVENT **concept**, an ATTRIBUTE concept or a RELATION **concept.** What is the **central concept** of the word?

Many words are easily classified. For example, *stone* is a THING. However some words are more difficult to classify because there is a skewing between the semantic classification and the grammatical classification.

Concerning the word *runner*, we can define it by saying *a person who runs*. The **central concept** of runner is PERSON and RU NS serves to define more concisely (to restrict) PERSON.

A translator will often find that there is no exact equivalent between the words of different languages. Therefore, it is often necessary to translate one word by several words in the receptor language. Sometimes the opposite will also be true.

In the phrase *sky blue* there is a skewing because the <u>*sky*</u> which is a THING is used as an adjective to modify <u>*blue*</u> which is an ATTRIBUTE used as a noun.

If there were no skewing, the text would sound monotonous. Skewing by nominalization, verbalization, and adjectivization adds dynamics and life to the text. But if translated literally into a second language, they will sound strange and not accomplish the intended purpose.

A translator who is having difficulty analyzing the source text may be greatly benefited by rewriting the material in semantic structure before beginning to think about how to translate it in the receptor language.

Restatement

The process of "unpacking" the semantic structure of a word is sometimes called **restatement.** **Restatement** , used in technical way, means to say the same thing in another way.

Chapter 7

Some Relationships between Lexical Items

The same meaning components may occur in several words. Consider the word *sheep*. The meaning SHEEP is also found in the words *lamb*, *ram*, and *ewe*.

Generic-specific relations

A more generic word is a class word, the meaning of which is also found in two or more different words which are more specific.

Specific words

- **More specific** words have additional components of meaning as well as the meaning of the generic term. For example, a dog is more specific than animal.

A translator needs to know about the **generic** and **specific** relationships of words because this may help him find a good lexical equivalent which might be hard if he were not aware of this possibility.

Sometimes the translator may need to borrow a word from the source language, but he will want to use a generic class word along with the loan word in order to clarify the matter being talked about.

Languages tend to differ most in **generic** terminology, rather than in **specific.** When translating **specific** words, it is easier to find a close equivalent. But translating **generic** words may be more difficult.

As it was mentioned before, the general **indefinite** words referring to a generic class and without specifying a particular THING or EVENT is called **generic** words.

Substitute words.

Some generic words may be used in a **definite** generic way to refer to something already discussed in the text. Such words are called **substitute** words.

The words which are very similar in meaning are called **synonyms**. The **antonym** of a word is the exact opposite, or contrasts in some particular part of its meaning.

Reciprocal words

Most languages will also have sets of words which are the reciprocal of one another. For example, the words *give* and *receive* have reciprocal relationship to one another.

The translator should be aware of the fact that the vocabulary of the source language will not match the vocabulary of the receptor language. This awareness should help the translator to find appropriate equivalents.

Chapter 8

Discovering Meaning by Grouping and Contrast

The meaning of a lexical item can only be discovered by studying that particular item in contrast to other items which are closely related.

Part- whole relations

One way in which languages group words is by the relationship known as **part-whole**. For example, in English, *chin cheek*, *forehead*, *nose*, and *ear* are part of the *body*.

Contrastive pairs

There are pairs of words in all languages which differ from one another only by a single component of meaning. For example, *show* and *see* contrast only in that *show* has the additional meaning of *cause to*.

There would be no advantage to comparing the word *leg* with the word *house*. They do not make a pair for comparison because they do not have anything in common.

Contrastive features

In order to study meaning, it is necessary to have words in sets which share some features of meaning and have some **contrastive** features as well.

The meaning components of words may be isolated by looking at lexical matrices. This is called **componential analysis.** This kind of analysis points to the fact that each word is a bundle of *meaning components*.

In order to study words through **componential analysis**, they should be related in some way. There would be no point in comparing words if there were not some **shared components**.

The English words *man, woman, boy* and *girl* are human beings. They have a **generic component** which they share as the **central component**, HUMAN BEING.

Contrastive components

In addition to the **central component**, each of words "man, woman, girl and boy has **contrastive components** which distinguish it from all other words of the set.

In addition to the **central component** and the **contrastive components**, there are often **incidental components.** Their presence or absence is incidental for the contrast needed to differentiate a certain set of terms.

Chapter 9

Mismatching of Lexical Systems between Languages

One important aspect of the meaning of a word is its *reference*- the THING, EVENT, or ATTRIBUTE the word refers to.

Even though the same **THING,** **EVENTS**, and **ATTRIBUTE** may exist in the referential world, the systems of reference do not match one-to-one across languages. Languages arbitrarily divide the meaning differently.

English uses three words to refer to the same area of color which Mbembe refers to with one word. This example indicates that there is mismatch of references across different languages.

Definition of cognitive network

The lexical items of a language represent a great network of interrelated meanings often called a *cognitive network*.

Lexical items may be related to one another in various ways. They may have no meaning components in common, being related to one another simply in that they occur together when people are talking about a certain *topic.*

The translator needs to match the system of one language against the system of the second language. Even when there seems to be a word which is equivalent, there may be some components of the word which are different from the components of the equivalent word s in the source language.

Different languages have different concentrations of vocabulary depending on the culture, geographical location, and the worldview of the people. That is to say the cultural factors determine the degree of concentration of vocabularies in different languages.

Because of the different geographical situation, in one language there may be a great concentration of vocabulary that has to do with agriculture, in another language a great concentration of vocabulary related to fishing.

A translator is not simply dealing with concepts in a system in one language, but rather concepts in systems in two languages. Each language will fence off and label a particular area of reality or experience differently.

Differentiating words of closely associated meanings is possible only by contrast. Meaning exist only in terms of a systematic contrast with other words which share certain features in common with them and contrast in what they refer to or in what situation they are used.

Chapter 10

Multiple Senses of Lexical Items

The **primary sense** is the meaning which a word has in isolation and is likely to have reference to a physical situation. **Secondary senses** are dependent on the context in which the word is used.

Persons learning a second language often have a great deal of trouble learning to use a word in its many **secondary senses**. It is usually much easier to *translate* the **primary sense** of a lexical item than a **secondary sense.**

Ambiguity results from the lack of context to clarify the appropriate sense of a text. For example, *the phrase this suit is lighter* is ambiguous because of the two senses, and the lack of context to make it unambiguous.

Chapter 11

Figurative Senses of Lexical Items

The use of words in a **figurative sense** involving association is called **metonymy.** In the sentence: "*He has a good head*", *the word <u>head</u>* is used figuratively to refer to the *brain.*

Figurative senses cannot usually be translated with a literal form of the word. For example a literal translation of *"the kettle is boiling"*, would probably be nonsense in most languages.

Some **figurative senses** are based on a *spatial* relationship. For example in the sentence : "*The kettle is boiling*" , *kettle* refers to the water which is inside it. *Kettle* is not a synonym for *water*.

Association, in metonymy, may be *temporal* relationship as well as spatial. A student may say to his friend, "*Your hour has come*", meaning " *the time to take your exam has arrived*".

There are also figurative senses which are based on a ***logical contiguity*** rater than spatial or temporal. For example, one might say, "*Moses is read every day*". Here *Moses* is used figuratively to stand for *what Moses wrote*.

An attribute may be used for the object which has the attribute. For example, *don't substitute the good for the best. Good* means *good work* and *the best* means *the best work*.

Figurative senses based on part-whole relationships are called **synecdoche.** For example, a person may say, "I am not going to let him come under my *roof.*" Roof is used in **a figurative sense.**

There are three general ways in which metonymy and synecdoche are to be translated. First the sense of the word may be translated nonfiguratively; that is the intended meaning may be made plain so that there is no longer a figurative sense in the translated text.

The second way of translation of metonymy and synecdoche is to retain the word in the original, but to add the **sense** of the word.

The third possibility is to substitute a figurative expression of the receptor language for the figurative expression of the source language.

Idioms are expressions of at least two words which cannot be understood literally and which function as a unit semantically. The same translation principles apply for **idioms** as for other figures of speech.

A **euphemism** is a figurative expression which is in some ways like a metonymy. A **euphemism** is used to avoid an offensive expression or one that is socially unacceptable.

Euphemisms should be translated by a comparable euphemism in the receptor language. The translator should recognize the euphemistic nature of the text and then translate with an appropriate expression of the receptor language whether euphemistic or direct.

A **hyperbole** is a metonymy or synecdoche with more said than the writer intended the reader to understand. The exaggeration is deliberately used for effect.

Deliberate exaggerations in the sentences such as *I'm starving* meaning *I'm very hungry* or *he's mad* meaning *he's doing something very foolish*, in the source language text may be understood as untruths if they are translated literally.

In translating **hyperboles** and other **figurative senses** of lexical items much care must be taken to be sure that the desired effect is retained in the receptor language but the correct meaning is also retained .

Chapter 12

Person Reference

The focus of this chapter is to discuss 1) the fact that each language has a unique pronominal system, and 2) the secondary and figurative senses of pronouns. Then implications for translation will be given.

The pronouns of a language, which substitute for nouns, form a special semantic set which can usually be analyzed by componential analysis.

Basic to all pronominal systems are *PERSON* and *NUMBER*. Other categories often found in pronominal systems are the distinction between *ANIMATE* and *INANIMATE*, *GENDER*, *INCLUSIVE* versus *EXCLUSIVE*, and *HONORIFICS*

Person refers to the speaker, the one spoken to, and other persons. **Number** may include *singular*, *dual*, *plural*, and *collective*.

Honorifics

Honorifics refer to inclusion within the components of meaning of distinctions which relate to social standings within the society.

There may be meaning components in the source language pronominal system which are not found in the pronominal system of the receptor language system and vice versa. That is to say, the pronominal systems of the source and receptor languages **mismatch.**

The meaning components of the receptor language system have to be used even though they are not indicated in the source language. The translator has to make decision on the basis of **the use** in the receptor language and not on the basis of **the form** in the source language.

In translating from a language which has a semantic distinction in the pronoun related to the social classes into a receptor language which does not make these distinctions, the translator should not try to **artificially** introduce these components of meaning.

The problems of translation are not simply matters of different pronominal systems, although this in itself is important. In addition to different systems, each language will have certain secondary or extended uses of pronouns.

In English, the *editorial "we"* is a secondary sense of the pronoun *we* in which the plural form is being used with a singular meaning.

English uses the pronoun *we* when the object being referred to is really *you*. For example, in the sentence: Shall *we* take *our* bath, *we* in used to refer to the second person.

There are two matters to consider when translating pronouns. First, the source language and the receptor language systems will be different. Second, the translator must remember that there are **secondary senses** of pronouns.

Personification involves a special figurative use of person in which intelligence or life is attributed to inanimate objects or abstract ideas. In the sentence: "*The sea was angry,* the word *sea is* **personified.**

Apostrophe

Apostrophe is a figure of speech in which inanimate or abstract things are treated as persons, but in the **SECOND PERSON** and with direct address.

Sometimes *role is used* rather than FIRST PERSON PRONOUNS. For example, a man may say to his wife, "your *husband* is hungry", meaning that he is really hungry. By doing so the component of FOCUS is added.

A woman in Mexico will refer to her husband by the use of *temporary role*; that is, what he is doing at the moment, for example *cutter of wood*.

Role designation may need to be adjusted in translation to fit the natural uses in the receptor language. The whole matter of when a noun is used versus when a pronoun is used versus when *role designation* is used is different for each language.

The translator should not **automatically** translate nouns, pronouns, and role designation literally, but use them according to the natural patterns of the receptor language.

Chapter 13

Lexical Items and situational Context

In addition to conveying factual information by reference to THING, EVENTS, ATTRIBUTES, and RELATIONS, words bring forth an emotional response in people and this response has sometimes been referred to as *emotive meaning*.

In English, the words *father* and *daddy* have the same referential meaning, but they have different **connotative meanings**. The word father has a connotation of respect; whereas, daddy has a connotation of intimacy.

Connotative meanings are often culturally conditioned. A word which has a positive connotation in one culture may actually have a negative connotation in another.

The word *fox* has *negative connotations* in English when it is associated with the qualities of *cunning* and *deceitfulness*, in other languages the equivalent word which refers to the animal *fox* may have indeed *a positive connotation*.

The **speaker-addressee relationships** will often determine choices of vocabulary that result in sub-dialects of the language. Factors such as age and social class of the audience will affect the choices of vocabulary

Language varieties

Most languages have some speech variation which is considered ***baby talk***. In many societies, teenagers develop a special vocabulary which they use when talking to one another. In some languages, there will be differences between ***men's speech*** and ***women's speech.***

In addition to the age, sex, and educational level of the speaker and the audience, there are many factors in the *communication situation* which will affect the choice of vocabulary.

Within the same language, certain vocabulary items may be used in one *region* and a different vocabulary in another *region* to mean the same thing. It is important that the translator be aware of the regional differences.

One of the most difficult problems in translating is found in the differences between *cultures*. The people of a given culture look at things from their own perspective.

Different cultures have different **focuses**. For example, the cultures of New Guinea focus on gardening, fishing, and ceremonies; whereas, the culture of America focuses on working earning, and marriage.

When the cultures are similar, there is less difficulty in translating. This is because both languages will probably have terms that are more or less equivalent for the various aspects of the culture.

In every culture, there are certain actions which will be *symbolic*. For example, various movements of head are symbolic in most languages. While in some languages *nodding* indicates a positive response, it has a negative symbolic meaning in others.

The **symbolic actions** occur in the source language text, usually without any indication of what the significance of the action is. If the action is simply translated literally, it may result in zero or wrong meaning.

The translator should be aware of the fact that *symbolic actions* often have different meaning in the receptor language and in the source language. An adjustment may need to be made in order to avoid a wrong meaning or no meaning at all.

Chapter 14

Collocation of Lexical Items

Collocation is concerned with how words go together, i.e. which words may occur in constructions with which other words.

Combinations of words will differ from language to language. For example, in English the verb *have* **collocates** with the word *dream.* However, in Russian this combination would not be used.

There are certain combinations in any language which are *fixed combinations*. They always occur in a certain order or they always occur together, for example: *spick and span, in* English.

Certain combinations which commonly occur together often occur in a *fixed order*. If the order is changed, the result will sound unnatural to the native speaker of the language, for example: *bread and butter.*

Idioms are special *collocations*, or fixed combinations of words which have a meaning as a whole, but the meaning of combinations is not the same as the meaning of the individual words.

A literal translation of **idioms** will usually result in nonsense. The translator must first be sure of the meaning of the idiom and then look for the natural equivalent way to express that meaning.

A list of other words with which a word may occur is called its *collocational range*. Every word has its collocational range or restrictions which limit its meaningful usage.

Languages do change and there is constant extension and reduction of the collocational range of a word, but a native speaker is the one who must make the final decision on new and acceptable collocations.

People speaking a foreign language often make collocational errors which are usually called **collocational clashes**. *These errors* may be either grammatical or lexical, but, in either case, words are put together which do not naturally go together.

Concordance

- *Concordance* means consistent matching of lexical items. There are two kinds of concordance: *Real concordance* and *pseudo concordance*

Real concordance

Real concordance occurs when within a document the same word or expression is used repeatedly to refer to the same concept.

Pseudo concordance

In ***pseudo concordance*** the same form has different senses when occurring in the same text. For example, *run* is a pseudo concordance: "The motor of his car stopped *running*........He decided he would *run*.....

Chapter 15

Lexical Equivalence when Concepts are Shared

Translation can be described as the process of studying the lexicon, the grammatical structure, and the communication situation of the source language text, analyzing it in order to determine the meaning, and then reconstructing this same meaning using the natural forms of the receptor language.

The fact that the receptor language is spoken by people of a culture which is very different from the culture of the source language speakers will automatically make it difficult to find *lexical equivalent*.

Matters to be considered in choosing adequate *lexical equivalents*

Fist, there will be concepts in the source text which are ***known*** (shared) in the receptor language, but which will be translated by a nonliteral equivalent.

Second there will be concepts in the source language which are *unknown* in the receptor language; and third, there are lexical items in the text which are *key terms*.

- The focus of this chapter is to discuss the ways to find appropriate and adequate *lexical equivalents* for concepts which are **shared** in both the source language and the receptor language.

- Considering the fact that even the same concepts are expressed in different ways in different languages, the translator must not expect that there will be a *literal equivalence*.

- There is usually complete mismatch between the **secondary senses** and **figurative senses** of lexical items between languages; even when dealing with primary senses there is not always complete matching.

- The translator should remember that how many ideas and what combination of ideas may be combined into one word is a language-specific feature that only occasionally corresponds between unrelated languages.

- languages **differ** 1) as to the number and selection of meaning components combined in one word, and 2) as to the semantic interrelationships that may exist between words.

- The translator should know that because many of the words in any text are semantically complex, it will be expected that many times a single word will be translated by several words

- The translator should remember the process of "unpacking" semantically complex words sometimes works in **reverse. Several words or phrases in the original may become a single word in the translation.**

Doublets

- A **doublet** consists of two near synonymous words or phrases which occur as a unit, for example, *spots and blemishes*, *holy and righteous*, and *strangers and foreigners.*

- Some languages have doublets which are based on **generic- specific** relationships. For example, in the doublet *answering said*, the word *answering* is more specific and *said* is more generic.

- One of the problems in translation related to **generic-specific words** is that the source language text may use a **generic term,** but the receptor language may only have a more **specific term** in that semantic area.

- The second problem in translation related to *generic-specific words* is that the source language uses a *specific term*, but the receptor language only has a *generic word* available in that semantic area.

- In the cases where for a source language **specific term** there is only a more **generic term** in the receptor language, the translator can use that **generic term** as a translation equivalent

- When there is only a **generic term** in the receptor language for a **specific term** of the source language, and when the contrastive components of the **specific term** is important, the translator should modify the **generic word** with a **descriptive term.**

- When words which have both a **generic usage** and a **specific usage** are being used, the translator should build into the context sufficient clues to indicate which usage is the correct one for the translation.

- Regarding **secondary** and **figurative senses** of lexical items, the translator should keep in mind that **secondary** and **figurative senses** will almost never be translated with the equivalent lexical item of the source language.

Chapter 16

Lexical Equivalents when Concepts are unknown

- There are three basic alternative ways in which a translator can find an equivalent for **unknown concepts**. These are 1) a generic word with a descriptive phrase, 2) a loan word, 3) a cultural substitute.

- **THINGS** and **EVENTS** can be looked at from the perspective of the *form* of the **THING** or **EVENT** or from the perspective of its *function*.

- We are not talking about linguistic form as discussed in chapter 1, but physical form. The distinction between form and function is very important in looking for **lexical equivalents.**

Form & function of concepts

- Fist, a THING or EVENT in one language may have the same form and the same function in another language. For example, *ear* with the function of *hearing* is the same in all languages.

- Second, the **form** may be the same but the **function** may be different. For example, the form **bread** may be present in all cultures .However, in one culture it may be the main food; whereas in another culture it may be served only as a dessert.

- A third possibility is that the same *form* does not occur, but another THING or EVENT with same function does occur. For example, in one culture, *bread* may be the main food; in another, the "staff of life" is *manioc*.

- There may be no correspondence of *form* and *function* at all. In the Middle East, in some instances *sheep* has the function of being a *sacrifice for sin*. However, in some culture, the animal *sheep* does not occur nor is there a comparable *animal sacrifice for sin*.

- The translator must keep in mind these two principles: 1) the *form* of the word may be substituted, omitted, described, or otherwise adjusted to avoid wrong, zero, or obscure meaning,

- The translator should also know that 2) the function of the word should be made explicit to avoid wrong, zero, or obscure meaning.

When a source language word does not occur in the receptor language, it may be helpful to analyze the word to discover its generic component, the contrastive components, and function of the word in its context.

- The use of a generic word as a base for constructing an adequate equivalent is extremely helpful. Sometimes the *generic term* by itself will be sufficient. But many times, more needs to be added in order to make clear the *form* or *function* or both.

Definition of a loan word

- A **loan word** refers to a word which is from another language and is unknown to most of the speakers of the receptor language.

- There are two kinds of foreign words; **borrowed words** which have been assimilated into the receptor language prior to the translation process, and those **loan words** which are completely new to the receptor language speakers.

- There will be some lexical items where neither a generic term nor a loan word with modification will be possible as a translation equivalent. In this case, a real- world referent from the receptor culture is **substituted** for the unknown concept.

- there are cases where cultural substitute cannot be applied. For example, in translation of historical document or factual narrations, the use of a cultural substitute will change the meaning.

- **Cultural substitutes** always result in some distortion of meaning and should not be used unless the other possible solutions have proven insufficient.

Chapter 17

Special Problems in Finding Lexical Equivalence

- **Key words** are words which are used over and over in the text and are crucial to the theme or topic under discussion.

- **Token words** which are best kept as loan words include such things as "the characteristic words of a time period that denote a fact of civilization, such as the name of a fashionable dress, a new product or invention, or a current fad.

- In many texts, there will be some key words which will acquire **symbolic** value. They come to carry figurative or metaphorical meaning as well as the basic meaning of the word.

- Religious documents usually have **key terms** which have **symbolic** meaning as well as literal meaning. This may occur in other literary documents and the translator needs to be conscious of this symbolic meaning.

- **False friends** may be defined as words in the source language which look very much like words in the receptor language because they are cognate with them, but in fact mean something different.

It is clear that the source language lexical items seldom match exactly the receptor language lexical items. It would seem that there is more mismatch than match.

How is it possible to translate at all?

- The answer comes in the fact that it is not the word that is being translated, but the *total meaning of the words in combination*.

Chapter 34

Information Load

- The **information load** is the rate at which information, especially **new information,** may be introduced into the text.

More about information load

- The information load is related to the speed at which new information is introduced, and to the amount of new information which the language normally incorporates in particular constructions.

- Within the same language, there will be a great deal of difference in information load for various styles of writing. Technical materials usually have a **higher information load** than novels, for example.

Differences in informational load

- The difference in information load may be individual, may depend on the audience being addressed, and may also vary from language to language.

- Every message includes some information which is **known** and some which is **unknown.** If there is a great deal of unknown information, the rate of presentation of the information should be slower.

Old & new information

- **Old information** is that which has already been introduced in a given text. **New information** is not previously referred to in the text.

Translators and old/new information

- The important thing for the translator is that he should not translate literally the devices of the source text, but use the natural forms for handling **old** and **new** information in the receptor language.

- Another feature of language which is closely related to known information is **expectancy chains.** Chain words or phrases are expected to follow certain others. There is a predictable order which is well known.

Redundancy

- All languages have patterns of **redundancy**. **Redundancy** is a repetition, but it is more than just saying the same thing twice.

When a lot of unknown information is being introduced because of difference in source and receptor culture, it may be necessary to use a great deal of redundancy in the translation to slow down the rate of information.

- Openings, closings, previews, summaries, etc., are **redundant** in that they usually include some part of the body of the text. They supply information, which being redundant, will help to decrease the load of new information.

- **Implicit information** may be made explicit

1-when required by the *grammar* of the receptor language,

2-when necessary for correct and clear expression of the text *meaning,*

3-when needed for *naturalness* of style

4-only if *truly implied* in the source text.

Chapter 35

Establishing the Project

- A **dialect** is a speech variety within a language. There may be social dialects, dialects which vary because the geographical spread of the language, and other differences based on educational level, age, occupation, and the degree of bilingualism.

Tools

- **Tools** is just to refer, not just to the books that will be needed, but to the equipment, work space, and finance as well; that is , all the material aspects of the program.

Chapter 36

Translation Procedures

- Translation is as a process which begins with the source text, analyzes this text into semantic structure, and then restructures this semantic structure into appropriate receptor language form in order to create an equivalent receptor language text.

The steps which a translator should follow in the process of translation:

1) preparation
2) analysis
3) transfer
4) initial draft
5) reworking the initial draft

More steps in conducting a translation

5) reworking the initial draft

6) testing the translation

7) polishing the translation

8) preparing the manuscript for the publisher

Preparation

- There are two kinds of preparation. First, there is the preparation which the translator should have before beginning the translation task, including training in writing, in linguistics and in translation principles.

- Secondly, there is preparation which the translator undertakes as he begins work on a specific translation project. This kind of preparation is related to the text to be translated.

- Although the principles of analysis in this book are taught beginning with the smaller units and moving up to the whole discourse, the actual analytical process is the opposite.

- The translator analyzes the lager units first, identifying the units and the relation between them, deciding which are more prominent, etc.

Transfer

- **Transfer** is the process of going from the semantic structure analysis to the initial draft of the translation. The transfer takes place in the mind of the translator.

Reworking the initial draft

- The **reworking the initial draft** includes checking for naturalness and for accuracy. The first thing the translator will do, in this step, is to read through the manuscript of the lager unit which he is checking.

- The second thing the translator, in the reworking the initial draft step, will need to do is to check for **accuracy of** meaning. He can only do this by a careful comparison with the source text and the semantic analysis.

- A third thing the translator will need to check is whether or not the **theme** comes through clearly; and finally the draft should be read through concentrating on the **information load.**

Chapter 37

Testing the Translation

- In this chapter four aspects of testing will be discussed:

1) why test the translation,

2) who does the testing,

3) how is testing done, and finally,

4) how the results are used in polishing the final manuscript.

Reasons for testing

- There are three main reasons for testing a translation. The translator wants to be sure his translation is **accurate**, **clear**, and **natural.**

There are several ways of testing a translation:

1) comparison with the source text,

2) back-translation into the source language,

3) comprehension checks,

4) naturalness and readability testing and finally,

5) consistency checks.

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