

**A CRITICAL REVIEW OF TRANSLATION EDUCATION
IN CHINA AND SOUTH AFRICA:
A PROPOSED MODEL**

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**DECLARATION WITH REGARD TO
INDEPENDENT WORK**

I, **Yuan Liu**, Passport Number PCHN 148338506 and Student Number 20398026, do hereby declare that this research project submitted to the Central University of Technology, Free State for the degree **MAGISTER TECHNOLOGIAE: LANGUAGE PRACTICE** is my own independent work and complies with the Code of Academic Integrity, as well as other relevant policies, procedures, rules and regulations of the Central University of Technology, Free State, and has not been submitted before to any institution by myself or any other person in fulfillment (or partial fulfillment) of the requirements for the attainment of any qualification.

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Chapter One

Orientation to the study

1.1 Introduction and background

The majority of undergraduate students with linguistic degrees or translation degrees nowadays have to face the pressure of high rates of unemployment, as reflected in the 21st Newspaper in China, 2004. As the integrated global society and integrated global economy are developing, every course at universities has to face challenges. The constructor of the subject has to meet the demands of the market, to a degree, in order to release students from the high pressure of potential unemployment, and this is particularly true of translation education. In this case, the curricula should be more practical and should meet the demands of industry. In addition, the lecturers should have relevant experience in related fields.

1.2 Significance of the study

This study will investigate translation education, both at acknowledged Chinese universities and acknowledged South African universities. Through this research, the researcher wants to find possible corresponding problems of translation education, as well as proposed solutions to those problems, and then the researcher will propose a model for translation education. In addition, the researcher will briefly introduce the Chinese translation history and South

African translation history.

1.3 Statement of the problems

According to some research results about translation education both at Chinese universities and South African universities, the researcher holds the opinion that there are some problems of translation education in China and South Africa.

1.3.1 The main problems of translation education in China

- ◆ The translation textbooks are outdated
- ◆ The teaching materials do not face the demands of industry
- ◆ The translation lecturers in China are either old or do not have translation background

1.3.2 The main problems of translation education in South Africa

- ◆ South Africa does not have specific translation theories or translation textbooks for students
- ◆ South African universities should provide more translation classes for the other 9 official languages, except English and Afrikaans

1.4 Research questions

The following problems are going to be investigated:

- ◆ How is translation taught at Chinese universities and South African universities?

- ◆ What textbooks are being used in translation classes
- ◆ What skills should students have when they graduate with a degree in translation?
- ◆ Is there a balance between translation theory and translation practice?
- ◆ Is there a way to improve the translation assessment (evaluation and reliable test instruments) in teaching?
- ◆ What are students' and translation lecturers' opinion on translation education? And do they have any recommendations?

1.5 Purpose of the study

The researcher will propose solutions to the corresponding problems of translation education in China and South Africa. With this research project, the researcher intends to:

- ◆ Primarily introduce the theories and history of translation in China and South Africa.
- ◆ Establish how learning foreign languages may help student translators with translation.
- ◆ Recommend some solutions to the problems, such as increase practical translation hours, and improve the content of textbooks for translation.

1.6 Hypothesis

The proposed model of a translation curriculum can help improve translation education both in China and South Africa. In addition, the students' opinion on translation education can help translation lecturers find a better way to teach students. This model will ensure that the students who enrol in a translation course learn more translation history and translation theories of the respected countries as well. Students will do more practical translation practices in class under lecturers' guidance. After attending the improved translation courses, students will master more translation skills and the scores can reflect students' real translating ability. In short, the researcher hopes the proposed model of translation education can bridge the gap between university teaching and the real market.

1.7 Research design and methodology

1.7.1 Sample

For the purposes of this study, both quantitative research and qualitative research was performed, since it could reduce error and bias. There are six sample universities in all, three sample universities in China (Shenyang University; Beijing Foreign Studies University and Shanghai International Studies University) and three sample universities in South Africa (Central University of Technology, Free State; University of the Free State and the University of Stellenbosch).

1.7.2 Research methodology

During the research, the researcher conducted personal interviews with translation course lecturers and professors, as well as some students who registered for courses in translation in South Africa or at Foreign Language Departments in China at different universities in order to obtain the first hand information.

The figures (see Appendix I and Appendix II) are analysed from the questionnaires, which were completed by translation lecturers and students. According to Plooy (2001: 15, 26), the self-administered questionnaires include:

- ◆ Matrix questions, which consist of a number of closed-ended questions with each question's options scaled. Respondents are asked to select the option that reflects their attitude, opinion or judgement. Matrix questions enable the researcher to use standard measurement scales, such as Likert scales, and to combine questions or statements that logically belong together.

- ◆ Multiple-choice questions, which consist of closed-ended questions, in response to which respondents had to select one option from a number of possible options. Multiple-choice questions are useful to

group underlying units, such as age, language, and especially when mutually exclusive categories (options) can be formulated. Multiple-choice questions are also very useful when combined with a scale, to measure an amount and /or the sensitivity to degree of conviction.

- ◆ Types of interview questions, for example: **Open-ended questions**, which is to invite the respondent to answer in any way he or she may wish. Open-ended questions do not have structured or specified answers, they can elicit underlying ideas, feelings, sentiments and suggestions that researchers may not even have considered. (Plooy, 2001:24)

Furthermore, the researcher observed and enquired about the training outline of the practice courses from each university, in order to get reliability of the research results.

1.8 Limitation of the study

The proposed study focuses only on the relevancy of textbooks, the qualifications of translation lecturers, curricula setting and evaluation.

1.9 Chapter exposition

Chapter One - Orientation to the study

Chapters Two and Three - The researcher will introduce respectively and primarily the development of translation theory and translation history in both China and South Africa.

Chapter Four – The researcher will expatiate the two segments of teaching translation: teaching translation as a basic skill (TTBS) and teaching translation as a professional skill (TTPS).

Chapter Five - The researcher will elaborate on translation education in China and South Africa.

Firstly, the researcher will illustrate the problems of translation education in Chinese universities, such as:

- ◆ The class hours of translation courses are limited;
- ◆ The translation textbooks students use are old;
- ◆ Many translation lecturers do not have translation background.

Secondly, the researcher will introduce problems of South African translation education, for example, there is no specific South African translation theory book; and students complain about the time for discussion periods with

translation lecturers.

Thirdly, the researcher will discuss corresponding problems between Chinese and South African translation education.

Furthermore, the researcher will propose solutions and suggestions to the problems of translation education in both China and South Africa.

Chapter Six - The researcher will present the roles of theory, practice and comparison in translation education. The practicing of translation theories opens up people's minds and comparisons of translation samples can help students learn from each other.

Chapter Seven - The researcher will propose a model for translation education. Some concepts are essential for course designers to know before designing a course.

Chapter Eight - The researcher will give some recommendations on translation education. Such as including a reading comprehension course, technical and academic writing courses for students; translation textbooks should include basic translation history; and recommendations on the compilation of translation textbooks.

To sum up, the researcher hopes the findings of the study on translation education and the recommendations based on the findings can help lecturers or course designers improve translation courses.

Chapter Two

Translation history in China

China has a longer history in Translation than South Africa. Therefore, the introduction of translation development in China will be discussed more comprehensively.

2.1 Early translation practices in ancient China (1100 BC – 1644 AD)

2.1.1 Buddhist Scriptures

According to Zhong (2003:84), the earliest translation activities in China date back to the Zhou dynasty (1100 BC). Documents of the time indicated that translation was done by government clerks, who were primarily concerned with the transmission of ideologies. In a written document from the late Zhou dynasty, Jia Gongyan, an imperial scholar, gives this definition of translation:

“Translation is to replace one written language with another
without changing the meaning for mutual understanding.”

(Zhong, 2003:84)

This definition of translation, although primitive, proves the existence of translation theory in the ancient China. Later on, translators or linguists tended to sum up the principles identified following his translation practice.

During the Han dynasty (206 BC - 220 BC), translation became a medium for the dissemination of foreign learning. Buddhism, which originated in India, began to penetrate China towards the middle of the first century. The Buddhist scriptures which were written in Sanskrit, needed to be translated into Chinese to meet the needs of Chinese Buddhists. The diffusion of Buddhism in the context of a long-established Chinese culture would not have been possible had it not adjusted itself to the Chinese milieu, and employed a terminology familiar to Chinese disciples. (Zhong, 2003:84-85)

According to Wang & Fan (1999), the translation of Buddhist literature from Pali and Sanskrit into Chinese proved to be a formidable undertaking, given the immensity of the collection of Buddhist classics, which contained a millennium of intellectual endeavours. The Buddhism ideology brought to China initially encompassed both the old *Theravada (Shravakayana)* and the new *Mahayana* sets. Some of the first works were translated in the late East Han Dynasty (25 AD - 220 AD) and lasted into the late Song Dynasty (960 AD - 1279 AD). About 60 monks from the West accomplished much of the translation over the first three centuries, while later works are credited to nearly one hundred Chinese monks who had been to the West for education in the Buddhist tenets. (Zhong, 2003:86)

The researcher holds the opinion that this period can be divided into four stages:

- ◆ The pioneering stage, from the mid East Han Dynasty (206 BC – 24 AD) to the West Jin Dynasty (265 AD – 420 AD);
- ◆ The development stage, from the East Jin Dynasty (317 AD – 420 AD) to the Sui Dynasty (581 AD - 618 AD);
- ◆ The mature stage of the Tang Dynasty (618 AD - 907 AD);
- ◆ The concluding stage of the Northern Song Dynasty (960 AD – 1127 AD).

2.1.1.1 The pioneering stage

The diffusion of knowledge in ancient India was accomplished by word-of-mouth for quite a long period of time before written modes of communication were adopted. The Buddhist canon therefore appeared mainly in the form of an oral tradition when it first came to China. The Chinese people, ignorant of the canon's history, imagined that the scriptures were the Buddha's sutras, recorded by disciples and stored in caves and libraries before they were discovered and taken to China. At first, the Chinese monks had little choice as to what and what not to translate. This was left to the foreign monks who had often memorised the scriptures. The translations therefore tended to be only part of a complete text.

According to Ma (2000:18), there were two notable monk translators at that time. One was An Shi-gao, and the other was Dharmaraksa. An Shi-gao was one of the scholars in the translation centre organized by foreign monks in ancient China, and he translated more than 41 volumes of Buddhist scriptures.

Dharmaraksa, of Rouzhi origin, but born in Dunhuang in China, was proficient in both the Chinese and Indian languages, and translated over 100 *Mahayana* texts. He would often dictate the text from memory for his Chinese scribes to put down in Chinese characters. His most remarkable contribution was the *Lotus Sutra* (the *Saddharmapundarika* in Sanskrit), a dissertation of great importance to the development of *Mahayana*. He also rendered the 25,000-line *Perfection of Wisdom*, which was the earliest of the *Prajna* Sutras, a substantial section of the *Mahayana* literature. He played an instrumental role in the spread of Buddhism in China through his translations and religious activities. (Ma, 2000:19)

2.1.1.2 The development stage

The translation of Buddhist scriptures continued throughout the 4th century. A State Translation School was founded, and that school was the earliest school of translation in China (Wang & Fan, 1999). Dao An, the director of the school, established his reputation by arranging the sutras in their proper order. An

important part of his work consisted of textual criticism of translations and terminology, and commentaries to explicate the essence of passages. But Dao An advocated strict literal translation of the Buddhist scriptures. In this case, the translations did not always accurately communicate the contents of the original texts, and sometimes even distorted them. (Ma, 2000:19)

The earlier translators of that time often made mistakes. These could be the four main reasons:

- ◆ Some of the earlier translators were not familiar with the implications of the original texts, especially when they were translating the very complex syntax and nuances of meaning of the foreign language.
- ◆ The foreign terminology was vague and ambiguous at times, and it was difficult to find the corresponding words or phrases in Chinese to convey the fine shades of meaning.
- ◆ The complicated sentences in some sutras might have appeared repetitious, but in reality they contained well-developed ideas which were often lost in the process of translation.
- ◆ The syntax of the foreign language was often the reverse of the Chinese, forcing the translator to adjust the word order in the Chinese translation before the meaning of the sentence would become comprehensible.

According to Ma (2000:32), Kumarajiva was one of the greatest foreign translators in Chinese history. He was invited to direct the translation of Buddhist scriptures in the State Translation School. Contemporaneous with or prior to Kumarajiva, translators had attempted to employ words and concepts derived from the Taoist texts in order to make the Buddhist scriptures more comprehensible, as well as more acceptable to Chinese audiences. Kumarajiva applied a translation approach to transfer the true essence of the Sanskrit Sutras. He tried his best to create new proper names for rendering Buddhist concepts so that his translations were different from those of others and more faithful to the originals. From the time of Kumarajiva until the eighth century, the quantity of translations of Sanskrit Sutras increased and their accuracy improved. Meanwhile, Kumarajiva was the first person in the history of translation in China to suggest that translators should sign their names under the translated works.

2.1.1.3 The mature stage

The translation and importation of knowledge became common practice from the Sui dynasty (581 AD – 618 AD) to the Tang Dynasty (618 AD – 907 AD), a period of grandeur, expansion and a flourishing of the arts. The Tang dynasty represented the first peak of scripture translation, as well as other Buddhist literature translation. According to Wang & Fan (1999), translation during this stage can be characterized by:

- ◆ The appearance of more Chinese monk-translators proficient in both Chinese and Sanskrit, and conversant with the Buddhist tenets;
- ◆ The translations were the entire works instead of just excerpts;
- ◆ Translation projects received support from the Court;
- ◆ Better management of translation projects.

The Buddhist monks not only had a very good command of Sanskrit, but they had also thoroughly studied translation theory, since the translations were mainly on religious scriptures. According to Zhong (2003:87), the Buddhists had the following requirements for the translators:

- ◆ “Be faithful to the Buddhist doctrine.
- ◆ Be ready to benefit the readers (Buddhist believers).
- ◆ Concentrate on the translation of the Buddhist doctrine rather than translating for fame.”

In ancient China (1100 BC – 1644 AD), Xuan Zang was commonly regarded as the most important figure during the first peak of translation. He managed to translate 1335 volumes of Buddhist manuscripts in nineteen years. Wang & Fan (1999) stated that Xuan Zang was also the first Chinese translator who translated from Chinese into another language. Not only was he a great translator and organizer of translation, he was also a great translation theorist

whose contribution to translation studies still remains significant today, and is still acknowledged in the history of translation in China.

2.1.1.4 The concluding stage

From the late Tang (618 AD – 907 AD) to the Song dynasty (960 AD – 1279 AD), although schools for the translation of Buddhist scriptures were established, there was little progress in translation theory or practice and no significant Buddhist scriptures were translated. The quality and quantity of translations could not be compared with those of the Tang dynasty.

2.1.2 Technical translation history and Christian translation history

From the Yuan (1271 AD - 1368 AD) to the Ming dynasty (1368 AD – 1644 AD), the translation of sutras lost their importance. Arabs began to settle in China, even becoming mandarins or merchants and having learnt Chinese, some translated scientific works from Arabic or European languages. (Zhong, 2003:87)

Two Arabic books on astronomy were translated in the early Ming dynasty, but it appears that these translations were carried out merely to satisfy the curiosity of a few scholars. (Wang and Fan, 1999)

The arrival of western Christian missionaries, the Jesuits in particular, brought changes and the missionaries began to translate works of western science and technology, as well as Christian texts. Between 1582 and 1773 (Early Qing dynasty), more than seventy missionaries undertook these translations. They were of various nationalities: Italian, Portuguese, Swiss, Polish, and French, et cetera. The arrival of the Italian missionary Michael Ruggieri (1543-1607) on the shores of Canton in 1580 marked the beginning of the second wave of translation activity. (Zhong, 2003:88)

According to Xie Q. Y. (2004), many books were translated by the missionaries in collaboration with the Chinese. Although translations carried out during the Ming dynasty were mainly on science and technology: mathematics, astronomy, medicine, hydrology, et cetera, there were also some translations done on philosophy and literature in this period into Chinese.

The factors that characterised translation during this time were:

- (1) The subject of translation shifted from Buddhist scriptures to scientific and technological knowledge.
- (2) Translators of this period were mainly scientists, government officials who were erudite scholars and western missionaries.

According to Xie Q. Y. (2004), the Ming translators were as successful as pioneers on technical translation that some of the translated technical terms are still in use today. However, translation practice was overstressed and no translation theories were developed during the Ming dynasty. In comparison with the large scale of translation of the Buddhist scriptures during the Tang dynasty, translation during the Ming dynasty was not so influential in terms of the history of translation in China. During the Tang dynasty, translation practices were accompanied by a quest for systematic translation theories, while during the Ming dynasty, the main purpose of translation was to introduce western technical knowledge.

2.1.3 Development of translation theories

Initially, translation often involved several monks collaborating on a work, with some foreign monks attempting the translation themselves, often soliciting the assistance of the Chinese. A foreign monk would explain the text in Chinese, and the Chinese collaborator would write down what he heard. This was the prevailing technique employed during the 3rd and 4th centuries, though it would appear somewhat inadequate by later standards. By the late 4th century, the Chinese monks had become competent enough to handle translation without help from foreign monks. Towards the end of the 4th century, when preparations were being made for the translation of the *Sarvastivadin canon*, which was sanctioned by the Court in 401, a translation workshop was

organised to carry out large-scale translations. (Xie, Q. Y., 2004)

From the outset translators of Buddhist literature were confronted with the problem of translating the form of the sutras, including the names and terms. At first, early translators favoured literal translations which were faithful to the form of the original. Because of the extreme literalness, their translations were hard to understand. Later on, the content of the sutras was translated in elegant and readable style, sometimes at the expense of accuracy. However, the emphasis on style came under attack for clouding the main ideas of the passages. (Xie, Q. Y., 2004)

One of the criticisms levelled against free translation (translating only the meaning of the sutra), was that translators would often impose their own ideas on those of the original text, so that the translations were often influenced by non-Buddhist concepts. Dao An therefore advocated that the translator follow the original text as closely as possible, adhering to the original form and style as well as annotating the translation. In his opinion there were five ways in which translators could deviate from the original, and they were (Wang & Fan, 1999):

- ◆ Reversing the syntactic order of the original to conform to Chinese speech habits;

- ◆ Attracting the attention of Chinese readers with a polished, literary style instead of the unadorned style of the source text;
- ◆ Omitting repetitions, chanted verses, and exclamatory phrases;
- ◆ Occasionally omitting lengthy explanations and commentaries found in the middle of a passage;
- ◆ Ignoring a paragraph repeating a preceding passage.

According to Ma (2000:33), Dao An also summarized “San Bu Yi” (three difficulties) for scripture translators:

- ◆ Translators should strive for faithfulness to the original, but also make the original's truths understandable to the laity of the age.
- ◆ The difference between the wisdom of Buddha and the ignorance of the common people was vast, so it was no easy matter to make the subtle remarks of a sage who had lived 1,000 years before understandable.
- ◆ The passage was over 1,000 years since the Buddha's death, so it was hard to verify the truth of the Buddha's teachings.

As regarding the problem of translating or transliterating foreign proper names, Xuan Zang proposed “wu bu fan” (five categories of terms be left without translating) (Wang and Fan, 1999):

- ◆ “terms having to do with esoteric concepts, such as *dharani* or *mandala*

- ◆ terms pregnant with meaning, such as *Bo Jia Fan* for *bhagavan*
- ◆ things which do not exist in China, such as the *Jambudvīpa* tree
- ◆ extant terms used by ancient translators, such as
Anuttara-samyak-sambodhi
- ◆ elevated terms, such as *Prajnaparamita*"

2.1.4 Significance of translation development

Apart from the significance of the sutra translations, there are some other points that need to be considered. Firstly, the translation of Buddhist scriptures underwent three stages of development with respect to those engaged in the process of translating. In the initial period, translations were done by foreign monks; then Chinese and foreign translators worked in tandem, and finally Chinese translators took over the job. This transition indicated a shift from passive to active acceptance of foreign cultures on the part of the Chinese people in general and the Buddhist believers in particular.

Secondly, the translation of Buddhist scriptures was a big project. It demanded collaboration among translators and a division of labour, as well as it taught translators that translating can be done in group. According to Wang & Fan (1999), teams of translators were organized as follows during the mature stage of translation:

- (1) Chief of translation;
- (2) Translator who recited the foreign text and translated it into Chinese; (3) Verifier of the meaning in the Sanskrit text;
- (4) Scribe who wrote the translation down in Chinese;
- (5) Verifier of the meaning of the written Chinese;
- (6) Polisher of style;
- (7) Proof-reader;
- (8) Corrector of the Chinese characters.

Thirdly, as time went on, many remarks or opinions on the translation were recorded. Kumarajiva put forth the idea of “aiming at the expressiveness of the original, the flow of the translation should be based on the original”. These translation theories guided the translation work of the time and enriched Chinese translation theory. (Xie, Q. Y., 2004)

Fourthly, the translation of Buddhist scriptures developed from immature literal translation to immature free translation, then from comparatively mature literal translation to more mature free translation, and finally to an integral practice of both literal and free translations. Theoretical justification of literal and free translations by modern theorists can be traced back to the rule-of-thumb experiences of these early masters of translation. (Xie, Q. Y., 2004)

Fifthly, the translation of Buddhist scriptures was conducive to the growth of the Chinese language. Lexically, some 35,000 new words found their way into the Chinese word-stock; phonologically, the practice of translating Buddhist scriptures sensitized the ears of the Chinese to the tonal qualities of individual Chinese character-words, and a four-tone scheme was devised as a result, which made poetic composition much easier. Liang Qichao pointed out 10 great changes in syntax and style that evolved over the centuries, such as the increased number of inverted sentences. (Wang & Fan, 1999)

2.2 Translation in China (1644 AD -1911 AD)

2.2.1 Technical translation during the Qing dynasty

From the late 16th century to the 18th century, Chinese translators were mainly scientists, who collaborated with foreign scientists. Their translations were more selective and many books were useful to China. For example, Xu Guangqi's method of translating was selective, in that he included only those methods he thought practical and applicable to Chinese conditions; he also conducted experiments in order to find out if the methods were really useful. (Ma, 2000:35)

The technical translations in this period promoted the scientific development of China and also contributed to the study of technical translation in China.

According to Chen F. G. (1992:86-90), Fryer summed up the experience of translation in a book entitled *On the Various Methods of Translating*:

“(1) The fallacy that technical language could not be rendered into Chinese should be refuted; Chinese is as expressive as any other languages in the world, and new technical terms could by various means be created in Chinese.

(2) A database for technical terminology should be established for all the translators; the same technical terms should be identical in Chinese even if they were translated by different translators.

(3) As for selecting the original texts for translation, a translator should translate those books which are in urgent need among the target language readers. He also explained that one should not translate unless one has understood every single word of the original text ”.

2.2.2 Yan Fu's views on translation

At the beginning of the nineteenth century, highly placed Foreign Affairs officials initiated the translation of technical documents dealing with subjects

like shipbuilding and the manufacturing of weapons. They even established a number of translator training institutions. After the Sino-Japanese War of 1894-1895, Yan Fu was one of the most important figures in the modern period of translation in China. He was generally accepted by translators as the most influential translator and translation theorist in China. (Zhong, 2003:89)

Yan Fu got his reputation as a famous translator because of his contribution to translation theory. He set down the triple translation criteria of "Faithfulness, Fluency and Elegance," which he called "Xin Da Ya" in Chinese, in the preface of the translated *Evolution and Ethics* (1893). These criteria influenced the development of Chinese translation practice and theory for almost half a century after it came into being. "Faithfulness" requires that the meaning in the target language should be faithful to the meaning of the original; "Fluency" is the requirement of intelligibility of the target language text, the translated text should be in accordance with the language rules of the target language, and "Elegance" requires a translation to be aesthetically pleasing.

Though there have been different opinions on Yan Fu's triple criteria, they have not been abandoned by translators in China. His theory successfully guided technical translation during the late Qing dynasty and the early Republic of China. Yan Fu, himself, with his translation output and translation theory, opened a new chapter in the translation history of China. (Ma, 2000:36)

According to Zhong (2003:84), good translators must have a thorough understanding of the source texts, but they must be aware of the desires and expectations of their compatriots so they can select works appropriate to their time.

2.2.3 Ma Jianzhong and his perspective on translation

In 1894, five years before the publication of Yan Fu's triple criteria in the preface of *Evolution and Ethics* (1893), Ma Jianzhong set forth three requirements for a good translation in his *On Establishing a Translation Institution* (1894), namely:

“(1) A translator should have a good mastery of the two languages. He is required to know the differences and similarities between the two languages.

(2) A translator should have a full understanding of the meaning, style and spirit of the source text and transfer them exactly into the target language.

(3) There should be no discrepancy between the source text and the target text. The target text is required to be identical with the source text.” (Zhong, 2003:89)

Ma set very high requirements for translators, and all of them were reasonable. He was not as influential as Yan Fu in the field of translation, partly because he was a grammarian and not a translator, because he had never done translation. Therefore, his translation theory had been ignored for a long time. (Ma, 2000:34)

2.2.4 Literary translation

During the late 18th century, literal translation was popular and marked another peak of translation in China. Literary translation during the late Qing dynasty consisted mainly of the translation of western novels into Chinese. According to Guo (1998:98-103), Lin Shu was the typical translator at that time. His contribution on novel translation should not be ignored. He was the first translator to translate western literature into classical Chinese. He has been regarded as the pioneer of literary translation in China. However, he did not know any of the foreign languages. His translations were achieved with the assistance of interpreters. As a result, there were many mistakes and misinterpretations in his translations, but he was an intelligent scholar who was

good at writing classical Chinese, so his translations were immensely popular in his time.

From the 17th century to the early 20th century, translators were influenced by Yan Fu's triple criteria, but they overstressed the elegance of the target text. Since the translations were written in classical Chinese for the sake of fluency and elegancy, in some cases, faithfulness of style to the original text had to be sacrificed. During this time, a discussion and expansion of Yan Fu's theory, and literal vs. free translation was still the main issue. (Ma, 2000:35)

2.3 Translation in modern China (1912-1949)

The May 4th Movement on 4 May, 1919, opened a new chapter in the history of translation in China. The translation atmosphere was dynamic and active with a focus on the translation of Karl Marx's and Lenin's works on socialist and communist theories, and the translation and re-translation of western literature. The central committee of the Communist Party of China established a Translation Bureau for the translation of the works of Marxism-Leninism.

Translators in this period, compared with those during the Qing dynasty were more selective regarding source texts. The quality and quantity of literary translation improved greatly. Guo (1998:100) points out that the translators, most of whom had learned the source languages and literary theory before

doing the translations, were aware of the significance of transferring literary styles on the basis of linguistic accuracy. Professionalization of literary translation in this period also helped improve translation quality.

Another improvement in literary translation was the linguistic change. Before the May 4th Movement (1919), the language used in literary creation and translation was classical Chinese. After that, a more simplified and easily-understood vernacular Chinese (Bai Hua) came to be used for literary creation and translation. The use of vernacular Chinese in translation enlarged the readership. Since then, vernacular Chinese has been used instead of classical Chinese in all types of translation. (Guo, 1998:101)

2.3.1 Developments in translation theory

Translation theory, especially literary translation theory, was effectively developed during this period. Translation issues like: *the necessity of translation, translatability and untranslatability, the relation between translation and literary creation, the improvement of translation quality* etc. were raised and discussed by translation practitioners. However, the heated topics on translation theory were still *translation criteria*, and *literary vs. free translation*. (Xie, Q. Y., 2004)

According to Ma (2000:40), Lin Yütang's translation criteria were no more than

a reproduction of Yan Fu's "Xin, Da, Ya" (faithfulness, intelligibility and elegance). He put forward his translation criteria: "The first is fidelity, the second coherence, the third is elegance." In other words, the meaning of a translation should be faithful to the original; the language of the translation should be smooth, coherent and aesthetically pleasing.

2.3.2 Lu Xun's views on translation

According to Guo (1998:102), Lu Xun, one of the great writers of China, translated more than 200 literary works from 14 countries. He thought that a translation is a creative work that differs from a literary creation. The value of a translation lies in its faithfulness to the original text. He insisted that the main purpose of translation was to introduce the culture and social lives of foreign countries to the Chinese people. He advocated that there should be an exotic atmosphere in the translated works, thus familiarizing the readers with the foreign cultures. According to Guo (1998:173), Lu Xun wrote in the prelude of one of his translated works: "A translation must have both intelligibility and the style of the original text".

Lu Xun also advocated strict literal translation so as to be more faithful to the original text; he was against those who liked to borrow words or phrases from

the target language in their translations for the sake of intelligibility and fluency; he believed that literal translation of culturally loaded words was one of the important means of enriching the mother tongue. (Guo, 1998:162)

2.3.3 Qū Qiubai's views on translation

Qū Qiubai's views on translation were very influential in China. According to Guo (1998:174), Qū Qiubai was one of the early translators who translated Russian literature into Chinese, and his translations have been highly regarded for their faithfulness to the meaning, the syntactic structure and the writing style of the original text. Like Lu Xun, he believed that translators should be faithful to the original text.

"A translation should be faithful to the original meaning and enable the target language readers to have the same concept from the translated text as the source language readers get from the original text." (Qū, 1928 in Zhong 2003:84-91)

He also advocated absorbing new words and expressions from foreign languages to enrich the Chinese language. According to Zhong (2003:90), Qū Qiubai wrote:

"We should not only introduce culturally-loaded idioms to Chinese readers, but also accept them as a part of colloquial Chinese."

Qū Qiubai was one of those who challenged Yan Fu's translation criteria. He pointed out that Yan Fu's choice of language and style for translations, which returned to the Classical, cut him off from the social development of the time. According to Zhong (2003:90), in one of his letters to Lu Xun, Qū Qiubai said:

"How can we reach Yan Fu's requirement of 'faithfulness' and 'fluency' if we have to make the translation elegant by using the language and style of almost two thousands years ago?"

He also argued against those who advocated that "intelligibility is more important than faithfulness." He thought that "intelligibility is just as important as faithfulness," and that in fact, practical translators sometimes have to sacrifice part of the "intelligibility" in order to achieve "faithfulness."

2.4 Translation in present day China (1949 - present)

In the 1950s, large quantities of scientific and technical works were translated into Chinese to meet the demands of the national social and economic construction. In the 1970s, most of the translators in China were involved with the translation of the United Nations documents after China was restored to a seat in the United Nations. Literary translation was separated from general translation in China in this period, and literary translators became a very important part of China's literature and arts personnel. (Zhong, 2003;91)

2.4.1 Translation theory

From the 1940s to the 1970s, most of the translators in this period took a literary approach to the study of translation theory. They pointed out that literary translation, which requires a higher standard, is different from general translation. Literary translation is an act in which the translators reproduce the exact version of the artistic conception of the original text into the target language; this requires literary translators to have not only a good command of the two languages but also mastery of artistic creation processes and the ability to catch the literary spirit of the original text. (Zhong, 2003:90)

Fu Lei was one of the famous translators in this period. He advocated literary translation. And he thought that the transfer of the original spirit of source text was the most important thing. Thus, an artistic literary translation depends on the transfer of the spirit of the original text; if the original text is an artistic work,

it should remain artistic after it is rendered into another language. In literary translation, the advocating of "being alike in spirit" does not deny the significance of "being alike in appearance." A good translation product should be "alike in spirit and appearance." If, for linguistic and cultural reasons, the translator is in a dilemma as to whether to transfer either the appearance (grammatical and syntactic structure etc.) or the literary spirit, he should, according to Fu Lei's principle, sacrifice appearance in favour of spirit. (Ma, 2000:47)

According to Zhong (2003:91), a translator and translation theorist should first catch the thoughts, emotion, style and spirit of the original text, and then express them exactly in another language."

This is just an extension of Yan Fu's "Xin, Da, Ya" (*faithfulness, fluency, elegance*). If Yan's three-character criteria are a guideline for general translation, Fu Lei's "Shen Si" (be alike in spirit) may be regarded as the ultimate requirement for literary translation.

After China opened its doors to the outside world in the 1980s, Chinese translators and translation theorists were able to broaden their views. The discussion of translation theories were no longer focused on issues like translation criteria, literal translation versus. free translation, et cetera. With the

introduction of different views on translation from the west, Chinese translators are rethinking the theories they have followed, and research in translation theories has diversified. However, there are two main schools of translation theorists, namely, the linguistic school and the literal and cultural school. Those who take a linguistic approach to the study of translation are mainly linguists or teachers of translation at universities. They may be influenced by Catford, Nida and others, and stress that translation theory is an independent linguistic discipline, derived from observation and providing the basis for practice. While those who are taking the literal and cultural approach are mainly writers or literary translators who had read literature on translation by Chinese theorists. (Xie, Q. Y., 2004)

Many translation theorists absorbed the essence of western translation theory and combined it with their own research in order to develop a new theory, which would be more applicable in China. For example, Jin Di, introduced E. A. Nida's "dynamic equivalence" translation theory to the Chinese translation community, and he concluded that "dynamic equivalence", which is based on the comparison of reader response to the source text and the target text, was applicable in China. (Wang & Fan, 1999)

Apart from research on the systematic translation theory, the study of technical and specialized translation has also been popular amongst Chinese

translators, in order to activate research on technical and specialized translation. According to Ma (2000:56), an academic journal, *China Technical Translation*, was launched in 1992 for this purpose.

2.4.2 Conclusion

China has a long history of translation and development of translation theories. According to Zhong (2003:91), comparing with the translation history in western countries, it is hard to find a systematic translation theory to guide translation practice in China although there are prescriptive explanations of how to translate. In the 21st century, China is now facing a challenge in the development of translation.

Chapter Three

Translation history in South Africa

It is commonly believed that African literature is rooted in an oral tradition. Unlike other parts of the world, such as Europe, the Middle East and some regions of Asia, original inhabitants do not have an ancient tradition of written literature. In pre-colonial times, pictorial writing was a common form of artistic expression amongst many African cultures. (Woodsworth, 1995:90-101)

3.1 Pre-colonial era

According to "*A short history of South Africa*" (http://www.safrika.info/ess_info/sa_glance/history/history.htm), many hundreds of years before the arrival of Europeans, the Bantu-speaking pastoralists began to move to north-eastern and eastern regions of South Africa. At that time, the "translation" was mainly about cattle exchange and some other basic agricultural skills. In fact, the translation in that period was only the transcription of Bantu language into pictorial writing. According to Woodsworth (1995:92), the pictorial writing is a certain kind of writing, so the transcription of Bantu language into pictorial writing is a certain kind of translation as well. There was no translation theory or strict translation rules.

Bantu-speakers translated many articles, about metallurgical skills and mining,

by interpreting. The oldest indigenous peoples of South Africa did not know what to translate, so they left the translation job to the Bantu-speakers. The Bantu-speakers often memorized the metallurgical skills and mining and narrated it to the indigenous people. The indigenous people then just “wrote down” what they heard. In this case, the translation tended to be only part of the original text. The translation in South Africa at that stage is similar to the translation development in the pioneering stage in China

3.2 The colonial era

According to the *South African Year Book* (2003/04), between the 15th and the 16th centuries, the Portuguese began to visit to South Africa regularly, and the permanent white settlement to the coast began in 17th century.

During those decades, many settlers were missionaries and administrators, acting as translators, and were responsible for many of the early collections of South African oral texts, as well as other African oral texts.

Bandia (1998:355) asserted that the oral texts at that time were produced by pre-tape-recorder scholars. Most of time, those texts had to be “reordered” during live performances of oral works by indigenous people. Linguists and anthropologists were two groups of European scholars who were particularly interested in cataloguing the numerous languages of the continent and

analyzing their vocabulary, grammar, syntax and phonology. Their enterprise was consistent with the aim of the missionaries to translate their own religious texts into South African vernaculars. However, some colonial administrators or scholars hardly understood the source language, therefore, they translated literally. (Bandia, 1998:355)

As Bandia (1998:356) asserts, the amount of oral literature recorded was limited and the context of performance was essentially unnatural, so some European linguists often transported local informants into metropolitan seminars. For instance, a number of German linguists did so. Translation at that time can be viewed as the process by which colonialists inscribed African oral literature, whether for historical or philological purposes and the authenticity of South African oral texts came under serious attack. (Bandia, 1998:356)

In the late 17th century, a school was opened in the Cape to teach Dutch and religion to the children of the White settlers, Mulattos and Hottentots. Romerini (n, d.) said that school was one of the earliest schools to teach foreign languages. In the early 19th century, the missionary societies of those countries established many schools to teach foreign languages and taught South African literature. The students also included the first generations of professional anthropologists. After long periods of time in a single territory,

those anthropologists could develop proficiency in local languages and thus undertake valuable research on the oral tradition. Some itinerant anthropologists did produce significant amounts of texts, and these texts played an important role in later translation. (Beier *et al.*, 2005)

3.3 The Bible translation era

Missionaries produced bilingual texts, particularly Bible translation due to their commitment to learn local languages. They even produced texts exclusively in local languages. Vernacular translations were thus available, and moreover, mission catechists and school teachers were often local Africans who participated orally in the translation of these religious texts. (Hermanson, 2002:6)

3.3.1 The missionary period

With the study of writing African languages came the establishment of the British and Foreign Bible Society (BFBS) on 7 March, 1804. Robert Moffat, a Scottish pioneer missionary in South Africa opened missionary stations and translated the Gospel according to Luke into Tswana in 1830. That is the earliest published translation of the Bible in South Africa. A number of revisions of this Bible were made in Botswana until A. J. Wookey translated the Bible in 1908. (Hermanson, 2002:6)

Early Bible translation was undertaken by the missionaries, and in some cases, the Bible translations were published by the missionaries themselves, either on a mission press, or a commercial press in South Africa. According to Hermanson (2002:7), an indication of the dedication of missionaries in Africa to Bible translation up to 1938, was that nearly one quarter of the world's New Testaments, one seventh of the world's complete Bible, and nearly one sixth of Scripture portions, were translations into languages classified as Bantu Languages.

During the missionary period, the translation theory was not well developed, because most of the missionaries translated the Scriptures in a formal equivalent way, for example, "word for word" and "structure for structure". According to Hermanson (2002:7), many translators were influenced by formal equivalent translation theory, which was mainly reflected by Bible translation. The typical translators of that time were Robert Moffat, A. J. Wookey and J. W. Appleyard.

Though most of the missionaries translated in a literal way, a few translators made an attempt towards what would have been regarded at the time to be a more idiomatic rather than literal translation. Many missionaries began to learn other languages, such as: Hebrew, Greek and Latin. Therefore, when they came to translate the Scriptures, they used the Hebrew and Greek texts

available at the time, together with the translations in their own languages as source texts.

3.3.2 The Bible society period

The South African Bible Society was established in Cape Town on 23 August, 1820. The Bible Society of South Africa began functioning as an autonomous body, independent of the British and Foreign Bible Society (BFBS), on 1 November, 1965, and, with this, it became a new impetus for Bible translation in South Africa. During the Bible society period, the translation theory was developed and E. A. Nida's formal equivalent and dynamic equivalent theory was mainly used in Bible translation.

(<http://www.biblesociety.co.za/biblesociety/history.asp>)

3.3.2.1 E. A. Nida's translation theory

Dr. E. A. Nida's theory of dynamic-equivalent translation in publications, such as: *Towards a science of translating* (1964) and *the theory and practice of translation* (1969), marked an epoch in translation in South Africa. In *Towards a science of translating*, Nida divided translation into two approaches: the formal-equivalent approach and the dynamic-equivalent approach (Nida, 2000:82-140):

- ◆ Formal equivalence focuses attention on the message itself, in both form

and content. In such a translation one is concerned with correspondences such as poetry, sentence to sentence, and concept to concept. Viewed from this formal orientation, one is concerned that the message in the receptor language should match as closely as possible the different elements in the source languages. This means, for example, that the message in the receptor culture is constantly compared with the message in the source culture to determine standards of accuracy and correctness.

The type of translation which most completely typifies this structural equivalence might be called “gloss translation”, in which the translator attempts to reproduce as literally and meaningfully as possible the form and content of the original. The gloss translation is designed to permit the reader to identify himself as fully as possible with a person in the source-language context, and to understand as much as he can of the customs, manner of thought, and means of expression.

- ◆ In contrast, a translation which attempts to produce a dynamic rather than a formal equivalence is based upon the principle of equivalent effect. In such a translation one is not so concerned with matching the receptor-language message with the source language message, but with the dynamic relationship, that the relationship between receptor and message should be substantially the same as that which existed between

the original receptors and the message.

A translation of dynamic equivalence aims at complete naturalness of expression, and tries to relate the receptor to modes of behaviour relevant within the context of his culture. It does not insist that he understands the cultural patterns of the source language context in order to comprehend the message. There are varying degrees of such dynamic-equivalence translations.

The dynamic-equivalent approach was later adapted and renamed as the *functional equivalent approach*. Since the mid nineteen-eighties, functional equivalence is the main translation theory in South Africa (Jordaan, 2002:20). In other words, there has been a marked shift of emphasis from the formal to the dynamic dimension. A recent summary of literary artists, publishers, educators, and professional translators' opinions on translating clearly indicates that the present direction is toward increasing emphasis on dynamic equivalence (Hermanson, 2002:9).

However, in the researcher's opinion the formal correspondence and the functional equivalence should not be separated and seen as totally independent methodologies, because there is no watertight division between formal correspondence and functional equivalence. Nevertheless these two

approaches represent the two extreme poles within translation science.

Since 1965, the Bible Society of South Africa held many seminars, in an attempt to let translators congregate and exchange ideas. Existing revision and translation committees were introduced to the theory of dynamic equivalence, and, where the churches felt the need for new translations, training seminars were held to give instruction in the application of the theory. The translation committees also had theological training in the Hebrew and Greek languages, as well as other indigenous languages. In addition, the translators were free to ask for assistance from Old and New Testament scholars and African linguists. (Hermanson, 2002:9)

3.3.3 Early Bible translation history of South African languages

3.3.3.1 Tswana Bible translation history

The earliest published book of the Bible in a South African language was the translation of Luke into the Tlhaping dialect of Tswana. It was done by Robert Moffat of the London Missionary Society in 1830. In 1840, the BFBS published a translation of the New Testament, the first consignment of 500, which was brought out by David Livingstone. The following year, Robert Moffat and David Livingstone published the New Testament and Psalms. Returning in 1843, after four years in England, Moffat tackled the rest of the Old Testament. From 1847, this was printed in sections on a hand press at the mission in Kuruman

on paper supplied by the BFBS, until the Bible was completed in 1857.

A number of revisions of this Bible were made until the one done by A. J. Wookey, now in general use in Botswana, was published in 1908. Both Robert Moffat and A. J. Wookey translated the Bible literally, in other words, their translation theory was similar to E. A. Nida's formal equivalent translation theory. An edition is still published in the original orthography, while a light revision in the current orthography was published by the Bible Society of South Africa in 1992. (Hermanson, 2002:10)

In 1970, the Bible Society of South Africa published a new translation by a committee of representatives from the Hermansburg, Berlin and Dutch Reformed Church Missions in Central Tswana. The fact that this Bible was not only translated by representatives of missions working in what was then known as the Transvaal, but was also published in the orthography used in schools in South Africa, has contributed to its being in more general use in South Africa than the older translations (Hermanson, 2002:11). According to the Bible Society of South Africa (http://www.biblesociety.co.za/resources/translations_tswana.asp), here are some important dates in Tswana Bible translation history:

1830	<p>First Book of the Bible to be translated - Gospel of Luke</p> <p>Cape Town: Government Printing Office</p> <p>Translated by Robert Moffat.</p>
1840	<p>First New Testament</p> <p>London: BFBS</p> <p>Translated by Robert Moffat, and printed under his supervision during a visit to England.</p>
1857	<p>First Bible</p> <p>Kuruman: BFBS</p> <p>As each section was translated by Robert Moffat, it was printed on a missionary press at Kuruman. The complete Bible was available by 1857.</p>
1872	<p>First Bible published in one cover.</p> <p>London: BFBS.</p>
1970	<p>Latest translation of the Bible</p> <p>Cape Town: BSSA</p> <p>Translated by a committee under the chairmanship of Otto Brümmerhoff.</p>

3.3.3.2 Xhosa Bible translation history

The Gospel according to Luke was translated by Wesleyans, William Boyce and Barnabas in 1833, and it was the first published Xhosa translation. A number of missionaries, including H. H. Dugmore, W. J. David, C. W. Posselt, J. L. Döhne and J. C. Warner, contributed to the New Testament, printed at Fort Peddie and Newton Dale in 1846. (Hermanson, 2002:13)

According to Hermanson (2002:13), missionaries, led by J. W. Appleyard, continued translating the Old Testament in a formal equivalent way, and books were published separately as they were completed at the Wesleyan Missionary Press at Mount Coke and King William's Town in 1859. Appleyard revised the New Testament and the Complete Bible was published by the BFBS in one volume in 1864. A version of the Bible, revised by a committee was published in 1899 and this has undergone various further revisions. Here are some important dates in Xhosa Bible (http://www.biblesociety.co.za/resources/translations_xhosa.asp):

1833	<p>First Book of the Bible to be translated - Gospel according to Luke</p> <p>Grahamstown: Wesleyan Missionary Society (WMS)</p> <p>Translated mainly by William B Boyce, William Shaw and W J Shrewsbury.</p>
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1846	<p>First New Testament</p> <p>Newton Dale: WMS</p> <p>Translated and revised by Henry H Dugmore, William J Davis, John Ayliff, Joseph C Warner of the Wesleyan Missionary Society, James Laing, Bryce Ross of the Glasgow Missionary Society and C W Posselt and Jakob L Döhne of the Berlin Missionary Society.</p>
1859	<p>First Bible</p> <p>Mount Coke: WMS</p> <p>The Old Testament, mainly translated by John W Appleyard of the Wesleyan Missionary Society and Albert Kropf of the Berlin Missionary Society, was printed in sections on the missionary press at Mount Coke between 1857 and 1859. The complete Xhosa Bible had now been translated into Xhosa.</p>
1864	<p>First Bible published in one volume</p> <p>London: BFBS</p> <p>The text for this Bible was revised by John W Appleyard</p>
1996	<p>Latest translation of the Bible</p> <p>Cape Town: BSSA</p> <p>Translated by the Rev J C Oosthuysen, project co-ordinator, Rev</p>

	Z W Nkuhlu and Rev E H Dike. They were assisted by Mr H Nabe, Rev B F Mbenenge and Prof D H Odendaal.
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3.3.3.3 Southern Sotho Bible translation history

The Paris Evangelical Mission started working at Morija, Lesotho during 1833. The Gospel according to *Mark* translated by E. Casalis and *John*, translated into Sesotho by S. Rolland were the first gospels in Southern Sotho. They were published in 1839. The translation of the New Testament was completed by 1843, but, because of various setbacks, it was printed at the mission press in Beerseba, near Smithfield, and published in France by the BFBS in 1881. However, because of the Basuto War, it only reached the people in September 1883 (Smit, 1970:210). A revised version of the Bible was published in 1899 and a new edition in a revised orthography in 1909. Here are some important dates in Southern Sotho Bible translation history (http://www.biblesociety.co.za/resources/translations_southernsotho.asp):

1839	First Books of the Bible to be published - Gospels of Mark & John. Cape Town: Richert and Pike (for Paris Evangelical Missionary Society) Translated by Eugène Casalis and Samuel Rolland respectively.
1855	First New Testament

	<p>Beerseba: Paris Evangelical Missionary Society Translated by Eugène Casalis and Samuel Rolland.</p>
1878	<p>First Bible</p> <p>By 1878 the complete Bible was translated by missionaries of the Paris Evangelical Missionary Society, including Emile Rolland, T Arbousset, D F Ellenberger, J Maitin, H M Dyke, A Mabile, L Cochet and L Duvoisin, and printed on the missionary presses at Morija and Masitisi.</p>
1881	<p>First Bible published in one cover.</p> <p>London: BFBS</p> <p>Due to the Basotho wars the Bibles only reached the Basotho in 1883.</p>
1989	<p>Latest translation of the Bible</p> <p>Cape Town: BSSA</p> <p>Translated by Dr A A Odendaal, Mr E M Thakodi, Rev M J Mopeli, Mr B M Khaketla and Bishop I M Phakoe.</p>

3.3.3.4 Northern Sotho Bible translation history

The Berlin Missionary Society started working amongst the Northern Sotho in the early 1860's, and the New Testament, translated by Pastor J. F. C. Knothe

was published in London by the BFBS in 1890, while the Bible was published in Berlin by the Berlin Missionary Society in 1904. Pastor J. F. C. Knothe was the pioneer translator. Hermanson (2002:8)

A committee under the chairmanship of Dr. P. E. Schweltnus produced a complete revision of the New Testament, which was published by the BFBS in Johannesburg in 1943. The complete revision of the Bible, sub-edited by the Rev. J. Baumbach, was published by the BFBS in London in 1951. Here are some important dates for Northern Sotho Bible translation history (http://www.biblesociety.co.za/resources/translations_northsotho.asp):

1890	<p>First Scripture to be published - The New Testament London: British and Foreign Bible Society.</p> <p>Translated by J F C Knothe of the Berlin Evangelical Missionary Society.</p>
1904	<p>First Bible</p> <p>Berlin: Berlin Missionary Society</p> <p>After the death of Pastor Knothe in 1892, the translation work was</p>

	continued by G Trümpelmann and H Kuschke, assisted by A Serote and G Eiselen.
1951	Revision of the Bible London: British and Foreign Bible Society The Bible translation was revised and put into a new orthography by Dr P E Schweltnuss and a committee.
1998	Latest translation of the Bible Cape Town: Bible Society of South Africa Translated by Rev J M Louw, the exegete and project coordinator, Fr M Teffo and Rev J S Ramoba, assisted by various scholars and linguists.

3.3.3.5 Zulu Bible translation history

Newton Adams and some of his colleagues distinguished themselves as the first translators of the Zulu Bible. Here are some important dates for Zulu Bible translation history (http://www.biblesociety.co.za/resources/translations_zulu.asp):

1848	First Book of the Bible to be translated - the Gospel according to Matthew. Pietermaritzburg: ABCFM
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	<p>The 'First Book for Readers' published in 1837 contained the first samples of the Bible translated into Zulu (portions of Genesis and two Psalms) but the Gospel of Matthew was the first complete book of the Bible to be translated. It was originally translated by George Champion and revised by Newton Adams.</p>
1865	<p>First New Testament</p> <p>Natal: American Zulu Mission</p> <p>Translated by missionaries of the ABCFM.</p>
1883	<p>First Bible</p> <p>New York: ABS</p> <p>Translated over the years by missionaries of the ABCFM, including George Champion, J C Bryant, Lewis Grout and J L Döhne, revised and corrected by Andrew Abraham, and finally edited for publication by S C Pixley.</p>
1959	<p>Latest translation of the Bible</p> <p>London: BFBS</p> <p>Translated by Otto Sarndal and a committee including Johannes Astrup, Gustaf Krause, Heinrich Filter, S Dahle, M H Mpanze, W Weber, N C Haldersen and others.</p>
1986	<p>Latest translation of the New Testament and Psalms</p>

	Cape Town: BSSA Translated by Dean Nils Joëlsøn, project co-ordinator, Mr D T Maseko and Mr K Magubane.
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The translation of the Bible into isiZulu was not one of unanimity among the missionaries and it was divided into 6 parts (Hermanson, 2002:15):

3.3.3.5.1 American Zulu Mission

Missionaries from the American Zulu Mission of the American Board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions arrived in Port Natal (now Durban) in December 1835. The first Gospel, translated by George Champion and revised by Newton Adams, was published in Pietermaritzburg in 1848. The New Testament was published at the missionary press in Esidumbini in 1865, with funds from the American Bible Society (ABS) for the printing and a grant from the Durban Auxiliary of the BFBS to cover the binding. The first complete Bible was published in New York by the ABS in 1883. A revised edition of the Bible was published in 1893, and a facsimile of this edition is still being published today. A further revision was undertaken under the supervision of the Rev. J. Dexter Taylor. The New Testament was published by the ABS in 1917 and the Bible in 1924. (Hermanson, 2002:15)

3.3.3.5.2 Bishop J. W. Colenso

According to Hermanson (2002:14), the Anglican Bishop of Natal, who was a controversial theological figure, published his own translations of various books of the Bible, culminating in the publication of the New Testament, probably at the end of 1876.

3.3.3.5.3 Bishop Henry Callaway

Bishop Callaway first worked under Colenso, but later separated from him. He was troubled with the Bishop's Scripture translations and did extensive translation and publication himself with grants from the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge (SPCK). (Hermanson, 2002:16)

3.3.3.5.4 The Hermannsburg Mission

In reaction to the revision of the New Testament and the Bible published by the ABS in 1917 and 1924, the Hermannsburg Mission published its own translation of each at Moorleigh, near Estcourt in 1924. (Hermanson, 2002:16)

3.3.3.5.5 Roman Catholic Translation

The Roman Catholic Mission at Mariannhill, published the New Testament, translated under the leadership of Fr. Rafael Studerus, Order of St. Benedict (OSB), in 1955. (Hermanson, 2002:16)

3.3.3.5.6 1959 Sarndal Translation

In 1944, the Natal Missionary Conference resolved that a new translation of the whole Bible should be made, The Bible was translated by a committee under the leadership of Dean O. Sarndal and first published by the BFBS in 1959 (Smit, 1970:215). This Bible is currently in popular use. (Hermanson, 2002:17)

3.3.3.6 Venda Bible translation history

The translation of the Gospels and Acts, by Dr. P. E. Schweltnus, were published by the BFBS in London in 1920. The New Testament was published in 1925, and the complete Bible in 1936. (Hermanson, 2002:17)

Here are some important dates of the Venda Bible translation history (http://www.biblesociety.co.za/resources/translations_venda.asp):

1920	First Scripture in Venda - The four Gospels and Acts. London: BFBS Translated by P E Schweltnuss, assisted by Isaak Mulaudzi and Fineas Mutsila.
1923	First New Testament London: BFBS

	Translated by P E Schwellnuss, assisted by Isaak Mulaudzi and Fineas Mutsila.
1936	First Bible London: BFBS Translated by P E Schwellnuss, assisted by Isaak Mulaudzi and Fineas Mutsila.
1998	Latest translation of the Bible Cape Town: BSSA Translated by Mr F C Raulinga, Mr A R Mbuwe and Prof J A van Rooy, the project co-ordinator. They were assisted by a number of other people as well as by a Review Committee.

3.3.3.7 Tsonga Bible translation history

The Mission Remands or Swiss Mission began work amongst the Tsonga in 1875. The New Testament was published at Lausanne by the Mission in 1894, while the complete Bible was published in 1906. A revised version of the New Testament was published in 1907, and the Bible in 1929. Here are some important dates in Tsonga Bible translation history (http://www.biblesociety.co.za/resources/translations_tsonga.asp):

1883	<p>First Bible texts in Tsonga, being selections from Genesis, Exodus and the Gospels. - Lausanne: Swiss Mission (at the time: <i>Mission Romande</i>), printed by Georges Bridel.</p> <p>Translated from Sesotho by Eliakim Matlanyane and Asser Segagabane, assisted by Paul Berthoud and Ernest Creux.</p>
1892	<p>First Bible Books to be translated - Gospel according to Luke and the Book of Acts.</p> <p>London: British and Foreign Bible Society.</p> <p>Translated by Paul Berthoud, Ernest Creux, Timothy Mandlati and Calvin Maphophe.</p>
1894	<p>First New Testament.</p> <p>Lausanne: Swiss Mission, printed by Georges Bridel. Translated by the same as above, and also by Henri Berthoud, Auguste Jaques and Eugène Thomas.</p>
1907	<p>First Bible.</p> <p>London: British and Foreign Bible Society.</p> <p>Two volumes, printed by Georges Bridel in Lausanne. Translated by the same as above, and also by Arthur Grandjean, Henri-Alexandre Junod, Samuel Malale, Zébedée Mbhenyane and Paul Rosset, with Eugène Thomas as coordinator.</p>

1929	<p>Revision of the 1907 Bible</p> <p>London: British and Foreign Bible Society.</p> <p>Prepared by Marguerite Cuénod, René Cuénod, Joseph Mawelele and Edward Mtebule. Revision of the 1907 Bible</p> <p>London: British and Foreign Bible Society. Prepared by Marguerite Cuénod, René Cuénod, Joseph Mawelele and Edward Mtebule.</p>
1986	<p>Latest translation of the Bible</p> <p>Cape Town: Bible Society of South Africa</p> <p>Translated by Charlotte Golele, Jackson Makhuvele, Daniel Maluleke, Ann Manyike, Daniel Marivate, Elias Mashava and Joseph Sandri, with Théo Schneider as coordinator.</p>

3.3.3.8 Afrikaans Bible translation history

From 1872 onwards certain protagonists advocated that Afrikaans should be used as a written language. Translations of various books of the Bible were made and published, but it was not until 1917 that a request by the Dutch Reformed Churches of the Orange Free State and Transvaal led the BFBS to decide “to undertake the cost of producing a version of the Scriptures in Afrikaans or Cape Dutch”. The first tentative translation was a complete failure

as it was too much “a translation of a translation”. In July 1923, translators were selected to translate from the original with reference to the Textus Receptus. This Bible was published by the BFBS and arrived in Cape Town on 1 June 1933. (Hermanson, 2002:16)

According to Bible Society of South Africa (n.,d.) C. P. Hoogehout, A Pannevis and S J du Toit are among the first translators of the Bible into Afrikaans. Here are some important dates of Afrikaans Bible translation history (http://www.biblesociety.co.za/resources/translations_afr.asp):

1878	<p>First Book of the Bible to be translated - Gospel according to Mark</p> <p>Never published but the manuscript is in the National Library of South Africa, Cape Town Division</p> <p>Translated by C P Hoogenhout</p>
1933	<p>First Bible</p> <p>London: BFBS</p> <p>Translated by Prof J D du Toit, Prof E E van Rooyen, Prof J D Kestell, Dr H C M Fourie and Prof B B Keet.</p>
1983	<p>Latest translation of the Bible</p> <p>Cape Town: BSSA</p>

	<p>The final editorial committee consisted of Prof E P Groenewald, Prof A H Van Zyl, Prof P A Verhoef Prof J L Helberg and Prof W Kempen.</p>
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3.3.3.9 Swati Bible translation history

Swati is the language of Swaziland. According to the 2001 census Swati is also the mother-tongue of 1 194 349 South Africans. Most of them (80.6%) live in Mpumalanga. Here are some important dates in Swati Bible translation history(http://www.biblesociety.co.za/resources/translations_swati.asp):

1976	<p>First Scripture to be published - The Gospel according to Mark.</p> <p>Cape Town: Bible Society of South Africa</p> <p>Translated by Mr A Simelane and other voluntary translators.</p> <p>The project was co-ordinated by Miss H Eschen.</p>
1981	<p>First New Testament</p> <p>Cape Town: Bible Society of South Africa</p> <p>Translated by Miss H Eschen, Miss T Maphalala and Mr A Simelane.</p>

1997	<p>First Bible</p> <p>Cape Town: Bible Society of South Africa</p> <p>Translated by Miss H Eschen, Mrs T Zwane (née Maphalala) and Mr A Simelane.</p>
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3.3.3.10 Southern Ndebele Bible translation history

According to Hermanson (2002), Southern Ndebele is the only official language in South Africa into which the complete Bible has not yet been translated. In the past, only the New Testament and a selection of Psalms, published in 1986, were available in Southern Ndebele. However, the complete Bible translation was begun at the University of Pretoria in January, 1999. Here are some important dates in Southern Ndebele Bible translation history(http://www.biblesociety.co.za/resources/translation_s_southernndebele.asp):

1977	<p>First Book of the Bible to be translated - The Gospel according to Mark</p> <p>Cape Town: BSSA</p> <p>Translated by Rev E A Hermanson, Mr J S Mabena and Mr R Ntuli.</p>
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1986	<p>First New Testament and selected Psalms</p> <p>Cape Town: BSSA</p> <p>Translated by Miss H Eschen, Mr J S Mabena, Rev E K Mtshweni and others.</p> <p>A translation team consisting of Mr Peter Mabena, Pastor David Mahlangu and Prof Andries Breytenbach are currently working on the translation of the Old Testament.</p>
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3.4 Translation in modern South Africa

Up to the time apartheid was ended, South Africa only had two official languages, namely English and Afrikaans. Since South Africa's democratic transition in April 1994, the government has taken up the challenge of moving from two official languages to eleven. In its National Language Policy Framework (February 2003), the South African government has stipulated that all national government structures and public institutions must adopt one or more working languages. Translation and/or interpreting have been acknowledged as obvious tools to facilitate implementation of this policy.

Kim Wallmach (2005) stated:

“A project to translate open source software into the eleven official languages is being undertaken by *translate.org.za*, a

non-profit organisation sponsored by the Department of Communications, The Shuttleworth Foundation, Obsidian Systems, St James Software and Hewlett-Packard (South Africa).”

In addition, due to the development of high technology, many translators prefer using translation-assisting software to help their translation works, for example, translation memory systems (such as: Trados, Star, et cetera). Even some translation agencies provide terminology databases for their translators.

In the 21st century, translation software, Internet terminology databases or online translation software can help translators to translate more effectively. Machine translation is especially popular and accepted by a great number of translators in the world. The researcher holds the opinion that the high technology plays a vital role for the 11 official languages translation in South Africa as well, because English and Afrikaans would lose their dominant role in the country, and more translation works should be done in the other 9 official languages: isiZulu, isiXhosa, Sepedi, Setswana, Siswati, isiNdebele, Tshivenda, Sesotho and Xitsonga. Johann (2002: 52) thought the job of translating for the other 9 official languages was a mammoth translation task.

Therefore, according to Johann (2002:52), the translators in South Africa are

meeting an enormous challenge. The main reason for this is that many new terms had to be coined in the different languages. This was especially true for the African languages, which do not have the same long tradition of having been actively developed and supported by the State for many years as is the case with Afrikaans and English.

Chapter Four

Two approaches of teaching Translation

Translation teaching can be divided into two approaches: teaching translation as a basic skill (TTBS) and teaching translation as a professional skill (TTPS) (Liu, 2003:263). According to Tao (2005), many translation lecturers in China are of the opinion that the translation teaching method of TTBS is treating translation as a test of language proficiency, and it is used in didactic procedures. On the other hand, translation classes are traditionally part of language programmes at universities. Some universities in South Africa offer courses on introduction to professional translation that prepare students for work as professional translators after graduation.

4.1 Teaching translation as a basic skill (TTBS)

TTBS is for the purpose of foreign language learning, of acquiring linguistic competence, and it stops at the level of linguistic competence. The researcher means that TTBS teaching is also suitable for translation learners and the novice in translation study. Bilinguals are not necessarily made for good translators. There is a gap between good bilinguals and good translators, which could be bridged and filled by a translator training program. According to the researcher's experience, the TTBS teaching method in China is successful in helping students improve their language skills. Therefore, due to the

differences of South African English (Penny Silva, n,d), the researcher suggests the South African universities should also try the TTBS teaching method, in order to improve students' language skills.

A good translator has to use source language and target language fluently. The training of practitioner's bilingual abilities is the premiere stage for professional translators' training and it is essential for professional translators. The researcher holds that translation plays a vital role in helping reach the didactical goals in second language education and foreign language education. As Wu Wanwei (2004) mentioned, there are three stages for the education of professional translation, namely:

- ◆ Training of practitioner's bilingual abilities,
- ◆ Training of practitioner's bicultural awareness
- ◆ Training of practitioner's sensitivity, meaning transference and creative capacity for producing attractive prose.

Malmkjær (1998:24) also mentioned: "Translation seems set to remain as a significant component in the teaching of many languages in many parts of the world." Support for a revival of the practice of using translation in language teaching can also be found in recent literature on applied linguistics. For example, as John Williams points out in his introduction to Cook (1996:3-4) and Schachter (1996:6), Cook's notion of multi-competence strongly suggests

that “tasks that promote ‘multi-lingual’ competence (for example, translation) are valuable for language learners.” Similarly, Selinker (1992; 1996:103) argues that translation equivalents play an important role in the formation of interlingual competence “since they are an important strategy for learners as they look across linguistic systems”. According to Selinker (1992:105), variation in learners’ ability to translate may therefore be related to the variation in students’ second language competence.

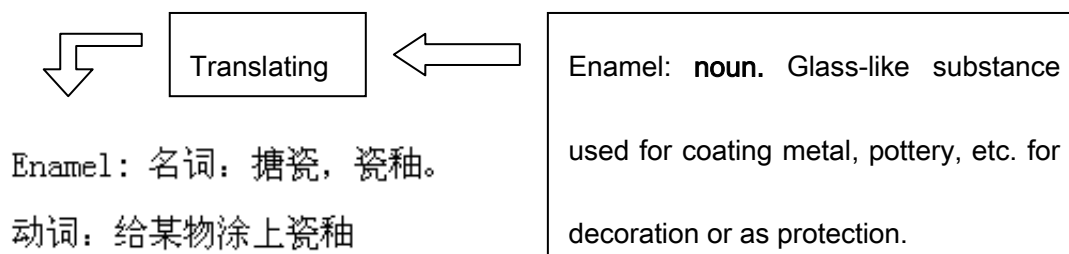
4.1.1 Translation as a cognitive process

Linguistic competence should be trained with a view of holistic language: linguistic competence is based and accompanied with thinking; no language skill is taught in isolation. As children listen and speak, they are thinking and they are preparing to read and write. Listening and speaking continue to be integral aspects of the reading and writing processes at all levels. Liu (2003:312) pointed out that translation helps learn a second or foreign language in cognitive processes:

- ◆ Perception — “the deletion, organization, and interpretation of information. ” (Liu, 2003:313)¹ It means that translation can help one understand the concepts. For example, when one is reading a word, a phrase or an article in a foreign language, one will understand it

¹ The definitions of “Perception, Memory, Reasoning, Reflection and Insights” are from (Liu, 2003)

immediately if one translates it. As the example below, “enamel → 搪瓷 , 瓷釉”.



- ◆ Memory — “the storage and retrieval of perceived information. ” (Liu, 2003:315) Translation helps one remember the concept. In other words, it is easier to remember the concept in one’s mother tongue than in the second language. For example, the word “enamel” is difficult for non-English speakers, such as Chinese people, to remember the English explanation of the word. However, if the explanation is translated into Chinese, its meaning is clearer and easier to understand for Chinese people.
- ◆ Reasoning — “the use of knowledge to make inferences and draw conclusions. ” (Liu, 2003:317) This process is the most important of the cognitive processes.
- ◆ Reflection — “the evaluation of the quality of ideas and solutions. ” (Liu, 2003:318) In the cognitive process, reflection is actually a concept

formation process. In language practice and language learning, translation is a common way to see whether one understands the concept.

- ◆ Insight — “the recognition of new relationships between two or more segments of knowledge.” (Liu, 2003:320) Translation, in particular, stimulates deeper learning for student translators. For example, (a) That fool *of* a man; (b) an angle *of* a woman. What does “of” mean in the sentence? It does not mean “belong to ...”. If the sentences are translated into Chinese, it is clear to notice that “of” is used to indicate that the preceding noun and the following noun are considered to refer to the same object.

From the above-mentioned information, the benefits of translation as a teaching instrument in second language learning can be mainly summarized as follow:

- ◆ It can help students master the meaning of specific words or phrases in context.
- ◆ It can help students understand how to use the second language in context.
- ◆ It can help students apply the second language grammar in practice.
- ◆ It can help students translate in a cohesive way in basic translation.

4.1.2 Translation as evaluation instrument

Translation is a kind of necessary instrument to evaluate the language skills in TTBS teaching. Through translation evaluation, the students will realize their second language accomplishments and weaknesses. This helps them improve their second language abilities as well.

- ◆ Translation can evaluate students' basic skills of the second language, for instance, grammar, which is the foundation of learning a second language. In the researcher's mind, if a language is an "inflexional language", the grammatical structure is the core of the language as the bones of the body. It is indicated in the table on next page:

	Structures	Examples
Pronoun case	Noun. + Verb. + Pronoun	I like <i>him</i> .
Article	The, a or an	<i>The</i> sun in <i>the</i> sky.
- ing	NP + Be + V-ing	She is <i>studying</i> .
Plural	Be(are) + N-s/es	They are <i>students</i> .

Past regular	Noun. + V-ed + Noun.	Jane <i>closed</i> the door.
3rd person singular	Noun. + V-s/es + Noun.	He <i>loves</i> her.

The table above only presents a small part of grammatical structures and the examples are simple. The real translation exercises and translation work in industry will be more complex. A translation exercise is an effective way to test the grammar level students mastered. In this case, translation can be treated as criterion in evaluating. The results of quantities of translation exercises or tests will reflect the second language teaching problems.

- ◆ Translation can also be used as an instrument to test students' comprehension abilities. Lecturers could design different comprehension levels for students, in order to see students' reading comprehension abilities. The researcher proposes that the elementary reading materials should include articles related to students' lives or some short stories. The intermediate level reading materials might be news articles that are a little more complex than the elementary reading articles; and the advanced level comprehension exercise can be original novels, or an academic thesis, et cetera.

The difficulty of reading comprehension is not dependent on the

terminology that the article uses, it depends on whether the students can understand the main idea of the utterance. Look at the example below:

To say of what is that it is not, or of what is not that it is, is false, while to say of what is that it is, or of what is not that it is not, is true. (Liu, 2003:401)

It is easy to see that there are no difficult and/or long words. When one looks at it, it seems that one will read and understand it very well. However, when the lecturer asked students to translate it into Chinese, most of the students realized that it is not that easy for them to get the meaning. From this kind of test results, lecturers will see which second language comprehension level students have reached, and what problems most of the students have, so that the lecturer will find possible solutions for the collective problems.

According to Sewell (1996:42), nineteen out of the twenty-one institutions in Britain indicated that translation was taught as a way of improving students' linguistic proficiency. In the researcher's opinion, translation into students' source language as well as their target language, was used to consolidate the target language constructions for active use and to monitor and improve comprehension of the target language.

4.2 Teaching translation as professional skill (TTPS)

TTBS teaching is suitable for the novice in translation study at universities. TTPS is the abbreviation for “teaching translation as professional skill”. “Professional skill”, compared to “basic skill”, is a more academic and advanced skill for students. TTBS is a tool which helps students master the language, whereas TTPS is treated as a career plan. According to Klein-Braley and Franklin (1998:125), TTPS teaching begins at the more advanced level, that is, after the primary language learning in the second language has been more or less completed.

4.2.1 Aims of TTPS teaching

In the researcher’s opinion the translation course can be divided into two parts: **the introductory course** and **the obligatory course**.

The major components of **the introductory course** mainly include:

- ◆ work on lexical items, dictionary usage and other aids;
- ◆ contrastive phenomena;
- ◆ textual and register analysis;
- ◆ cultural concepts and reader-oriented text adjustment;
- ◆ the process of translation, revision and correction techniques;
- ◆ the concept of the perfect translation, et cetera.

The obligatory course can be called the consolidation course. According to Klein-Braley and Franklin (1998:126), it has three main aims:

- ◆ To give the students the opportunity to apply the techniques already presented and practiced systematically in the first part of the course to the entire texts;
- ◆ To provide the students with a sample of the wide range of texts they may be required to translate in their future work, for example instructions, press releases, promotional materials, conference announcements, et cetera.;
- ◆ To instil awareness in students that a successful translation is one that should have three important features, namely linguistic, textual and user appropriateness.

The linguistic appropriateness here does not merely mean formal lexical and syntactical correctness, but also the use of the appropriate register and adherence to the linguistic conventions demanded by the text. The textual appropriateness demands recognition of the fact that a particular text type may be different to varying degrees in different languages. Such differences have to be considered in translation. Finally, user appropriateness involves tailoring the text to the envisaged readers. This may involve deletion of information addressed to the source language reader or addition of information for the target language reader. It may also involve changing the text to fit it to its new

circumstances.

Klein-Braley and Franklin (1998:128) stated that these aims can be achieved in three steps:

1. The first step consists of an analysis of authentically defective translations into the students' mother tongue.
2. The second step is the translation simulation, that is to say, the translation in small groups or individually of a variety of texts under conditions which replicate more closely the real world than the traditional translation class. The lecturers can choose the texts which the employers of our graduates might genuinely need as exercise materials.
3. The third step naturally consists of class discussion and evaluation of the translation produced by the students. There should be a sample translation for students, as the model translation plays a vital role in the translation simulation.

4.2.2 Overview of translation competence

Translation competence is the ultimate goal for TTPS teaching. Therefore, students registered in a TTPS course should be taught translation skills rather than language skills, since these translation skills are essential requirements for professional translators. If translation lecturers know the translation competence and the requirements for professional translators, then translation

education is on the right path.

Translation competence is not a unique competence, because it is interrelated with a set of sub-competences, which can be studied in isolation, as well as in combination with others. Translation is a complex activity, involving expertise and skills in a number of areas. Professional translators need to develop their professional competence or expertise to distinguish them from other language users. Here are six main parameters of translational competence:

1. Language competence
2. Textual competence
3. Subject competence
4. Cultural competence
5. Transfer competence
6. Ethics competence

It is precisely the interplay of these kinds of competences that distinguishes translation from other areas of communication. In these six translational competences, the “Transfer competence” dominates over some of the others.

4.2.2.1 Language competence

Translation is much more than a linguistic topic, and it is also more than a study of contrasts in languages. Language competence is the sine qua non of translation; it points out the extreme value of mother tongue knowledge and

skill. However, language competence is often grossly underestimated by student translators. From the researcher's experience, student translators put too much emphasis on translation theories, especially in TTPS teaching. They fail to improve their basic translation skills, for instance, language skills. In this case, translation lecturers should guide and inform student translators about the importance of learning a second language well, as well as how the linguistic knowledge of a second language works in the translation process.

In China, both College English and Chinese Mandarin are compulsory courses for most of university students. Students who are majoring in the English Department do not only follow the College English course (the compulsory course for all the university students), but also the Professional English courses (the compulsory courses for English major students), and the Chinese Mandarin course. This is done, so that students should know all the basics and intricacies of both the target language and source language. Neubert (2000:55) wrote about the importance of language competence for translators: "The near-perfect knowledge of the niceties of the grammatical and lexical systems of the source language and target languages are the basic ingredients of translation competence." The researcher appreciates that providing English courses and a Chinese Mandarin course to English major students would improve their target language and source language skills. The English major students, in particular, have to register for the Professional English courses,

which will provide them with knowledge of the special purposes of the language. For instance, terminologies as well as preferred syntactic and morphological conventions are part and parcel of linguistic competence.

The researcher also holds the view that it is essential to provide an advanced English course to South African students who have registered for a translation course. That is because even South African students are all taught English at school, but their English proficiency levels are not the same and have to be improved. According to Penny Silva (n,d), the English that they are using everyday is specific South African English (SAE), which is different from the English in other English-speaking countries:

“South Africans have been generally unaware of the extent to which their variety differed from other world varieties. White mother-tongue speakers are aware of some of the distinguishing features (particularly the slang), and are typically very critical of SAE, perceiving it as an inferior, ‘incorrect’ version of British English.” (Penny Silva, n,d)

English has been one of the official languages in South Africa since 1910 (Gough, n.d.), but mother-tongue English-speakers number just three and a half million in a population of over forty million people and that is under 9%

(Silva, n.d.). So the position of South African English is markedly different from that in multi-lingual, but predominantly English-speaking countries such as Australia, New Zealand, Canada, and the USA. There is the potential for influence by many more languages than in other English-speaking communities, and these languages have widely divergent origins and structures.

In addition, according to Penny Silva (n.d.), although many schools use English as their main language of teaching, in reality, there are still many teachers in the black school system (particularly in the rural schools) that have, as an inheritance of 'Bantu Education', not acquired enough knowledge of English to make this successful. The poor use of English as a medium of instruction hampers the wider educational process. Also, there are many schools that only offer English classes once or twice a week, and teach their students in their mother tongue the rest of time. If students graduate from those schools, are they qualified to do a professional translation course without advanced language training?

In the researcher's opinion the main purpose for providing English courses to students is not to teach them how to speak British English, but rather to help students improve their language skills. During the course the students should and will learn more terminology as well. Because the translating skill is a more

advanced skill compared to reading, writing, listening and speaking skills, the language training course for TTPS should concentrate on improving students' advanced language skills, for instance, transferring skills. Therefore, it is important to provide advanced language skills training to student translators both in Chinese universities and South African universities.

Here are some examples from sample universities. The C.U.T. provides *Language Dynamics*, which teaches student translators how to phrase well in English and how to write professionally in English, et cetera, and the lecturer teaches students the standard British English. In China, from the researcher's experience, the lecturers seldom distinguish the British English and the American English. The student translators can use either one or combine the British English from the American English, though the students are taught British English from primary schools. The researcher thinks it is better to distinguish the British English from the American English for student translators, especially when they are doing translation.

4.2.2.2 Textual competence

Texts translations are equally system like. They are not potential systems, like language but actual systems. They conform to the norms of the text words, pertaining to the source and the target lingua-cultures and their subdivisions. The latter are determined by the domains of discourse prevalent in

communication, prevalent in their respective fields, general as well as specialist. Neubert (2000) believed that translators are supposed to be conservative in these text worlds or rather, they have to acquire the know-how of the various professions and trades.

First of all, translators must be sensitized in order to identify textual features, in addition to linguistic ones. A better way to grasp this is perhaps to recognize that words and structures, though existing and describable by themselves as systemic elements, follow significant patterns when they feature in text or rather, in types or genres of text. It is these normative usages and arrangements that translators should try to internalize. Competence profiles are, in fact, largely characterized by specialized proficiencies in selected textual domains, which translators have mastered as a result of their professional careers, for instance, as technical, legal, or literary translators of particular fields or authors.

4.2.2.3 Subject competence

The familiarity with the kind of knowledge of the area a translation is about, is a concern that has often put translators into a quandary. However, along with the enormous quantitative growth of the volume of translated materials, specialization of texts is taking on gigantic dimensions. Subject competence can, therefore, almost never be exhausted. No translator can be accomplished

in every field. In addition, in real translation work, translators cannot choose what subject they are going to translate. Therefore translators are always learners. There is no area they may hide in. Translators do not need to know everything, but they must know where to look for and find that specific knowledge and terminology. In other words, inexhaustible curiosity should go hand in hand with the translator's subject competence.

4.2.2.4 Cultural competence

Cultural competence is not confined to literary matters. As it was often demonstrated, technical texts are often culture-bound too. It is probably safe to say that there has never been a time when the community of translators was unaware of cultural differences and their significance in translation. Translation theorists have recognised the problems attendant upon cultural knowledge and cultural difference since at least ancient Rome, and translators knew about those problems long before theorists articulated them. Cultural knowledge and cultural difference have been a major focus of translator training and translation theory for as long as either has been in existence, especially for TTPS teaching.

In both Chinese and South African universities, the cultural knowledge and cultural differences are mostly taught through textbooks by lecturers, or the students gain part of the cultural knowledge and cultural differences from

watching foreign movies programmes. But South African universities seem to have more advantages in cultural learning, since they integrate different cultures.

4.2.2.5 Transfer competence

Transfer competence refers to the strategies of converting a source language text into a target language text. This is how translators are judged. As Neubert (2000:62) explained, though other competences are important, the transfer competence is more essential, especially for the professional translator. In other words, if this excellent equipment is not matched by the unique transfer competence to produce an adequate replica of an original, they have failed. It is not enough to know about translating, it has to be done.

A professional translator is the person who is commissioned to do the mediation, to achieve a social task. What counts is to render a source language text into a target language text for readers as quickly and as effectively as possible. Therefore, most of the universities in both countries pay more attention on improving student translators' transferring abilities. Lecturers teach student translators how to find the equivalent words in the target language, for example, the translation of idioms and puns: "Shuo Cao Cao, Cao Cao Dao." In this sentence, "Cao Cao" is a person's name, and it means that when you mention someone, he or she will appear when you mention his

or her name. If translated literally into English, it should translate as: “Talk of Cao Cao, Cao Cao will appear.” It does not make sense in English. However, there is an idiom in English, which has a similar meaning, which is “Speak of angels, and you will hear their wings.” From the example above, it is clear that the source language and the target language have corresponding idiomatic expressions that render the same idea, so in the process of interlingual translation one idiom is substituted for another. That substitution is made not on the basis of the linguistic elements in the phrase, nor on the basis of a corresponding or similar image contained in the phrase, but on the function of the idiom.

4.2.2.6 Ethical competence

Ethics is a professional concern. Ethics concern translation on two levels. On the one hand is loyalty of the target text to the source text; on the other hand, the code of ethics written for the control of translation as a profession, regulating the translator's relations with other translators, clients and questions like official secrets. The ethics of translation are still complicated. What is the translator to do? For example, when asked to translate a text that s/he finds offensive? What does the feminist translator do when asked to translate a blatantly sexist text? What does the environmentalist translator do when asked to translate an advertising campaign for an environmentally irresponsible chemical company?

According to Robinson (1997:26), “the translator has no personal point of view that has any relevance at all to the act of translation.” However, translators are human beings, with opinions, attitudes, beliefs and feelings. In this case, ethics play a role in controlling translation as a profession, regulating the translator's relations with other translators, clients and questions like official secrets. If a serious clash between their personal ethics and the externally-defined professional ethics makes it difficult, they will eventually be forced to make a decision about where, and under what conditions, they want to work.

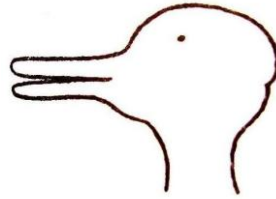
4.2.3 TTPS teaching method - didactical guidelines

The student cannot be a professional translator through one or two year's translation theory study at university, as no one can have a skyrocketing rise. In other words, becoming a professional translator takes many dedicated and long hours of practice. According to Liu (2003:386), professional translation theory teaching is divided into three stages: the elementary stage, the intermediate stage and the advanced stage.

4.2.3.1 The elementary stage

According to Liu (2003:97), in the elementary stage is concentrated on translation theory teaching. Translation theory, to a certain degree, is an empirical science. These are individual ideas, and each one might require

different understandings. It might also have potential misjudgements on it. In other words, the experience, sometimes, can narrow human being's logical thinking. Here is an example:



What is it in the picture? It is easy to see that it is a duck. But it can also be a rabbit. Just turn the picture, it will become a rabbit.



Therefore, if one changes the point of view, the same thing will become totally different. In this case, the researcher suggests that translation lecturers to guide students to apply translation theory in line with their own creativity in translating. In the researcher's opinion, theory teaching should be divided into two stages:

Stage one - The translation theory is clear to student translators of any degree of initiation and it will help invoice translators to translate more effectively if they follow the translation theories. This is the cognitive function of translation theory. In this stage, the lecturer

can use a heuristic method of teaching. In other words, the lecturer inducts students to summarize an explicit statement or theory from the lecturer's implicit statement. For learners, this kind of knowledge is the most important and will be remembered longer.

Stage two – The translation theory works like referential norms, there is no strict rules for translating. Due to the multifarious translation theories, the students can make their choice on various countermeasures in translating. The student translators will not be impelled by the rigid translation theories, instead, they use translation theories unconsciously. This is the performing and guiding function of translation theory.

According to Liu (2003:100), translating methods taught in the elementary stage mainly include: Equivalence, Substitution, Conversion and Rewriting.

1. Finding the equivalent ideas and the words in which to express them in the target language is the basic translation theory, but one of the most important. Equivalence includes: a complete equivalence and an incomplete equivalence. The complete equivalence includes: Semantic equivalence, Functional equivalence, Context equivalence, Stylistic equivalence, Rhetoric equivalence and Cultural equivalence.

According to Liu (2003:103), the complete equivalence means the corresponding words in the target language are equivalent to the source language on the six equivalent requirements previously discussed.

However, in most of cases, the translation in the target language is often an incomplete equivalent translation. The incomplete equivalent translation means the corresponding words in the target language are not totally equivalent in those six requirements. They either lack stylistic equivalence or cultural equivalence, et cetera.

There are some innovative theorists in this field — Vinay and Darbelnet, Jakobson, Nida and Taber, Catford, House, and finally Baker who have studied equivalence in relation to the translation process, using different approaches, and providing fruitful ideas for further study on this topic. The translation lecturer can use their theory books as teaching references.

- ◆ Substitution is different from equivalence. Finding the equivalent words in the target language means finding the words which have the same or similar meaning to the original ones. However, substitution is to find another word in the target language to fit the context. For example: “Chun Jie De Xin” can be substituted by: “pure heart, pure mind, flawless mind,

clean mind, innocent mind, spotless mind, good heart, honest heart, genuine heart, sincere feelings, true sentiments, et cetera. The translator can choose the right word according to its context.

- ◆ Conversion is a translation procedure which mainly involves changes in the grammar from the source language to the target language, such as:
 1. The change of morphology, for example: an adjective in the source language needs to be translated into a noun in the target language.
“She is no less beautiful than her sister.” *Beautiful* is an adjective in the sentence, when it is translated into Chinese, *Beautiful* has been translated as a noun. “Ta De Mei Mao Bu Ya Yu Ta De Jie Jie.”
 2. The change between an affirmative sentence and a negative sentence.
In other words, this kind of change is the one where literal translation is grammatically possible, but may not accord with natural usage in the target language. For example: “Wu ren shou piao chu” should be translated as “Self-service bookstand”.
 3. The change of sentence structure. Sometimes, the simple sentence in the source language needs to be translated to a compound sentence.
For example: “Ni ming bai wo de yi si me?” should be translated to “Did you understand what I mean?”

- ◆ Rewriting is the fourth translation method that Liu Miqing mentioned.

According to Liu (2003:110), translation is compared to a vessel. Fragments of a vessel which are to be glued together must match one another in the smallest details, although they need not be like one another. In the same way a translation, instead of resembling the meaning of the original, must lovingly and in detail incorporate the original's mode of signification, thus making both the original and the translation recognizable as fragments of a larger unit. For this very reason translation must in large measure refrain from waiting to communicate something, from rendering the sense. In this, the original is important to it only insofar as it has already relieved the translator and his translation of the effort of assembling and expressing what is to be conveyed. No matter how much the translator changes the source text while s/he is translating, s/he has to keep the original meaning of the source language text.

4.2.3.2 The intermediate stage

According to Liu (2003:112), the intermediate stage is the most important stage for students. After the elementary study, the student translators should have a better understanding about translation theories, and at this time, translation lecturers should guide students to think more and let students ask more. The translation theory discussion is to focus on the contextual translation. Through reading comprehension practice on the source text, and the comparison between the model translation and students' translation works, as well as using the referential norms, the lecturer will teach students how to

present a better translation. In short, the elementary stage is to teach students how to use translation theory in translating, while the intermediate stage is to teach students how to translate more effectively while using the translation theory.

4.2.3.3 The advanced stage

In this stage, the students are required to have a thorough understanding of translation theory, and to professionalize their translation study. In this case, the researcher holds that the main teaching method is discussion. In other words, the lecturers should try to communicate with their students on translation study, because some students may have a better understanding of translation theory. According to Fox (1995:163-166), teaching through discussion is probably the most flexible and powerful form of teaching, especially for senior students. More than any other method, it is sensitive to students' needs and interests. It is not the only effective way to teach, however, and needs to be fitted into the teacher's repertoire, along with direct teaching and co-operative group work.

In the advanced stage, the lectures should not ease up on the translation course. The university should provide an advanced translation course to students. For example, in China, the university should provide an advanced translation course of Chinese-English and an advanced translation course of

English-Chinese. In order to specialize in students' translation study and fit individual student needs, as well as the course setting in the sample universities, the researcher deemed the courses below suitable and useful for advanced translation study:

1. Advanced Writing
2. Comparative Syntax between source language and target language. (For example in China, it is comparison between Chinese and English)
3. Literature and Aesthetic writing
4. Cross-Cultural Studies
5. Translation and Linguistics
6. Translation and Communication
7. Translation and Cognitive Sciences
8. Translation Teaching

Chapter Five

Translation education in China and South Africa

5.1 Current status of Chinese Translation education

Since the World Trade Organization (WTO) entry of China in 2002, China has needed more professional translators to satisfy the market demands. However, translation education in China has not been adapted for global economic development. In other words, translation studies and education programmes are not oriented to market demands. In China, the government presents the

syllabus and teaching plan of the course, as well as the translation theory textbooks for universities. In this case, the translation lecturers do not need to discuss the translation course. What they do, is to find out how to structure teaching, in order to face the requirements of the syllabus.

In addition, translation educators need to employ new thinking, a new ideology and a new perspective to observe and promote the development of translation studies.

5.1.1 Non-English major

According to the indication of more than 20 universities in China during a seminar in 1999 “*The 21st College English*” at Fudan University, as well as the questionnaires completed at the seminar by the 16 universities in He Nan, Hu Bei, Jiang Xi, Hu Nan and Shan Dong provinces, it showed that there was no university or institute in China which provided Translation course for non-English major students.

Chen Ke Qing (2002:15-17) also did a research on students’ translation abilities in 1999, which revealed the following:

Mark	15	9 – 12	6 – 8.5	Below 5.5
Number of students	57	31	21	5

Percentage	100%	54.39%	36.84%	8.77%
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The full mark of the translation test (English-Chinese) is 15, and the total number of students is 57. The average score for the students is 8.69%, whereas, the pass score for this text is 9 (the pass score in China is 60%). The average mark is less than the pass mark. It shows the average translation ability of the students is low.

In addition, all these sample students are preparing for the admission test for Master's Degrees in China. It means that all of them have already passed the College English Test 4 (CET 4); some of them even passed the CET 6. In other words, their translation ability should be better than the translation requirement for CET 4:

“能独立完成课程中的各种翻译练习，要求译文忠实于原文、表达流畅。”

(Syllabus of English major in Chinese higher education, 2000)

“Students should be able to independently translate various translation exercises in the translation course, and the translation work should be true to the source language text and the writing should be fluent.”

(Translated by researcher)

In China, most of the students who are preparing for the Master's Degree admission test, are usually top students. If these students' translation ability is not good, the other students' translation ability could be worse.

According to Tao Jun Lin (2005), in the old English syllabus for Chinese higher education, which was promulgated in 1985, there were only four skills for Second Language Learning or Foreign Languages Learning: listening, speaking, reading and writing. It did not include translation ability. In addition, the syllabus merely suggested that the conditioned universities choose the "English-Chinese translation theory" course as their elective course.

Due to the syllabus which did not illustrate the specific requirement of translation abilities for students, some institutions think that conflict existed between translation ability and information acquirement ability. The suggestion of choosing the "English-Chinese Translation Theory" course as the elective course for non-English major students in Chinese higher education was therefore not carried out very well. Furthermore, the translation questions did not appear in the College English Tests from 1985 to 1995. Only a few sentence translation exercises appeared in the textbooks and the primary aim was to help students to review the vocabulary, phrases and some linguistic

knowledge in the text.

However, the new syllabus that was promulgated in September, 1999, which was spread to all the universities in 2000, prescribed that translation ability is of the same importance as the other four abilities (listening, speaking, reading and writing). More translation exercises were included in the textbooks. From then on, translation ability began to draw attention. Below is a table that shows the translation teaching attitude from non-English major students (Chen K.Q., 2002):

Attitude	Very important	Important	Not important	No comment	Total
Students No.	129	136	39	6	310
Percentage	41.6%	43.9%	12.6%	1.9%	100%

The figures illustrate that around 85.5% of students thought that it was important to teach translation to non-English major students. The students' opinion of translation education for non-English major students is changing. The lecturers should change their mind as well, they should teach the students basic translation theory and practice in order to improve non-English students' second language abilities. As Selinker (1992; 1996:103) argues that

translation equivalents play an important role in the formation of Interlingua competence “as they are an important strategy for learners as they look across linguistic systems”.

5.1.2 English major

In the last decade, there has been much controversy regarding translation training for undergraduate English major students in China. But Xie Bangxiu (2000:36-37) figures out that the core of all the controversy is still concerned about the “teaching method” of translation.

5.1.2.1 The class hours of translation courses

According to the syllabus (2000), the main English-Chinese translation course usually starts in the second semester of the third year, and only 90 minutes are allocated per week. The time for students to learn translation is so limited that it is important that the class time is used efficiently and effectively. Some translation lecturers think that the students should understand the basic translation theories, so they introduce the different kinds of translation theories, translation concepts and translation skills, which are illustrated in the syllabus for English major students, in detail during the class time, and leave translation exercises as homework for students.

However, the most students only touch on translation. They might be

intimidated by all the translation theories, and they may feel that the translation class is boring. In addition, according to Tao (2005), the novice translators lack sensibility of translation, they cannot use the translation theory freely in exercises, and, after a long time, the students may lose their enthusiasm for studying translation.

5.1.2.2 Translation textbooks

A = Government published textbooks

B = Self-edited material as textbooks

C = Other translation books as textbooks

The figures are from the 3 sample universities in China.

	Only A	Only B	Only C	A+B	A+C	B+C	A+B+C
1 st year				3			
2 nd year				1	2		
3 rd year				2	1		
4 th year					2		1
Total	0	0	0	6	5	0	1

According to Wen and Yu (2002:98-101), approximately 85.6% of translation lecturers in China prefer to use the government-published textbooks, as well

as some other materials as supplements. From the figures above, it can be seen that 100% of the sample universities in China are actually using the government-published textbooks. However, in the researcher's opinion, the Chinese government-published textbooks are inadequate for training translators.

The table below describes students' opinion on the Translation course:

SA = strongly agree (with the statement)

A = agree (with the statement)

N = neither agree or disagree (with the statement)

D = disagree (with the statement)

SD = strongly disagree (with the statement)

Percentage	SA	A	N	D	SD
The course objectives match the actual needs of students.		30	50	20	
The course objectives match the actual needs of practice.		60	30	10	
The translation textbooks that students use are useful for students.	10	30	10	40	10
The additional translation exercises that lecturer gives to students are useful.	20	50	20	10	
The evaluation results of translation can reflect students'		30	60	10	

translation ability.					
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The researcher found that though students were generally satisfied with the Translation objectives, there is still approximately 50% of the students who do not think that the textbooks they use in the course, are useful. They seem to prefer the exercises and supplement materials from the translation lecturers.

From the research, the researcher has found that the government-published translation textbooks are the problems, because for the past 10 years, the majority of the Chinese universities have been using the same government-published translation textbook, which have become outdated.

In addition, these outdated government-published translation textbooks are “Grammar genre” translation textbooks, because they teach students to translate based on grammar. In other words, these government-published translation textbooks commence with comparing the source language and target language, English and Chinese, introducing the commonly used translation techniques and theories. Then the single sentence translation exercise follows. It is presented in the form of short paragraph translation exercises and the proper translation models for the answers. The book places emphasis on the comparison of accidence and syntax of the source language and target language. The explanation of translation theories and techniques is

based on the single sentence, not the sentences in context.

For example, in Zhang Peiji's book《Ying Han Fan Yi Jiao Cheng》(course book on English-Chinese translation), approximately 80% of the content in the book is repetition of the grammar book, only more difficult. In this case, the translation course is based on teaching grammar by translating. So students could not get the whole concept of translation theory. In other words, the students might not understand the translation theory and techniques very well. Therefore, student translators might not know what to do when they face the source language text.

The students might also have a misconception about translation. They might think that translation is a “piece of cake”, and that they can do professional translations with the aid of a dictionary if they know English or any other source languages.

5.1.2.3 Translation lecturers

In China, many of the Translation lecturers do not have an appreciate degree in translation. Some of them have degrees in literature, and some have degrees in linguistics (Tao, 2005). If the translation lecturers do not have translation experience, the researcher does not think they can properly and adequately teach students to translate professionally.

Professional translator training in China needs seasoned translation lecturers. The seasoned lecturers will soon be retiring, and there are not enough young translation lecturers to take their places. The graduates either have little translation working or teaching experience, or they do not want to be translation lecturers because of the lower salary, compared with that of professional translator's. In this case, the translation lecturers have higher pressure compared with other lecturers. Tao (2005) mentioned that some lecturers have more than 800 class hours per year. They complained that they do not have enough spare time to enrich their own knowledge and improve or renew their knowledge. Therefore, how can the old seasoned lecturers promote the qualification of teaching translation?

5.2 Current Status of South African Translation education

The researcher chose three universities (Central University of Technology, Free State; University of the Free State and the University of Stellenbosch) in South Africa as the samples. According to questionnaires that were answered, it is easy to see that most of the sample universities in South Africa teach some of the 11 official languages as their second language, and some of them also teach French and German. Though all these universities offer many different languages, the translation classes for those languages are limited. The table below indicates the total number of students in different language

translation classes in sample universities:

	English	Afrikaans	isiXhosa	Sesotho	Setswana
No. of Stu.	27	24	3	2	2

It is clear to see that universities mainly provide translation classes between English and Afrikaans for undergraduate students. One sample university offers the translation class in isiXhosa, and another sample university offers the translation class in Sesotho and Setswana. However, compared to the number of students who attend the English and Afrikaans translation classes, the students in isiXhosa, Sesotho or Setswana translation classes are very few.

This table shows which textbooks are being used by the various sample universities in South Africa:

	Only A	Only B	Only C	A+B	A+C	B+C	A+B+C
1 st year			1	1		1	
2 nd year			1		1	1	
3 rd year		1	1			1	
4 th year		2				1	

Total	0	3	3	1	1	4	0
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A = Government published textbooks

B = Self-edited material as textbooks

C = Other translation books as textbooks

	Use A	Use B	Use C	Total
Number	2	8	8	12

The figures point out that the translation lecturers in South Africa prefer using self-edited materials and other translation theory books as their teaching materials, as the percentage of B and C is 66.7% and 66.7% respectively.

In addition, according to the feedbacks of questionnaires, the researcher found that these universities renew their translation textbooks and teaching materials approximately every 2 to 3 years. This differs from the Chinese translation education.

The most important characteristic of South African translation education is curriculum setting. Curriculum setting, in most South African sample universities, is based on the market needs and each university has free reign when setting the translation curriculum. The university can decide for itself

what courses they should have, which textbooks they use and how they should go about teaching the students.

5.2.1 Translation textbooks

From the research, the researcher found that the supplementary translation theory books that the universities use are purely based on translation theories. Those books do not include any translation exercises which match the theory that the author has written about in his or her book. In addition, the authors of these books are mostly translation experts, but not translation lecturers. Their translation theories are sometimes too abstract for student translators to understand, due to the fact that there are little or no translation examples for the theories used. The researcher is of the opinion that the main purpose of these published translation theory books is not for professional translation training at universities. All these factors make it more difficult for translation lecturers to teach students to integrate theory with practice. This is a collective problem for both Chinese and South African Translation Education.

In addition, most of the translation theory books used by South African universities are written by European or American translation experts. There is a view that the translation experts and seasoned translation lecturers in South Africa should get together and write a textbook for South Africa specific translation problems and expectation. The solutions to these specific

translation problems in South Africa can be called the “South African Translation Theory”. This could be helpful for translation education in South Africa. Although the translation textbooks the Chinese students are using are not perfect, they do contain various specific problems for Chinese translation. Students can learn the proper solutions to that kind of problem and try to avoid these problems in translation. South African education could apply the same approach.

However, comparing the South African translation education with Chinese translation education at universities, the South African translation education appears to bridge the gap between translator training and the “real world”. The translation theory textbooks are evidence of this. For instance, one translation textbook used at the Central University of Technology, Free State, Douglas Robinson’s book *Becoming a Translator: An introduction to the Theory and Practice of Translation* (1997:2-8), second edition, gives new ideas on professional translator training based on the reality of society. It has totally different ideas compared to the Chinese translation theory textbooks. It contains 11 chapters:

1. External knowledge: the user’s view
2. Internal knowledge: the translator’s view
3. The translator as learner
4. The process of translation

5. Experience
6. People
7. Working people
8. Language
9. Social network
10. Cultures
11. When habits fail

Unlike traditional translation theory books in China, it merely introduces translation theories. Douglas Robinson's book is grounded in a simultaneous acceptance of assumption and rejection of assumption. Also, the book is set up to shuttle between the two extremes of subliminal or unconscious learning, the "natural" way people learn outside of class, and conscious, analytical learning, the "artificial" way people are traditionally taught within the class.

Furthermore, another advantage of Douglas Robinson's textbook is its exercises. The exercises in the book do not simply focus on the translation between source language and target language. It guides students to think beyond. The researcher would rather call that kind of exercise a "Discussion" exercise. Look at the example below, from Robinson (1997:95):

What are some typical problems areas in your language combination?

What are the words or phrases that ought to set off alarm bells when

you stumble upon them in a text?

It is true that renewing translation textbooks every few years can update parts of the translation theory and exercises within the course. This will to a certain degree, stimulate the translation exercises to correlate with the needs of the market, unlike some Chinese translation textbooks, which use outdated examples and exercises. However, the researcher holds the opinion that it is not necessary to renew the translation textbooks every one or two years, it may be too frequent.

5.2.2 Teaching method of Translation

In the questionnaire, some South African students stated that their translation lecturer only taught basic translation theories and techniques during class time, and then recommended that they do further reading after class. They were then expected to finish their translation assignments at home. These students also commented that the only feedback they received was written on their assignments and the translation lecturer seldom discussed the proper translation model in class with the students. The students felt that the translation assignments were usually more difficult than the theories that the lecturer taught them, and they often felt that they did not know how to go about completing the assignment. In this case, they had to spend a lot of time finding

solutions themselves.

However, the translation lecturers in China usually discuss the translation work with students in class. Most of the Chinese students appreciate this teaching method. Maybe the South African translation lecturers could try this teaching method – discuss and communicate more with students in translation classes.

Though the student translators seemed dissatisfied with the Translation lecturer’s teaching method, most of them were satisfied with the evaluation results for their translation exercises. The table below is an extract from the results of the Questionnaire answered by South African student translators.

SA = Strongly agree (with the statement)

A = Agree (with the statement)

N = Neither agree nor disagree (with the statement)

D = Disagree (with the statement)

SD = Strongly disagree (with the statement)

Percentage of students	SA	A	N	D	SD
The course objectives match the actual needs of students.	30	50	20		
The course objectives match the actual needs of practice.	20	60	10	10	
The translation textbooks that students use are useful for	40	30	20	10	

students.					
The additional translation exercises that lecturer gives to students are useful.	70	20	10		
The evaluation results of translation can reflect students' translation ability.	30	40	10		20

From the figures in the table, it is easy to note that around 70% of the students thought that the evaluation of their translation assignments could reflect on their own translation abilities. The researcher thinks that this may be due to the translation lecturer's evaluation method. In another questionnaire, most of the translation lecturers mentioned that they evaluate the students' translations according to major and minor mistakes.

The South African Translation Institution (SATI) has provided definitions with regard to major mistakes and minor mistakes (SATI, 2005):

- ◆ "Major errors: Gross mistranslation, in which the meaning of the original word or phrase is lost altogether; omission of vital words or other information; insertion of information not contained in the original; inclusion of alternate translations, where the translator should have made a choice; and any important failure in target-language grammar.

- ◆ Minor errors: Mistranslation that distorts somewhat, but does not wholly falsify, the intent of the original; omission of words that contribute only slightly to meaning; presentation of alternate translations where the terms offered are synonymous or nearly so; and 'inelegance' in target-language grammar.”

If marking of the examination scripts is done along the lines of the scheme introduced by the SATI, the results of students’ translation evaluation will be more objective and more reliable. The researcher would suggest the translation lecturers both in China and South Africa use the Evaluation Grid below. The grid lists the ways in which the translation lecturer should evaluate students’ translation exercises.

1. Accuracy	Major Errors	Minor Errors
Omission of words		
Insertion of information		
Inclusion of alternation translation		
Target language grammar		
Mistranslation		

2. Other Criteria	General content	Coherence	Cohesion	Organization
	Text Type	Punctuation	Spelling	Terminology

(The lecturers can write either percentages or numbers in the table)

In China, students can only see the final mark on the assignments. Most of them do not know how the lecturer evaluated their translation products. In addition, the students do not know exactly which part of the translation they should improve on. If the translation lecturers in China allocated marks like the evaluation grid above, the evaluation marks would seem more objective and reliable. The students would then know their own weaknesses, in order to improve their translation skills.

5.2.3 Foreign languages translation

Most of the universities in China, teach students to translate between Chinese Mandarin and English, with English as their second language. There are still many universities that offer other foreign language courses in Translation, for example, Beijing Foreign Studies University, which offers 34 different languages of the world for undergraduate students.

According to the answers from the sample universities in South Africa, the researcher determined that South African universities mainly offer translation courses in a number of the 11 official languages, and only a few of them offer foreign languages courses, for example, French and German. In addition, those languages are not taught for translation purposes. In other words, most of the universities offer a translation course between English and Afrikaans for undergraduate students. It is the researcher's opinion that this will not fulfil the needs of the translation market in South Africa.

5.2.4 Technical translation or Literature translation

Due to the Government-published Translation textbooks used in China, the translation education is mainly focused on the translation of literature. The courses mostly include Anglo-American Literature, British Literature and American Literature, and the translation lecturers usually let the students do some technical translation exercises as well.

The South African universities mainly do technical translation, but also try to cover various fields, such as: literature, legal and economic, etc. The translation exercises that the students do are extracted from the real world, some are even from the translation agencies in South Africa. In the Chinese universities, the majority of the exercises are taken from the Government-published textbooks.

5.2.5 Translation theory and Translation practice

The South African translation education is mainly focused mainly on technical translation and Bible translation. At the University of the Free State, the translation exercises that the students do are extracted from the real world. In other words, the student translators have already translated real world texts. The University of the Free State embarked on a social constructivist approach in translation training. The Stellenbosch University usually contacts the translation agencies beforehand, and then places the student translators with different translation agencies during the June holiday. The researcher thinks this is a good way of bridging the gap between translator training at universities and the real world and motivates students to acquire other knowledge or communication skills with varied clients. These are things that cannot be learnt from textbooks.

The South African universities try to incorporate the experiential training during training instead of after training. The researcher agrees with this training approach, and thinks it is successful. This is one of the weaknesses of Chinese translation education.

In addition, according to the results of the questionnaire, the researcher realized that, generally speaking, a translation lecturer in China is faced with

the correction of around 30 students' translation (English class in the fourth year for example) work per week. Whereas, in South Africa, the English translation lecturer only needs to correct around 9 students' translation work (English class in the fourth year for example) on average. From the two numbers mentioned above, it is easy to see that the translation lecturers in China have much more, over three times the workload, than South African translation lecturers. In this case, the students in South Africa might have more time to discuss work with translation lecturers.

5.3 Corresponding problems between Chinese & South African translation education and proposed solutions to these problems

5.3.1 Translation textbooks

As the researcher mentioned in 5.2.1, most of the translation theory books used by the South African sample universities were not intended for professional translation training and this makes it more difficult for translation lecturers to teach students to use the translation theories practically. In addition, the Chinese government-published translation textbooks are "Grammar genre" textbooks, which are also not the best choice for translation training.

Furthermore, the South African universities supplement this by using different

translation theory textbooks and self-edited materials. Therefore, each university has its own weaknesses and strong points.

At the moment, there is no translation theory textbook with authority on South African translation theory. Therefore, the researcher suggests that the seasoned translation lecturers from South Africa get together and create a new translation textbook for student translators. The Chinese seasoned translation lecturers should do the same. This kind of textbook would combine the strong points of the various methods of teaching translation theory from each university. The researcher will illustrate, in detail, how to create this kind of translation textbook in Chapter 8.1.4.

5.3.2 Bridging the gap between professional translator training and the real world

Generally speaking, a student with a translation degree or an English-major student, for example, needs approximately 2 to 3 years real working practice after graduation. Only then will s/he be eligible for translation in the society (Wu, 2002). Chris Durban (2003:17-18) shares the same opinion: "... it takes about two years for new graduates to find their feet." Translation schools are inherently limited in what they can do to prepare students for the workplace, so that one should not make exaggerated demands on them. It has sometimes been fashionable to complain that translation school graduates do not arrive in

the workplace already able to translate quickly and competently. That, however, is an unrealistic hope, and always will be.

Students need to be prepared not just for the market as it exists when they graduate, but for a life-long career. The translation course is not for fulfilling the current needs of the translation industry. For example, maybe the translation industry needs translators to translate for the purpose of international trade between China and South Africa, but what if that suddenly changes? No one knows what the translation industry may demand in the future, so translation lecturers should use classroom time to help students develop general abilities that will be useful and relevant for the future of their professional lives, such as: learning how to read a text closely, writing, editing and researching.

5.3.3 Students' opinion on Translation education

Most of the students mentioned that the translation course enabled them to:

- ◆ Learn new words, usage and meaning of transition words
- ◆ Improve their knowledge of foreign language in that they understood new structures better
- ◆ Become aware of the subtleties of their native language
- ◆ See the importance of word choice in translation
- ◆ Test their reading comprehension

- ◆ It is essential for a person to attend the professional translation training course if s/he wants to become a professional translator.

Many students said that they seldom attended the translation practice class. They should be made aware of the amount of translation work and time that goes into a single translation. Furthermore, many students said that they remained passive in spite of Translation lecturer's efforts. In other words, they only listen to the lecturer's words, and give no response. The researcher thinks that it is up to the students to adjust their attitude towards translation. If they do not hand in their translation work on time at university, no one can guarantee that they will finish translating on time for the clients. Finishing one's translation within the given time frame, is one of the most important translators' ethics. The students should be aware of that, and the translation lecturer should also make sure that they teach the students the ethics of translation in class. Translation theory is important, but the translators' ethics are, too, of vital importance.

5.4 Proposed solutions and suggestions to the problems

5.4.1 Proposed solutions for class hours of translation in China

The syllabus of English major in Chinese higher education prescribes that the translation course begins in the third year of university. However, each university can change it according to its own situation. In the researcher's

opinion, the two year translation class hours should be divided into four year class hours, so that the translation course can be taught from the first year.

However, dividing the two years translation class hours into four years time does not mean that if there was 60 class hours for two years, which it would total up to 15 class hours each year. In the researcher's opinion, in the past, the same translation theories were taught in two years, now, they will be taught in four years. In this case, the student translators can gradually be introduced to the translation theory, and translation lecturers will have more time to discuss the translation work with students, in order to help students master the translation theories and guide them to use those theories freely in translation practice. In addition, the university could provide more translation practical sessions for student translators.

If it is impossible for some universities to divide two years class hours into four years, the researcher proposes that the translation lectures could introduce different translation theory books to students in advance instead, and explain how to carry out the translation theories in practice in class. The third-year-students have sufficient reading abilities to read the relevant translation theory books and understand the easier theories and acknowledge the different opinions on translation. Thus the translation lecturers do not necessarily have to explain all the translation theories that are included in the

syllabus in detail, especially the less complicated ones. This can also save a lot of class time for both students and lecturers.

5.4.2 Proposed solutions for translation lecturers in China

If universities change from two-year translation teaching to four-year translation teaching, the translation lecturers could have more leisure time and less pressure to pursue further studies and to enrich or renew their professional knowledge.

Furthermore, the university can provide OJT (On the Job Training) for translation lecturers, especially the new translation lecturers during the holiday or in their spare time. The researcher holds the opinion that, by training in this way, it is a short cut to train the new translation lecturers to become seasoned translation lecturers. They will gain a great deal of experience and knowledge from the seasoned translation lecturers.

5.4.3 Literature translation or Technical translation

In China, the translation education is mainly focused on Literature translation. This is because the translation theory in the textbooks is mainly concerned with literature translation. About 85% of the translation examples are literature translation. However, when students graduate, their translation work usually covers Politics, Economics, History, Geography, Foreign Trade, Travelling and

Science, etc. The table below describes the main translation works for professional translators (Wen and Yu, 2002:99):

	Literature Translation	Science Articles	Practical Writing	Advertisement Translation	News Translation	Others Translation
Numbers	8	14	18	10	7	3
%	13.3	23.3	30	16.7	11.7	5

The conflict between Chinese translation textbooks and the translation industry cannot be improved by individual translation lecturers, though many of them use their own edited materials or other published translation theory books as supplementary teaching materials. The researcher deems that the essential way to solve this problem is to re-edit the existing translation textbooks, in order to meet market needs. The researcher will give guidelines on how to re-edit the translation textbooks in a later chapter.

5.4.4 More discussion sessions with student translators in the South African classes

It seems that the translation lecturers in South Africa have fewer students in their translation classes, and lecturers, therefore, should have more time to

discuss the translation exercises with students. However, there are still some students that complained that the lecturer did not discuss the proper translation model with them. These students are thirsting for discussion sessions with their lecturers and they hope that they can learn from the peer comparison and lecturer's memorandum of the translation exercises. On the researcher's part, if the translation lecturers seldom conduct discussions or constructively criticize the student's translation work for fear of embarrassing him/her, the lecturer could do it without mentioning the name of student's translation work. In this way, the student will remain anonymous, but the class, as well as the individual student, can benefit from the constructive criticism.

Chapter Six

Theory, Practice and Comparison in Translation education

6.1 Practice makes perfect

It is believed that exercises make people quick-witted and help them discover existing problems. Translators will accumulate sensible experience in translation from a great deal of fulfilment. Translation is not only a kind of complicated activity, but also an activity which require much practice. Providing a large number of translation exercises in translation classes is the translation lecturer's duty. Generally speaking, translation lecturers have either teaching experience, translation experience, or both; but they also should have translation examples for student translators.

The lecturers must pay attention to students' translations in the beginning stages. The students' mother tongue usually influences the target language translation. Many students often make mistakes due to the fact that they have misunderstood the meaning in the source language or that they battle with the target language grammar, phrasing, language preface, et cetera. Take this sentence, for example (Li and Jia, 2003:101):

"He tried to seem angry, but his smile betrayed him."

Some students would translate it as:

“他试图看上去是生气的，但是他的笑容背叛了他。” (It is angry that he tries to have a liking for to go to, but his smiling face betrayed him.)

These students would not have understood that "him" in the sentence actually represents "his true feelings". So, the target language translation does not seem very smooth. The better translation for the sentence would be:

“他假装生气的样子，可是他的笑容暴露了他的真实情感。” (He pretends to be angry, but his smiling face exposes his true emotion.)

This example is a sentence translated from English into Chinese Mandarin (Li and Jia, 2003:102):

“He stole her a watch.” (A proper translation example from the researcher::

他为她偷了一块表。 他为她偷了一块表。

Some of the students might translate it as:

“他偷了她一块表。” (He stole a watch from her.)

This kind of mistake is often made because the students cannot distinguish between the direct and the indirect object.

The two examples above expose a few problems:

- ◆ The students are not familiar with the target language grammar or they are not proficient in the other language.
- ◆ Student translators' attitude to translation is not good. In other words, the students are careless when they are translating.
- ◆ Lack of target language vocabulary.

In this case, the lecturer needs to introduce the importance of carefulness and preciseness in translation, according to the students' circumstances. In addition, providing opportunities for students to translate is important. The lecturers should not, at first, explain in detail all the translation techniques and methods mainly used to students. This cannot produce the anticipated result, it can only cause theories and exercises to become disjointed. In other words, though students have studied translation theories, they often cannot apply it when doing real translation work.

Therefore, the translation lecturers should first provide a certain amount of translation practice for students, in order to let the student realize and figure out the translation theories for themselves. Then they can carry on with the systematic explanation of translation theories and techniques, meanwhile incorporating adequately chosen translation practices which match the translation theories for students. From the researcher's own experience,

students could suddenly realize what the translation theories are, so they might remember longer and understand better. This could improve the student's actual translation ability to the maximum.

The importance of practice can also be seen from the translation predecessors' experience. As far as one knows, translation professionals put forward the various translation theories and standards. However, those theories and standards are not a mirage, but an output of the firm fulfilment foundation. They all did a great deal of translation before putting forward their theories on translation. Many translation agencies feel very passionate about the idea that student translators should have done extensive translation practice before entering the field.

6.2 The theories open the people's intelligence

In translation education, there is no doubt that exercise is very important. However, the translation theory in translation education has been controversial up to now. Many translation experts have acquired translation techniques and theories through a great deal of translation fulfilment. They think that there is no necessity to teach the theories to students. Furthermore, they also feel that the translation theories are vague, so they cannot be practiced freely in translation.

The reflection in the teaching is that many translation lecturers also regard the translation practice as principle, and then explain, in detail, some translation techniques and methods, while fewer of them teach translation theories (Li and Jia, 2003:102). According to Li and Jia (2003:102), translation theory can be explained as: “The strategy that is summed up by systematically collecting the translation experience is also the tools for the translator to solve the problems in translation.” Theories are the regulation summarized from practice; it is the summary of practice. The genuine knowledge comes from the practice, and guides the practice. Translation theory can be desired as a kind of lore, but has no explicit definition. “Translation theories” include: “Translation techniques”, “Translation study”, “Translation science”, “Translation principle”, “Translation skills” and “Translation knowledge”. Translation theories are the experience and insights that are summarized by translation professionals through their long-term exercises. It is the essence that is refined by translation professionals. Refer to the examples below (Feng, 2001):

Source language text	Target language text
<p style="text-align: center;">静夜思 - 李白</p> <p>床前明月光， 疑是地上霜。 举头忘明月， 低头思故乡。</p>	<p>Thoughts in a Tranquil Night</p> <p>- Li Bai (Translated by L. Cranmer-Byng)</p> <p>Athwart the bed, I watch the moonbeams cast a trail</p> <p>So bright, so cold, so frail,</p> <p>That for a space it gleams</p> <p>Like hoar-frost on the margin of my dreams.</p> <p>I raise my head, -</p> <p>The splendid moon I see:</p> <p>Then I drop my head, and sink to dreams of thee-</p> <p>My fatherland, of thee.</p>

The translation of the poem reflects the rhyming of Chinese ancient poems. The translated poem also renders the general idea of the source poem - homelessness. In addition, the translator knows to add more adjectives to reflect the extended meaning of the original text.

The translation theory of translating poems is not only suitable for “direct translation”, like direct translation from English to Chinese, but is also suitable for “indirect translation”. For example, one translator wants to translate an Afrikaans text to a Xhosa text, but the translator does not understand Afrikaans at all. S/he might find an English version of the same text as the source text to

translate, so English becomes the “source language”. This kind of translation is known as “indirect translation”. Look at the example below (Boshoff, n.d.):

Afrikaans	English	Xhosa
<p>Huil nie as Ek struikel nie; slegs hartseer huil.</p>	<p>Do not cry when I stumble; only heartache cries.</p>	<p>Ungakhali xa ndikhubeka; yintliziyo ebuhlungu kuphela ekhalayo.</p>
<p>Ween ook by my neerslaan nie; net weemoed ween.</p>	<p>Also do not weep when I fall down; only woe weeps.</p>	<p>Ungakhali xa ndisiwa phantsi; lusizi kuphela olukhalayo.</p>
<p>Verdriet is traanloos in my wêreld wat wankel, in my hart wat vergaan.</p>	<p>Sorrow is tearless in my world that falters, in my heart that perishes.</p>	<p>Ubuhlungu abunazinyembezi kwilizwe lam elixengaxengayo, kwintliziyo yam etshabalalayo.</p>

From these, it is easy to see that translation theory is a precious experience

that translation professionals tally up from practicing. It is not simply a technique and method, it is a completely inspired type of knowledge. The theories come from exercises, and apply to future exercises, then arrive to the leading function in the long-term translation of the professional practice.

In teaching translation, teaching the concrete translation skills and methods is essential. However, students should get in touch with some translation theory knowledge. The advantages of regarding theories as references and guidelines will not take effect instantly, but the students will find their own direction in translation. They will not be lost in translation and their translating abilities will improve substantially. Teaching students how to fish is better than giving them fish. The students will reap the benefits for life.

Therefore, in the translation class in China, lecturers should consciously introduce the western translation theories, as well as Chinese translation theories, to students while they are teaching translation techniques and principles. In light of the principle “the Sinology is the lord, the Western learning are the assistant”, let the students get in touch with the main standpoints and views of translation in the world, in order to widen their horizons and improve their translation theory attainments. Students themselves will learn the strong points of translation theories, as well as find a series of translation theories for themselves. The researcher determines this

will help student translators become professional translators.

6.3 Comparison can help students learn from other's strong points to address one's weakness

Practice counts a lot in translation teaching. But, in many translation classes, lecturers usually make use of the settled examples. To a certain degree, enumerating a great deal of invariable examples can improve the students' translation skills and control of translation techniques. However, this kind of method might easily make students lack in contingency abilities. They may not be able to apply the translation techniques in their careers.

Therefore, besides enumerating the invariable exceptions, the translation course should adopt other teaching methods to carry on the complement to the fulfilment. The researcher thinks that the Comparison Method can improve both the students' interests in studying and their contingency abilities. The Comparison Method can be divided into three parts:

- ◆ The comparison between the source language text and the target language text;
- ◆ The comparison amongst student translations;
- ◆ The comparison between students' translations and models from translation professionals.

Moreover, the teacher can give some constructive criticism on the translation products, and help students discover the regulations in the comparison. The comparison should belong to the practical category. According to its importance in translation education, it will be elaborated below.

6.3.1 The comparison between the source language text and the target language text

Students used to combine their modes of thinking in the mother language with translation when they began to translate (Tao, 2005). However, most of the time, the source language and the target language belong to totally different phyla and use varied grammar, vocabularies, sentence constructions and speaking styles, etc. For instance, if student translators translate literally from Chinese to English, they could make mistakes of Chinglish (Chinese English). If student translators translate literally from English to Chinese, they might interpret the text without real understanding of the source language, or the target language text might be not smooth. It might not match the target language or target language speaking habit. In this case, the lecturers need to guide students to compare the two languages in grammar, phrasing or sentence constructions, et cetera. in order to find the differences. Systematic explanations for technical skills, in detail, are needed for students to convert from one language to another. Then the student translators will be proficient in translation.

Look at the “用完了茶点，撤走了盘盏，她又招呼我们到火炉边坐下。” examples from Li and Jia (2003:104). The sentence: "The tea over, and tray removed, she again summoned us to the fire." should be translated as Passive voice in the English source language sentence should convert to active voice when translating to Chinese to match the Chinese language speaking habit. Another example, "The children peeked at the faces of the men and women, and then drew careful lines in the dust with their toes." should be translated as “孩子们偷眼看看大人们的面孔， “孩子们偷眼看看大人们的面孔，又用脚趾小心地在地上划着道道儿。” The word “careful” in English texts is an adjective in English, it cannot be translated literally as an adjective, “小心的道道儿”, it should be translated as an “小心的道道儿”, and modify the verb "drew". Thus, while students are comparing the two languages, they could study the translation technique.

6.3.2 The comparison amongst student translations

In translation classes, the lecturer can encourage the students to communicate with one another. The lecturer could also divide the students into groups, letting the small groups exchange different opinions on translation, compare their translations and then modify a model translation for the group. They can then compare the representative translations amongst the groups, lastly, the lecturer can comment on students' translation products.

Adopting the Comparison Method in translation classes could raise the students' interests in the study, and help them discover their own shortcomings by comparing their work with others' translation products. They will then learn from others' strong points to raise their level of translation skills. In addition, the students could master the ability to adjudicate the quality of a translation, whether it is high or not. The students could also learn to appreciate an excellent translation.

6.3.3 The comparison between student translations and models from translation professionals

The comparison between students' translation work and model translations is also very important. After comparing with the model translation work, the students could find their own shortcomings in their translation, as well as the possible disparities in translation from the professional translators. This could guide the students to improve their translation skills. In addition, comparison with the professional translation product will help student translators to exalt their translation appreciation abilities.

The lecturer can also encourage students to look for mistakes in the model translation, even in famous professional translations. This could improve the student's independent thinking ability. From the comparison with the

professional's translations, the students could have more opportunities to think independently, and deepen their impression; at last, this could raise the efficiency in translation fulfilment. However, what should be noticed is that the materials for translation practice should be suitable for students gradually, moving from easier ones to more difficult ones, to help students gain academic achievement. The lecturers should also continuously enrich their own professional knowledge; give precise feedback to students, and praise students' excellent translation products to raise the students' enthusiasm.

The South African lecturers are better in this respect than the Chinese lecturers. However, the Chinese lecturers are working to improve their attitude in affirmative words to students.

Chapter Seven

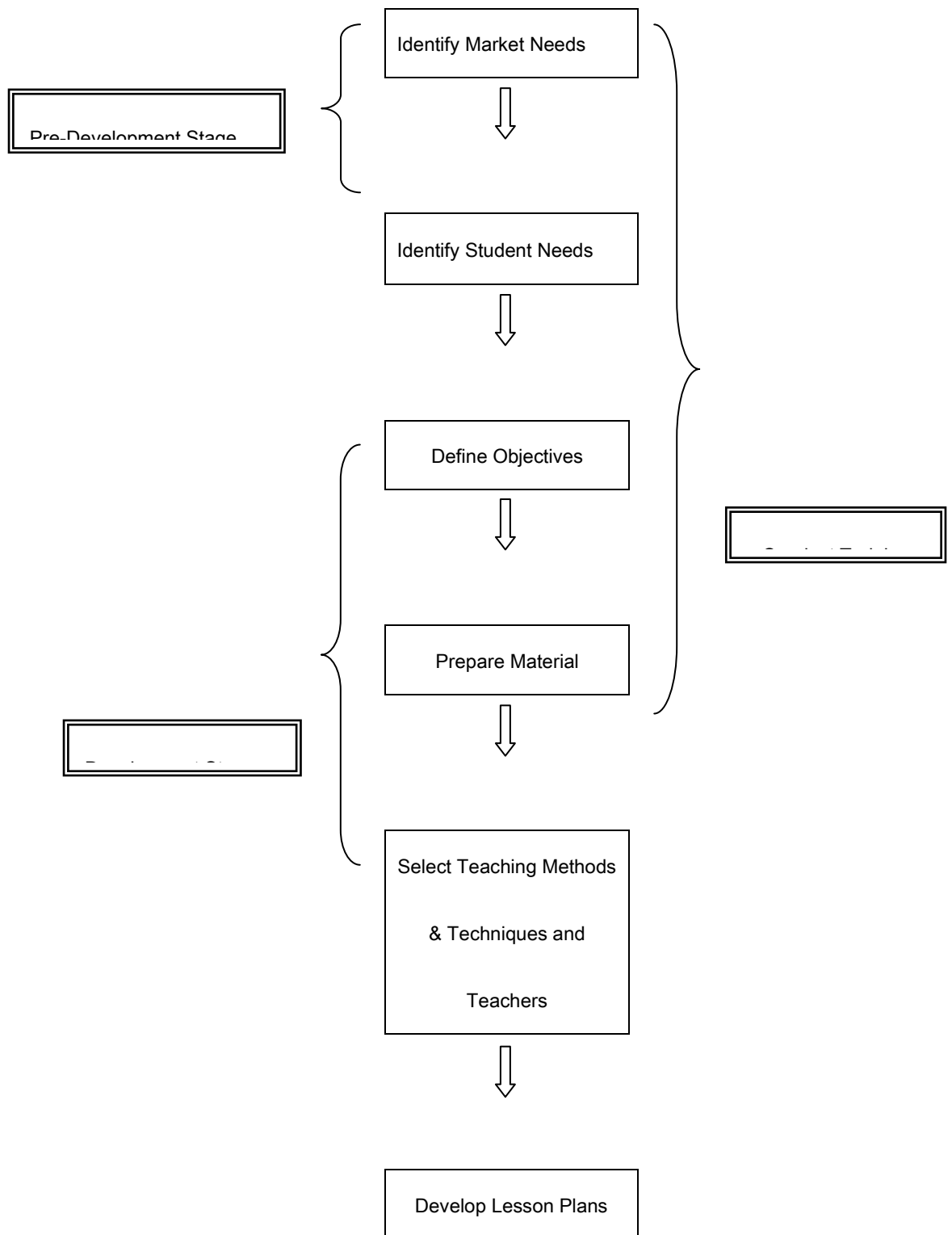
A proposed model for the Translation curriculum

7.1 The translation education theory

The first stumbling block that may threaten the success of a translation program is an erroneous approach to curriculum development, that is, course design and development. Curriculum development is a dichotomy of flair (or creativity) and systematic thinking. Creativity in curriculum development without a systematic approach may produce interesting class activities, but it may not engender effective training; the broad goals of the program could not be achieved. On the other hand, elaborate systematic approaches, without the spark of creativity, could result in routine, uninteresting class material and activities. They could fail to motivate participants and engage them actively in the learning experience.

Like any other training program, designing a translator training program should follow a systematic cycle, i.e., specific steps that represent, so to speak, the bones that make up the skeleton of the design and development process. If one bone is missing or out of place, the result will be some sort of deformity and inability to function properly. These components must, however, cover the needs of both the students and the market. The bones of the skeleton of an integrated translation program's design and development can be illustrated as

follows (Gabr, 2001:34-37):



7.2 Pre-development stage

7.2.1 Identifying market needs

In order to put together an effective training program for preparing, or creating, an efficient translator, one must consider the demands of the market. Gouadec (2000) said:

"What has changed is that an overwhelming variety of markets exist today (as opposed to 20 years ago). This is reflected in the contents of translator training programs with courses on legal translation, commercial translation, financial translation, subtitling, multimedia translation, localization, translating using voice recognition systems, etc. The issue seems to be how to offer the students most of the above skills, at least at some decent level of specialization since:

- ◆ We do not know what 'niches' they will eventually fit into
- ◆ We do know that any of the markets they will fit into will require them, one way or the other, to actually localize, subtitle, translate, rewrite, and revise, and so on."

Antony Pym (1998) argues that market demands should shape the way in which translators are trained. In this regard, Pym raises the issue of specialization. As a phenomenon triggered by technological factors that determine the market structure, it indirectly affects the kinds of texts to be

translated. He believes that "translator training must try to address the phenomenon of specialization". In other words, the translation training should elaborate in translation itself. Pym concurs with the program of the ESIT in Paris that the purpose of training should be "to produce not translators who are specialists, but specialists in translation." And Caminade and Pym (1998:280-285) proposes that students should be taught translation as :

"A general set of communication skills that they can apply and adapt to the changing demands of future markets, and indeed changing professions.... The greater the specialization of the market, the greater the translators' interest in diversifying their competence.... Traditional philological training ...will eventually be unable to supply the skills needed by the market."

If translator training is based on the needs of the market, the training program should try to be like a doctor prescribing the medicine for a specific ailment.

Furthermore, due to the fast pace of living around the world as well as the multimedia, translation training needs to focus on the time-efficacy of translation. Paying attention to translation time - efficacy could not only help translators, especially freelance translators, earn more money, but can also help the people to learn more about the world. For example, Saddam Hussein

has recently been the focus of the international political news. So the possible translation of Saddam Hussein's biography has the potential to be a bestseller. Target language readers could be interested in that kind of translation product.

The market wants translators to be specialized, thus the training of translators should address some fields of specialization. However, the training programme cannot cover the entire field. Therefore, translators must try to balance their knowledge of various subjects. In the researcher's opinion, translators could not be accomplished in all terminology of the various fields. Thanks to new technology, translation software can cover many of these shortages. For example, Kingsoft translation software includes around 900 thousand words and phrases in 74 kinds of terminology words of diverse fields (www.kingsoft.net). The researcher also holds the opinion that this, as well as Trados, would work well as a translation assistant for translators. The researcher believes that all translation programmes should also include teaching how to use translation software effectively. As Gabris (2000) emphasized: "The use of the computer, including word processing software, translation software, communications equipment and general business software.... No translator can possibly work as a professional without a computer". Meanwhile, it is also very important to teach student translators how to balance Machine Translation and Human Translation.

In addition, the translation curriculum should depend on the student translators' needs as well as the demands of the market. It should cover terminology and specialization up to the point where the students know how to deal with the problems of terminology in the texts to be translated and how to find the relevant information.

Besides covering specialization and familiarity with basic electronic tools, translator training programmes should be more vocational and less academic in nature, in order to offer the students real-life scenarios. An adequate translator training programme should cover both the theoretical and the practical aspects of translation. In that way, it will incorporate both educational and vocational dimensions. The importance of incorporating real-world criteria within a curriculum for translator training and education cannot be underestimated.

An applicable translation programme should include some aspects of the profession as a minimum requirement. The programme should cover the business of being a translator. Students need market orientation. The programme should provide them with hands-on experience before graduation. Although this programme does not sound purely academic in nature, it is essential for the student translators, because it gives the student a clear idea about the profession and what will be expected from them when they graduate.

The same notion is supported by Mossop (2000), who argues that a course in translation history is desirable in order to help students see the development of a translation career at different stages and foresee their own futures accordingly:

"It is important that students have an opportunity to reflect on the position of translators in society. To be able to situate them... they need points of comparison - how translators have functioned in different societies at different times. A course in translation history is, therefore, not a frill. It will help make the difference between a thinking translator and a mere word engineer." (Mossop, 2000)

7.2.2 Identifying student needs

If the lecturers disregarded the needs of students, their previous knowledge about the topic or their developmental needs, the success of the course might be threatened. According to Stern and Payment (1995:70), the consequences could be:

- ◆ Training content would be inappropriate and poorly received by the students.

- ◆ The instructor would miss the opportunity to connect with the students.
- ◆ Materials would be too basic or too advanced.
- ◆ Communication breakdown would occur.
- ◆ The instructor would lose credibility.

Therefore, the course ought to integrate both the broad objectives of the curriculum, as well as the personal needs of the students. Training should include learner-centred classes, letting learners take control of their own learning as well as the opportunity to make sense of it.

The university is obliged to teach the general skills required by the student translators. Mossop (2000) posits these skills include "text interpretation, composition of a coherent, readable and audience-tailored draft translation, research, and checking/correcting". In order to minimize the number of errors that could be made by the student translator, either in his/her comprehension of the source language text (SL text) or rendering of its meaning components in the target language text (TL text), a "therapy" has to be prescribed. The university can provide specific courses in mother tongue usage, in order to help student translators become more sensitive in the way they use their own language. They could also prescribe a remedial course in the foreign language in order to improve student translators' foreign language competence.

Chinese universities have good experience in this “therapy”, and Shenyang TV & Broadcasting University is a good example. It offers a course called “Yu Wen” (Chinese Mandarin) as a compulsory course for all the students attending the university. The course teaches the students how to use Chinese effectively and academically, and also teaches students how to write Chinese essays in a coherent and academic way. In addition, the university also provides many other courses in foreign languages, for instance, English. These courses include English writing, culture overview of English-speaking countries, et cetera. All these courses are aimed at improving students’ competence in a foreign language and create sensitivity for translating. It is recommended by the researcher that South African universities also look at the possibility of such a course.

Awareness of style and register, as well as bicultural sensitivity must be addressed in the course of translator training. The notion of cultural awareness is also supported by Krouglov (1996:146), who is of the view that:

"Students have to be taught to identify ... social and cultural differences as well as various markers, in order to develop their ability to draw the appropriate meaning from the source language text and culture into natural target language text and culture."

Another skill that must be developed by the student translators is the ability to translate "problems", such as linguistic and cultural "untranslatability." This skill must be emphasized in the training of the would-be translator. Student translators, at the stage of university education, also need to be introduced to problems commonly encountered in a text and learn how to overcome them. They need to be introduced to translation strategies that they can use to solve such problems. These strategies are categorized by Chesterman (1996:72) as follows:

- ◆“Syntactic strategies such as shifting the word-class, changing the clause or sentence structure, adding or changing cohesion;

- ◆Semantic strategies such as using hyponymy or superordinates, altering the level of abstraction, redistributing the information over more or fewer elements;

- ◆Pragmatic strategies such as naturalizing or eroticizing, altering the level of explicitness, adding or omitting information.”

Translation programmes should also include a module on research and development of terminology. Students need to learn how and where to search for terminology and what to do if an answer is not found. They also need to know how to annotate a text that contains new terminologies and how to cover lexical gaps. However, this does not need to be a separate course, it can be combined with translation practice. For example, lecturers could let students do translation exercises on Astronomy for five class hours, allowing the students to become acquainted with varied Astronomy terminology. The lecturers can also teach students how to search for this kind of terminology and how to bridge the lexical gaps in this field.

Another indispensable concept that should be covered in the translation programme is that of teamwork. In real-life situations, the translator usually does not work in a vacuum. There will always be contact with colleagues, clients and other professionals for the purpose of finding certain information, solutions, guidance, et cetera. Translators should learn how to work in a team as well as on their own. Fostering team spirit in the class will help eliminate fear amongst peers and will promote cooperation to reach solutions and exchange information. Students must be trained for teamwork, sharing translation tasks not only with other translators, but also with professionals in other specialized fields. In the researcher's own experience, sometimes, just one sentence, or even one word, from the professional translator can help the

student translator immensely. Also their experience and suggestions could give great encouragement to students. Student translators could benefit a lot from promoting cooperation with other student translators and professional translators.

7.3 Development Stage

7.3.1 Defining instructional objectives

Once the needs of both the market and the students have been identified, they have to be translated into specific instructional objectives. Objectives are descriptions of performance you want learners to be able to exhibit before you consider them competent. The Oxford dictionary (1997:1008) defines objectives as “thing aimed at or wished for, purpose.” As such, the objectives describe the intent and the desired result of the course. In China, the universities have different syllabi for different majors in Chinese higher education. Therefore translation education has a specific *Syllabus of English major in Chinese higher education*. Though each university has the right to change the foundation of the course a little according to their different situations, the university is required to follow the teaching direction of the syllabus.

In order for curriculum developers to tailor effective instructional objectives, they should consider both the learning objectives and adult learning principles.

The main principles may be summed up by Sainz (1994:70) as follows:

- ◆ “Adults learn best when they are involved in developing learning objectives for themselves which are congruent with their current and idealized self-concept.

- ◆ The learner reacts to all experience as he perceives it, not as the teacher presents it.

- ◆ Adults are more concerned with whether they are changing in the direction of their own idealized self-concept than whether they are meeting the standards and objectives set for them by others.”

7.3.1.1 Reasons for instructional objectives

The quality of a training programme depends on the adequacy of the course, or the instructional objectives. Developing instructional objectives is, maybe the most important step in the curriculum development process. It is the one that pulls together all the other steps in the process of course design and development. If objectives are not identified and properly clarified, then sooner or later there will be confusion in the course development; in the presentation;

amongst the learners; in the follow-up after the course; or in conducting an evaluation.

Instructional objectives are useful in that they tell the lecturer where the course is going and how to know when s/he has obtained them. Clear objectives help both the lecturers and the students. They help the lecturers design lessons, and it is also easier for the lecturers to evaluate the translation products. For the students, the objectives help them to understand the course and how to prepare for the lessons. It is more or less like a study guide for both lecturers and students.

Objectives, in addition to serving as a basis for selecting learning materials and course delivery methods, can provide a way to measure whether learning has been achieved; it can be used by the department to evaluate the success of the course; and it can also help the students focus and organize their attention and efforts before and during instruction.

In short, the use of properly prepared instructional objectives ensures consistency and congruency between what is learned, course content and evaluation items, and thus limits the amount of irrelevant course material and facilitates student learning.

7.3.1.2 Characteristics of useful instructional objectives

The quality of a training programme depends on the adequacy of its objectives.

There are many ways to define whether the objectives are useful.

Firstly, one should consider who the learners are, as well as their preference and learning styles. The objective should describe the performance expected of these learners, in other words, it should always identify what the learner is expected to be able to do.

Secondly, the objective should always describe the important conditions, if any, under which the performance is to occur.

Thirdly, the objective should state the criteria to be used for judging its success. In other words, the objective should identify, wherever possible, the criteria for acceptable performance by describing how well the learner must perform in order to be considered acceptable.

If the course objectives lack the performance conditions, and criteria, the course might be ambiguous and result in frustration and conflict between those who interpret the objectives differently.

7.3.2 Preparation of materials

In order to achieve the broad goals of the course, the teaching material should cover theoretical, as well as practical aspects. The components of the course material should attempt to bridge the gap between theory and practice. It is true, not only in translation education, but also in other subjects. Theory and practice should go hand in hand. Theory without practice is useless, just as practice without theory would be misguided.

The theoretical insights could enable students to become aware of their tasks, available translation options, and of factors involved in decisions and choices. Practical exercises, on the other hand, should be organized in such a way, so that they complement the theoretical courses. Therefore, the theoretical aspects, as well as practical aspects should be covered in the course content.

In consideration of market needs and pedagogical concerns, the course content should also cover literary and technical translation. Although the need for technical translators is growing much faster than the need for literary translators, teaching literary translation at undergraduate level has its own advantages. Oittinen (1996:64) argues that:

"Literary translation adds to the students' sensitivity to language. When students translate texts within a literary context, they learn about the processes of interpretation in a profound way, as they take very deep dives into themselves as individual readers of source-language texts. As writers of target-language literary texts, they learn how to polish texts and give them the finishing touch."

On the other hand, technical translation should be given equal attention. By training students in technical translation, will be enriching their knowledge of terminology and widening the spheres of their subject-area competence. The programme should ultimately prepare them to meet market needs.

In addition, the course content should include writing and reading assignments, handouts and textbooks/manuals in both the source language and the target language. On the one hand, the researcher holds the view that, since writing is a skill that comes before translating, student translators should first acquire writing skills. On the other hand, reading tasks are highly recommended in translator training programmes in order to integrate course content. Reading tasks not only promote the cultural awareness of translation students, but they

also enrich their vocabulary, widen their spheres of knowledge and introduce them to various styles and registers.

Some reading can be suggested in the practical classes, particularly that the specialized translation classes require manuals that introduce the required area-study concepts. However, this reading course can be done in the first or second year to let the students first master the skills, and then, when they become senior students, they will reap the benefits.

This phase of material development must be executed cautiously. Balance is required so that there is sufficient content to make the course challenging, but not so much that the pace of the course is too rushed, or so little that the pace is too slow. The course developer must also leave room in case certain knowledge or skills need more time and practice to be acquired. The instructor should use student feedback devices to adjust coverage rate. (University of Nebraska-Lincoln, 2004)

7.3.3 Selecting teaching methods and techniques and teachers

7.3.3.1 Selecting teaching methods and techniques

Once the instructional objectives are identified and the content is prepared, the next logical step is to select the teaching methods and techniques that can best achieve these objectives. It should be noted that some methods are more

appropriate for achieving particular objectives than others. Selection of appropriate teaching and training methods requires knowledge of the different techniques and sound judgment on the part of the person who is designing the programme, be it the instructor or the curriculum developer.

If students are actively engaged in the instruction process, they will learn more. In order to achieve this goal, use of both active and passive modes of instruction is highly recommended. Presenting information using a variety of methods strengthens the understanding and retention. Furthermore, translation, being a craft as well as a science, requires training based on language theories. Therefore, a sound approach to translation teaching and training ought to employ methods that address theoretical aspects of translation as well as the practical aspects, i.e. passive and active modes of instruction. Following is a brief discussion of some teaching and training methods that can be used in translation training programmes.

The Lecturer is the most common teaching method adopted at the university level. Lecturing is a passive mode and is useful for achieving some instructional objectives, but not always recommended for others. Its advantages and disadvantages are as follows (University of Kansas, 2000b):

◆ Advantages of the lecturer Method:

1. The lecturer can convey personal enthusiasm in a way that no book or other media can; enthusiasm stimulates interest and, thus, learning is enhanced.
2. The lecturer can speak to many listeners at the same time; therefore, lecturers can transmit factual information to a large number of students in a relatively short period of time.
3. Lecturers can organize material in a special way; they present a faster, simpler method of presenting information.
4. Lecturers can facilitate the transfer of theories, concepts and procedures.
5. Lecturers allow maximum teacher control; the teacher chooses what material is to be covered, when and how.
6. Lecturers present a minimal threat to students; they are not required to do anything, which they may prefer.

◆ Disadvantages of the Lecturer Method:

1. Lecturing hinders learning by promoting negative behavior, putting the students in a passive rather than active role.
2. Lectures lack feedback from both the students and the teacher about learning, encouraging only one-way communication.

3. Lectures require theatrical ability - an effective speaker who can vary tone, pitch and pace of delivery – skills not usually possessed by university teachers.
4. Lectures place the burden of organizing and presenting the content solely on the teacher and deny student involvement.
5. Lectures are not suitable for higher levels of learning, such as application and analysis.
6. Lectures have little value in facilitating attitudinal and behavioural changes.
7. Lectures assume that all students learn at the same pace and at the same level of understanding, which is not true.
8. Lectures do not sustain students' attention for long.
9. Lectures imply that students must be self-motivated to learn, because lecturing does not allow for eliciting student response.
10. Lecturing is poorly suited for training, especially individualized training.
11. Lecturing leads to a lack of dialogue, without which the students may not be able to put things into a common perspective that makes sense to them.
12. Lectures tend to be forgotten quickly.
13. Lecturing keeps students from interacting and sharing ideas, so learning is minimal.
14. Lecturing is lecturer-centred and not learner-centred.

Discussion is an active mode of instruction. It involves two-way communication between the instructor and the students, and amongst the students themselves. Furthermore, it gives the students an opportunity for feedback, clarification and exchange of ideas. Nevertheless, to be successful, the discussion method requires a skilled instructor who can effectively initiate and manage class discussions. It also requires the allotment of sufficient time and careful time management on the part of the instructor. The students should also be given a common reference point so that meaningful discussion may occur.

Audiovisual Methods, such as: slides and overhead transparencies, videos, films, audiotapes, and networking, etc. can be used to portray dynamic and complex events that are difficult to communicate through the Lecture and Discussion Methods. These can be carried out in the Multimedia classrooms at the universities. In addition, these varied teaching methods can make a boring translation course more vivid, more attractive dynamic and easier to understand. For example, when the translation lecturer wants to teach students how to use software to translate, the multimedia classrooms are necessary for the course. The lecturer can demonstrate the usage of translating software to the students in class. However, for the selection of appropriate audiovisual media, the following factors need to be considered:

- ◆ Conditions, performance and standards of each instructional objective

- ◆ Student characteristics and preferences
- ◆ Learning environment
- ◆ Practical considerations that may determine which media opinions are feasible
- ◆ Economic factors that may determine which media opinions are feasible

Experiential Methods ensure active engagement on the part of the students, and, thus effective learning. The most common experiential method is the case study. It helps students learn analytical and problem solving skills. It is intellectually challenging and realistic. However, it requires that students be given enough information to analyze a certain situation, or case, and propose their own solutions.

Role Playing is a very popular training technique (Gabr, 2001). It offers the student an opportunity for self-discovery and learning. Role playing is useful in assisting students to apply new concepts and skills and in shifting attitudes. It is usually enhanced by a feedback session, in which the students and the teacher critique the role player's performance. Although role playing is a recommended technique for expositing students to real-life situations, it has some limitations. Some students may feel intimidated when having to act out a character; others may perceive role playing as artificial or as "fun and games",

not as an effective learning tool. These attitudes may interfere with the learning of others.

Computer-based Methods include Computer-Aided Instruction (CAI) and Intelligent Computer-Assisted Instruction (ICAI) (Gabr, 2001). They involve using the computer as the main or sole deliverer of the material in the training session. These methods have several advantages compared to other training methods and techniques. They are interactive in terms of the one-on-one relationship between the student and the tutor computer, and their self-pacing adjustment capability allows the student to control the speed of instruction according to his or her needs.

Moreover, the computers can automatically track student progress and the allocation and use of instructional resources, including terminals, instructors and classrooms. Assuming that the essential hardware is available, however, these methods require that both lecturers and students be fully familiar with the latest technology and software, which may be a big stumbling block. (Gabr, 2001)

7.3.3.2 Selection of lectures

In some institutions, the curriculum is developed by professional developers, and only then are lectures selected in light of their academic qualifications,

personal skills and professional backgrounds. In other institutions, lecturers perform tasks, developing the curriculum, as well as teaching the courses.

Regardless, there is an on-going debate in translator training communities about who should teach translation. So far, Gabr (2001) summarized three groups with conflicting opinions:

1. The first group supports the notion that the academics, the scholars and the Ph.D. holders, should teach translation;
2. The second assumes that the professionals, the actual “doers of the job”, should teach translation;
3. The third group, which seems very logical in its approach, is of the view that a team of academics and professionals should perform this task.

The academics can teach the theoretical aspects of translation while the professionals can guide students in the practical course.

The researcher believes that language and literature professors should teach courses in linguistics and translation theories, while practicing translators, teaching on a part time basis, should handle practice-in-translation modules.

Gouadec (2000) concludes:

"The answer to who should teach translators is quite straightforward: both professionals with a talent for teaching and teachers with good knowledge of the job ... that they are supposed to train people for."

Sainz (1994:72) supports a similar view:

"I agree with those who think the most adequate and competent teachers at university are those who, apart from their teaching positions, are also practising professionals in the subject they are teaching."

Gerding-Salas (2000:1-12), on the other hand, proposes the following prerequisites for a competent translation teacher:

"Sound knowledge of the SL and the TL, translation theory, transfer procedures, cognition and methodology.

1. Comprehension of what translation is and how it occurs.
2. Permanent interest in reading various kinds of texts.
3. Ability to communicate ideas clearly, emphatically and openly.
4. Ability to work out synthesis and the interrelationship of ideas.
5. Capacity to create, foster and maintain a warm work environment.

6. Capacity to foster search and research.
7. Accuracy and truthfulness; critical, self-critical and analytical capacity.
8. Clear assessment criteria."

Gabris (2000) adds that translation teachers should attend formal training in language and translation teaching, and should have some sort of certification or accreditation attesting to their ability to translate.

Some translation experts argue that the teacher must have both training competency and subject-matter expertise. The first involves the knowledge and skills needed to design and implement a training course, the ability to communicate knowledge clearly, mastery of various teaching methods and techniques, good interpersonal skills and the ability to motivate students. Subject-matter expertise, on the other hand, refers to mastery of the subject matter to be taught.

7.3.4 Developing Lesson Plans

A lesson plan is a guide for actual delivery of the training content. It is used to structure the lesson and to help with the flow of the class. It is a way of communicating instructional activities for specific subject matter. Lesson planning requires that the instructor identify, in advance, what is to be covered and how much time should be allotted for each activity. By planning the lesson,

the instructor ensures that specific skill gaps are filled and teaching principles are related to the content of the learning experience(http://www.campus-adr.org/Faculty_Club/plan_course.html).

In order for the instructor to develop an effective lesson plan, it is recommended that the lesson plan specifies:

1. Learning objectives
2. Target students
3. Class prerequisites
4. Content to be covered
5. Selection and/or design of teaching/training media
6. Sequencing of activities
7. Timing and planning of each activity
8. Types of evaluation items

Robert Kizlik (2005) lists six common mistakes in writing a lesson plan:

"1 - The objective of the lesson plan does not specify what the students will actually do that can be observed.

2 - The lesson assessment is disconnected from the behaviours indicated in the objective.

3 – The prerequisites are not specified or are inconsistent with what is actually required to succeed with the lesson.

4- The material specified in the lesson is extraneous to the actual objectives.

5 - The instruction in which the instructor will engage is not efficient for the level of intended student learning.

6 - The students' activities described in the lesson plan do not contribute in a direct and effective way to the lesson objectives."

Kizlik concludes that a lesson plan containing any of these mistakes has to be reconsidered and revised.

Developing a translator training programme is a creative task that must be approached systematically. It requires following carefully planned steps and making concerted efforts. It is a demanding task that necessitates teamwork, intensive research and considerable academic and professional background in pedagogy, training methodology, translating and course design and delivery.

7.4 Evaluation

Nowadays, more and more universities realize that they have to try their best to bridge the gap between translator training and the real world. Therefore, it is a good idea to invite professional translators to be the lecturers of the translation course. However, one cannot ignore the fact that the professional translators may lack pedagogical knowledge. One particular problematic area is that of marking translations and making decisions regarding student competence.

Professor Tao (2005) expresses: “One of the most challenging terms for professional educators is 'test.' Even seasoned instructors may not always feel at ease with putting a grade or a mark on a student's final paper.” If an entire class does well, the instructor feels proud that the objectives have been accomplished; however, if a large number of students do not perform well, instructors are disappointed and sometimes need to re-evaluate the objectives of the entire course.

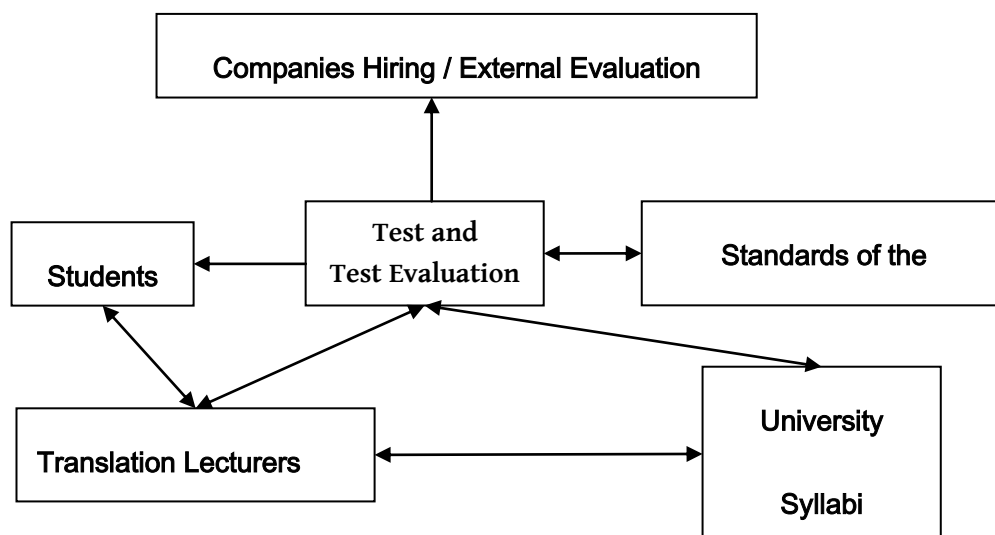
In China, the teaching method has changed drastically in recent years. In the past, educational institutions, from primary school to universities, preferred the “spoon-feeding” teaching method. Now, instructors and curriculum designers are convinced that a more learner-centered, creative and flexible teaching system motivates students. They began to adapt testing methods in the

revised curricula and methodologies to that of the western countries' education. Peer correction, self- and portfolio evaluation are becoming common in most of the universities in China, also in South Africa. All these validate Goff-Kfoury's (2004:7-8) words: "A communicative type of testing may promote a more efficient learning environment."

Traditional evaluation is still a critical aspect of education. According to Goff-Kfoury (2004:8), research in North America has shown that students who take frequent instructor-developed assessments scored higher on national tests. This may be the case not only because of the value of testing, but also because the tests are well thought out and allow students to apply the process of what was learned in class, as well as the content of the instruction. Instructors must not overlook the importance of the student's motivation to do well as one of the important factors in the success of assignments.

Assessment methods affect more than the simple student-instructor relationship in a translation classroom. First of all, the instructor's choice of testing strategies sends a message to the individual student regarding competence in a particular skill or knowledge base. Then the individual student can compare his or her result with those of the rest of the class. The department of translation (Language Practice in South Africa and the Foreign Languages Department in China) will evaluate the level of the tests given in

each course and will make recommendations concerning the students' performance and the instructors' efficiency, in order to decide how to improve the syllabus. At the same time, the translation lecturer will teach the students and design the test papers according to the syllabus. The companies or clients that hire the students could make a favourable or unfavourable judgment of the graduate student translators when they compare the quality of the translation to their expectations. External evaluation for exit level candidates is a feasible evaluation concerning the standard of teaching and learning. If the quality is high, the translation programme can take some of the credit; if the quality is low, the education of the student will be questioned. In the end, instructors who prepare quality tests, and demand the highest quality from the students, will raise the standards of the profession in general.



Measurement is a process that attempts to obtain a quantitative representation

of the degree to which a student shows competence in a particular skill or area of knowledge. In order to measure, instructors must have an instrument. Generally speaking, the traditional evaluation method and the instrument the instructors use is the test, also “testing”.

The translation lecturer will be relieved when students do well in the test or s/he will have to analyze further and investigate whether the incorrect answer is a mistake or an error. Even though many people use both terms interchangeably, scientifically speaking, a mistake is generally considered as a fault in performance; it does not occur systematically. An error, on the other hand, reflects a gap in the student's knowledge; it is systematic. An error is therefore more serious than a mistake, because it indicates a lack of knowledge; both student and instructor must address the problem when the test is returned. They will also have to analyze why the students chose that answer, in other words, why students did not answer the question correctly. The lecturer will then have to find out how to help them correct the answer and not make the same mistake again.

It is lecturer's responsibility to discuss the mistakes in the test paper with students in class, and tell students why the question is answered in a specific way; in addition, the lecturers will also tell students how to avoid making the same mistake again. If the students usually make the same mistakes in the

tests, the lecturer will include a similar question in the exam paper.

However, some lecturers argue that, if the same test questions were administered a second time under equivalent conditions, the same results should occur. The researcher disagrees with their opinion. Having a similar question reoccur in the exam or test paper could indicate to the students that the question is of great importance, thereby encouraging them to learn it in order to be able to answer it correctly in future. This could be seen as “spoon-feeding”, but it is an effective way of getting students to acknowledge and learn from their mistakes.

Evaluation is a process; it is the systematic process of determining the extent to which students have reached the educational objectives set by the institution or standard-setting body that issues their diploma. Evaluation is part of a decision-making process, through which the instructor collects information systematically through assessment, analyzes that information and relates the results of each student or of the class in general, to objectives in the course. Goff-Kfoury (2004:9) indicated that the reflective evaluation necessitates the following procedure:

Lecturer • prepares learning activities • carries out instruction •

prepares testing instrument • administers test • judges
students test performance • evaluates methodology and
questions students • alters or retains methods or objectives

Evaluation, as shown above, depends on the reliability of the test instrument.

However, how does one make the evaluation results reliable?

Reliability in translation studies is an essential issue. A test of technical translation ability may render more reliable results than a literary translation test. For example, one word in a literary translation may have five to six different almost equivalent synonyms in the target language, each with a different connotation. Moreover, the student translator has to take a number of factors into consideration while taking a literary test. What were the cultural implications, for whom did the author intend the text? How well and how similarly the student and the corrector answer those and other questions will influence the reliability of the translated document and its correction.

The researcher holds that there is no absolutely accurate way of evaluating translation products. Evaluating translation products is not like machine corrected multiple choice questions. For example, the answer of Question one is A, if you choose B, C or D, it is wrong. This kind of question is called an objective question. However, the translation test usually contains subjective

questions. The degree of reliability is largely depending in a certain sense, on the corrector. Subjective questions do not mean that they do not have criteria to evaluate them. Two levels of evaluation have been identified: traditional evaluation and micro-evaluation.

◆ Traditional evaluation

Traditional evaluation of the translation product is based on text comparison in order to determine degrees of fidelity, accuracy, completeness and felicity. Sager (1993:185) said the traditional evaluation was often carried out in the form of a contrastive evaluation by a single individual of the source and target texts only, without the guidance of objective criteria. Such an individual is in no better position than a translator unless we assume an idealized bilingual and bicultural subject field expert. However, it is often impossible for universities to invite bilingual and bicultural subject field experts of different target languages. Therefore, this traditional evaluation way is not suitable for universities.

◆ Micro-evaluation

Compared to the traditional evaluation, Sager (1993:186) illustrated that micro level evaluation was concerned with such criteria as fidelity and, more specifically, with correctness in terms of choice, order and grammatical agreement of items. Micro-evaluation of the process is essential for teaching

improving human translation performance and for the design and improvement of automated systems. This way of evaluation is more suitable for universities than the Traditional way.

7.4.1 Types of test

Goff-Kfourri (2004:9-12) classified tests by their different purposes: Placement tests, Diagnostic tests, Progress tests, and Achievement tests.

- ◆ Placement tests are the tests that are used to classify the level of incoming candidates to a translation or any other skill-based programme (Goff-Kfourri, 2004:10). A placement test can also be instrumental in the reorganization of a curriculum. According to the results, the department may have to implement remedial or intensive courses. On the other hand, more advanced classes (or more elementary classes) may need to be set up if the student level is higher (or lower) than preceding years. Placement tests are a practical way to assess the possible evolution in incoming students' talents from one year to the next. However, university placement tests do necessitate a large amount of research to be effective. The test creators must be aware of and distinguish between the school curriculum from which the students are coming and the curriculum demands of the university. Placement tests must situate the entry level of the student. For example, if you are placing students in an Editing and Revision class

sequence, the placement test must measure how well versed the students already are in copy-editing, idioms, and syntax, so as to assign them to the correct class level.

- ◆ Diagnostic tests are tests designed to pick out student problems before it is too late in the year or the semester to do so (Goff-Kfourri, 2004:11). The objective of diagnostic tests is different from that of placement tests; a diagnostic test is given so as to facilitate the student's learning, to encourage students in correct areas of weakness and to remedy the weakness. The researcher is of the opinion that the diagnostic test is more or less like the class test. It is also for checking what kinds of problems students have had in previous classes in order for lecturers to help students acquire knowledge. For example, if a student was diagnosed with problems in English grammar at the beginning of the semester, and still exhibits the same problems at the midpoint, a solution must be found.

- ◆ Progress tests are the most frequent tests given by instructors. Some progress tests may also serve a diagnostic function (Goff-Kfourri, 2004:11). The objective of a progress test is to determine if the students have mastered material that has already been taught. In theory, if the teaching has been sufficient, if the syllabus is organized effectively, if the test is well written and of course, if the students have been attentive, marks on a

progress test should be high. If not, the instructor will have to determine why and alter the weekly course distribution. In a translation classroom, where rote learning is not emphasized, progress tests apply the principles of translation. Progress tests are often "open book tests" in translation classes. Students have access to notes, databases, dictionaries, et cetera. Open book tests are suitable in testing situations where the instructor is determining how competent students are in applying knowledge, not merely recalling it. Meanwhile, it also teaches student translators how to do efficient research on a translation within a limited timeframe. In other words, to a certain extent, it tests whether they can translate efficiently.

- ◆ Achievement tests are meant to determine if the student has met the course objectives. If students were placed in the correct course level, and benefited from the results of diagnostic tests and progress tests, the achievement test should reaffirm their acquisition of skills necessary to advance to a further level of study. Achievement tests are usually all-inclusive and occur at the end of the course. Their results should be examined closely so as to also evaluate the programme's strengths and weaknesses. (Goff-Kfourri, 2004:12)

- ◆ The Portfolio assessment is also a kind of technique to aid students in tracking their progress. Not only do the students track their own level

but the instructor is also able to judge the student's work in reference to past assignments. A portfolio is a file that students compile throughout the semester or course and in which they keep the work they have done and want to be marked for a final grade. Instructors can determine the minimum number of assignments per week, or each two weeks, to be included in the portfolio, as well as the test papers. The portfolio method is time consuming for instructors who have large classes, but the advantage is that instructors can gauge the progress of the student by actually consulting the work done by the student at the beginning of the course or in the middle, rather than only consulting the marks in their test results.

7.4.2 Types of test questions

Though the researcher said that translation questions are usually subjective questions, the instructors can use some objective questions for novice student translators. Here are some examples of question types which frequently appear in test papers.

◆ Multiple choice

Multiple choice items can be used to measure a variety of learning objectives, such as vocabulary acquisition, analysis, application of principles, cause and effect association or the ability to interpret data. Whether to test through

multiple choice items or not, is quite a controversial issue. Some instructors do not see the necessity of offering four alternatives; some instructors believe they encourage an unnecessarily passive attitude in the student. Actually, multiple choice tests have more advantages than disadvantages. First, an instructor can build an item bank and alter particularly effective questions and use them more than once. Also, multiple-choice statements offer the instructor one means of being creative in the testing of translation skills.

For example:

Which one is the correct translation of the sentence:” How are you?” in Afrikaans.

- ◆ Hoe gaan dit?
- ◆ Aangename kennis?
- ◆ Waar bly jy?

1. Open-ended questions

An Open-ended question is, in fact, an unstructured short answer question. It is a good way to show the students’ opinion on specific topics. In other words, it is like a short assignment in a test paper. Open-ended questions are primarily used in informal testing. Goff-Kfoury (2004:7) stated: “The great advantage to these items is their ease of preparation and correction, even if students do sometimes present answers that were not originally in your key.”

This kind of question can be used in testing students' knowledge of translation theory.

For example:

What do you think of translators' ethics?

2. Gap filling

For example:

He _____ studying in the classroom yesterday.

According to Goff-Kfourri (2004:7), both Gap filling and Open ended question belong to "supply or free-response questions".

3. Two alternative items test

More commonly known as *yes/no*, *true/false* questions, such items measure how well students know facts and definitions, and if they can distinguish between fact and opinion. They are, however, difficult to write clearly and should not include terms such as *never* and *always*.

For example:

Consumers and producers share the burden of a sales tax. (T/F)

7.4.3 Assessment and Grading / Marking

According to Maier & Warren (2000:132), when instructors mark examination papers, they usually do so based on one of two traditional options available.

Norm-referencing assessment judges one student's performance based on the rest of the students in their group. The group is the norm, so students will, for example, be informed if they fall in the top or bottom third of the class. In competitive testing situations, a *norm-referencing* assessment is used. When an institution wants to compare the test results of all the candidates and only take, for example, the top 10%, they will use norm referencing. The candidates are competing against each other. If there are many high quality students, an average level student may not be admitted; if there are few high quality students, the average student will certainly have a higher probability of passing the test. Very often, universities may also restrict the number of students received in order retain an aura of "quality".

Criteria-referenced assessment involves evaluating whether the student can perform a task or not; instructors are not concerned with the comparison amongst students. In translation classes, criteria-referenced tests are more frequent. Criterion referencing may be fairer from a student's point of view, since it compares the students' results with fixed criteria. Students are judged

on how well they alone can perform a task. For example, can they complete a technical translation within a fixed time frame? In theory, all the students may be able to do so. And how well can a student translate in the fixed time frame?

Preterit-referencing compares a student's present performance with a previous one. Generally considered effective in special needs education and performance coaching, it may be beneficial in translation classes, as it enables students to judge how much they have progressed within a fixed period of time.

7.4.4 Instructor Assessment

There have been many suggestions made as to how to mark a translation. Certainly, the type of translation, whether technical or literary plays a crucial role in the type of correction you choose. The assessor also plays an important role. Some emphasize certain criteria above others. Students in a classroom must be informed of the criteria on which they will be judged.

There are some basic options an instructor can choose from when correcting a translation:

A. General Impression

Although some experienced instructors are able to differentiate between a paper that is a 62/100 rather than, for example a 67, a general impression mark is not very beneficial to the student, for it does not, in general, provide the reasons for the missing marks.

B. Error Count

A simple error count is not recommended as a method of marking a student's translation, since it rarely gives points for content and does not take into consideration the seriousness of the errors.

C. Analytical Grid

An analytical grid allows the instructor to set clear criteria for correction based on simple arithmetic. However, it can easily be adopted for a translation correction.

1. Accuracy	Major Errors	Minor Errors
Omission of words		
Insertion of information		
Inclusion of alternate translation		
Target language grammar		

Mistranslation		
-----------------------	--	--

2. Other Criteria	General content	Coherence	Cohesion	Organization
	Text Type	Punctuation	Spelling	Terminology

When students are provided with a grid assessment, they are able to see where their weaknesses and strengths lie. Some instructors provide their students with a complete description of each number used on the grid. For example, a student who receives a low score on the accuracy category would know that the instructor considers this quality of work to be an almost native style of writing with varied sentence structure. Coupled with descriptive comments such as the examples below, a student will be able to rewrite the translation with a clear focus. According to Cangelosi (2000:96-107), descriptive comments are similar to the "I" messages suggested by both communication and education specialists:

- ◆ Your use of prepositions is incorrect almost 3/4 of the time; review before you write again.

- ◆ You take an inappropriate amount of mistakes in translating this technical text.
- ◆ Consider your target audiences before you translate.
- ◆ There are too many examples of basic grammatical errors for me to evaluate this text. Begin again.
- ◆ I feel that you have really gotten the feel of what the original author wanted to say.

D. Self Assessment

Translation students are often adults who have chosen to pursue a career in language services. The majority knows that competition is quite stiff and in order to succeed, they must excel. Asking students to assess their own progress, is one way of helping them to view their work objectively. Below is an example of a translation self-assessment paper that can be given to the students at the beginning of the semester or course. Goff-Kfourri (2004:12) provides a simple Likert Scale which can be:

Translation Student Self-Assessment

Directions: Respond to the following statements truthfully using the scale given to you.

Statements		Never	Often	Sometimes	Always
1.	I understand all that I read in my Language 1.				
2.	I understand all that I read in my Language 2.				
3.	I am confident that I will be an effective translator.				
4.	I make comprehension errors when I translate.				
5.	I make grammatical errors when I translate.				
6.	I feel comfortable working on a computer when I translate.				

An instructor may add statements that are appropriate for the particular course or the maturity of the student translator. Some students may show surprise at the mark they receive. A self-evaluation sheet filled out directly after an assignment may provide the student with helpful clues to his/her weaknesses. The example below can be modified to fit both the instructor and students' needs.

Assignment Evaluation		Yes	No
1.	I understood the text the first time I read it.		
2.	I had to consult resources minimally.		

3.	I devoted a lot of time to documentation.		
4.	I felt that I was linking the major parts of the text in a logical manner.		
5.	I felt at ease translating this subject.		

E. Peer Assessment

Students are effective revisers and evaluators of each other's work. They are even more effective when they help decide on the criteria for the assignment undertaken. In peer comparison, the students may not be asked to put a mark to the work, but they can find areas in the translation that are not clear or which they themselves translated differently. In fact, peer assessment is an extremely useful learning experience. Here are some hints for peer assessment:

1. Have a student work with one student with whom s/he feel comfortable and secure.
2. Once students have evaluated their partner's work several times, they should work with another student's work so as not to become used to their partner's errors.
3. Students should have completed the translation that they are evaluating.

4. A specific time limit and correction symbols are important to ensure consistency.
5. Ask students to evaluate the work in another colour pen than the lecturer uses, so as not to confuse the student.
6. Give students time to explain their reactions to the work orally, as well as in written format.
7. It can save a lot of time for translation lecturers.

To sum up, though the test and evaluation results can reflect students' study progress, the lecturers should be providing opportunities to learn, rather than constantly testing the students. Tao Jun Lin (2005) suggested:

“Testing your class is as much a reflection of your own teaching as it is of the students' knowledge. A test may evaluate the effectiveness of your instruction. Do not be tempted to “coach for a test”, or “teaching for the test”, as it is sometimes called. Teach in a way that prepares students to apply what they have learned in any situation, test or normal class work.”

Goff-Kfourri (2004:13) suggests the following:

1. “Contribute items that have not been covered in your own class quizzes; this is not a fair evaluation of your students in comparison to the others.
2. Consult with the other instructors in advance as to what is to be covered in the exam.
3. Set up a common grading scale as well as the common exam.
4. Meet and exchange papers to make sure grading is consistent. For example, ask that all your colleagues bring three papers for discussion: the highest, the average and the lowest grades. Exchange the papers and discuss objectively.
5. You may even experiment with exchanging entire class sets of papers for truly objective grading.”

Chapter Eight

Recommendations and Conclusion

8.1 Recommendations on Translation education

8.1.1 Include a Reading Comprehension course

Since all the languages are not modelled on exactly the same lexical and structural patterns, there is no one-to-one correspondence between the words and structures of the source language and the target language. Even the layperson knows about gross differences, such as words existing in one language and not having “exact equivalents” in another, or elements and rules of grammar that obviously differ from one language to the next: declensions, verbs, tenses, articles and other word functions.

For example, when the students read the sentence “This car is very powerful.”, they will almost invariably say that they understand the sentence. Their comprehension should be based on two elements (Fromkin *et al.*, 2003:231-240):

1. Syntax meaning - the knowledge of the words and the grammar of the sentence.
2. Semantic meaning - the knowledge beside the language knowledge, it also known as extra-linguistic knowledge, world knowledge or encyclopaedic knowledge.

These two elements compose the “complete comprehension”.

Complete Comprehension = Syntax meaning + Semantic Meaning

However, when people say they “understand” a sentence, generally their comprehension can often be considered incomplete, because they do not know and understand all it actually says in its context. Look at the example above, the students do not know which “car” the author is referring to, or what level of the power is meant by “powerful”. In different contexts and in different situations, the word “powerful” may mean different things: a *powerful* car in an advertisement is not the same as a *powerful* method for solving a problem. Similarly, the word “car” can mean not only an automobile, but also a streetcar, an elevator cage, or the part of a balloon which carries people and equipment. Putting it differently, their comprehension would be more complete if they knew who was talking, what car the speaker is referring to, and in what context.

It is essential for the translators to understand the source language text completely, so as to be able to reproduce it in the target language. When the translator understands the syntactical and semantic meaning of the sentence or text, it may be sufficient for him/her to know the proper terminological equivalents of nouns or noun groups, and sometimes verbs, to produce a good translation in a field he or she does not know well. Daniel Gile (1995:102)

illustrated:

“...in order to Translate a sentence in specialized discourse, translators have to understand its functional and logical infrastructure (the semantic network structure of the sentence) and to have available the appropriate “equivalents,” or other terms or paraphrases, to express the same message in the target language.”

Translators can look for the necessary information in various written sources. In other words, translators use the context provided by the texts and speeches to gain more knowledge about the subject by analyzing available clues, and thus improving their comprehension of subsequent speeches or later text segments. Therefore, it is important to include the Reading Comprehension course for translators’ training, in order to cultivate student translators’ reading abilities.

The translation process should, therefore, be considered a complex system in which understanding, processing, and projection of the translated text are interdependent portions of one structure. Abdellah (2002:30-31) advises novice translators, as well as student translators, to master the following basic reading comprehension skills:

1. "Read for gist and main ideas.
2. Read for details.
3. Identify the meaning of new words and expressions using one or more components of the structural analysis clause; prefixes, suffixes, roots, word order, punctuation, sentence pattern, etc.
4. Identify the meaning of new words and expressions using one or more of the contextual analyses; synonyms, antonyms, examples, et cetera.
5. Identify the writer's style: literary, scientific, technical, informative, persuasive, argumentative, etc.
6. Identify the language level used in the text: standard, slang, colloquialism, religious, etc.
7. Identify cultural references in the choice of words in the text"

8.1.2 Include technical and academic writing in translation curricula

Including technical and academic writing in translation curricula is also important. The study of writing is an appropriate domain for applied linguistic inquiry, including language-based problems for source language and target language. Technical writing and academic writing can widen student translators' professional horizons. It allows them to become acquainted with the characteristics of a number of new genres and equips them with the necessary skills to produce texts corresponding to these genres. By designing

a number of assignments in which they have to decide what is really important in a text and what is not, writing instruction can be approached in such a way that students concentrate on the notion of the importance of information.

Introduction to scholarly communication is also of great benefit. The researcher agrees with Koltay (1998:26-28) that activities and documents related to organizing a conference, publishing scholarly papers, etc. are novelties for the majority of students. On the other hand, translators may very well be engaged in the above-mentioned activities, as they are often the only persons equipped with sufficient language skills in a given workplace. Encounters with new texts also develop the student's vocabulary in the target language.

Furthermore, from this course, the students will learn the different characteristics of different types of literature, because translation itself is the process of rewriting a source language text into a target language text. It can help student translators translate professionally. It can be said that one of the most important skills for professional translators is that of writing in the target language.

Though translators can also be called target language rewriters, they are generally not asked to improve the source text (Aksoy, 2001:12-14). There will

always be a tug of war between the better version one could have written oneself and the real-life text one agreed to translate. This is an everyday struggle for the conscientious translator.

In addition, if the translator has top quality writing skills in both the target language and the source language, s/he will definitely earn more money compared to other translators in the translation field. This is not “Money Worship”. It is true, especially for the freelance translators. According to Durban (2003), if two translators translate the same text, and translator A has better writing skills in the target language than translator B, then the translator A can get paid €0.40 per word, whereas, translator B only gets €0.12-0.15 per word for the same translation product. In short, the translator will always reap the benefits for developing his or her writing skills.

8.1.3 Translation textbooks should include translation history

The government-published translation textbooks in China do not include the translation history of China and the Western World. However, some of the published books and translation journals give an overview of Chinese translation history, as well as the Western translation history.

The same situation exists in South Africa. The translation lecturers often neglect teaching students translation history, because the textbooks or articles

they using, do not contain translation history. Though some of the supplementary reading books have translation history in them, it is not South African translation history. According to J. A. Naudé (2005), the South African translation history is still blank, and it requires further research.

“Without translation, there is no history in the world.”
(<http://www.completetranslation.com/history.htm>) The researcher thinks that teaching translation history is very important, because it can help the students to see themselves as translators who will be working in a specific geographical, cultural and economic setting. The examples from history can help students think about what setting they would like to find themselves in. Translation is closely related to progress in that all the awakening periods in the history of nations have started with translation.

Translation introduces nations to various perspectives on their paths to modernization and intellectual advancement. In order to justify translation as an independent discipline, it is necessary to first construct a history of translation. By doing so, it brings to light how the cultural and intellectual interactions between people and civilizations took place throughout history. The construction of a history of translation is the first task of a modern theory of translation. Recent translation research can help translators to catch up with the new translation theories.

8.1.4 Recommendations on compiling translation textbooks

1. The academic authority takes the initiative on getting seasoned translation lecturers together and compiling translation textbooks. For example, SATI (South Africa Translation Institution) is one of the translation authority organizations. Most of the seasoned translation lecturers in South Africa are members of SATI. This also makes it more convenient for SATI to organize the Translation Textbooks Compiling Group (TTCG).

The TTCG group should be organized every four years. In other words, the textbooks compiled by the TTCG group could be renewed every four years, since the four years study in university. The seasoned translation lecturers can place emphasis on the importance of translation theories and remind students of the mistakes that are easily made. In addition, because the textbooks are created by seasoned lecturers, to a certain degree, it is easier for lecturers to teach students how to integrate theory with practice.

2. Translation textbooks should have different editions to accommodate the different needs of students or universities. Such as National Diploma of Translation, Bachelor Degree of Translation, Master's Degree of Translation. Some universities do not offer a Translation degree, but they

have translation courses.

3. The researcher suggests that the TTCG-compiled textbooks cover the latest research in Translation and Linguistics, as well as the translation history of both South Africa and the world. This will give students a clear view of translation study, as the researcher mentioned in the previous chapters.
4. Translation exercises should not only include discussion exercises, as abstracted from Douglas Robinson's book, but also some exercises which can help student translators practice the theories covered in each chapter. These textbooks should include a variety of translation exercises.

8.1.5 Using parallel texts in the translator training environment

Comparable corpora are already being used quite extensively in the translator training environment in order to assist students with making appropriate lexical and phraseological choices. The underlying premise is that comparable corpora are a richer resource for this type of information than conventional resources, such as dictionaries.

Comparable corpora, for example, collections of texts in two or more languages containing texts of the same type and dealing with the same domain,

are an invaluable resource for translation teachers and students. Students tend to use them in much the same way as they would a dictionary, for example, to check for the correct terminology, to identify appropriate collocates, etc. They use comparable corpora to discover typical ways of saying things in a particular language, text type and subject field. Thus, they might discover that certain syntactical structures are more prevalent in one language than another, in which the use of certain sets of words, such as adjectives and adverbs, differ from one language to another.

Lecturers use comparable corpora in much the same way as students when preparing their translation classes, and they may also use comparable corpora as an aid in evaluating students' work.

In fact, it is here that comparable corpora really come into their own, because translation teachers might sometimes have difficulty in explaining to students why they believe a particular translation choice to be unnatural and, therefore, inappropriate. Access to comparable corpora allows lecturers to:

- ◆ Validate their intuitions.
- ◆ Use the corpus evidence as basis for their explanation to students.

Students tend to be much more receptive to corrections that are supported by hard evidence.

It is clear that the reasons for using comparable corpora in the translator training environment are not in dispute. However, Pearson (2003:178) said: “Comparable corpora have already found their niche in translator training ... parallel corpora can be used as a complement to comparable corpora because there will be times when comparable corpora will not suffice.” This is because the texts in a comparable corpus are produced in a different context to those in a parallel corpus. Generally speaking, texts in comparable corpora are originals, because they have not been translated from another language. They provide evidence of language behaving naturally in a monolingual environment.

According to Pearson (2003:192), parallel corpora, on the other hand, contain texts and their translations. Thus, they contain evidence not only of language produced in a monolingual environment (the source texts), but also of language produced in a bilingual or multilingual environment (the target language texts). There is evidence to suggest that the language used in translation may differ from the language used in the production of an original source text. Thus, investigations of parallel corpora may allow students to see how writers, like translators, behave when constrained by the existence of a text composed in another language. The translation lectures must remind the student translators that translators have to act as cultural and linguistic mediators, negotiating their way between languages as well as cultures.

(Pearson, 2003:192-195)

A parallel corpus plays such an important role in the translator training environment that the students can use parallel corpora to help them with translation. According to Wilkinson (2005:35-39), findings from corpus-based studies of parallel corpora can, and should, inform the design and implementation of specialized translation courses. Also, by studying parallel corpora, particularly aligned parallel corpora, translation students have the opportunity to see for themselves what strategies professional translators employ to solve different translation problems. They could learn how information is conveyed. By observing what has happened, they could begin to devise their own translation strategies.

8.2 Conclusion

With the development of an integrated global society and economy, the demand for professional translators in the 21st century will be more than in the last century (Liu, 2003:503). In addition, Liu (2003:504) estimated that, in the first 50 years of the 21st century, global communication will require millions of translation products. This amount of work will occupy translators for about 200 years. It is easy to feel the pressure of translation assignments and translators training from the potential demand of translation products. The demand from the translation market will stimulate the development of translation education.

Students also must appreciate the demands required of them prior to their enrolling in a translation courses. Translation courses foster a broad range of skills and develop competencies in numerous areas, a fact that can come as a shock to students. The professional translators have undergone the necessary training and accumulated experience to understand the many underlying requirements behind translation, including computer skills. In short, the researcher hope the proposed model for translation curriculum can be thrown on the development of a new pedagogical model for translation education.

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Appendix I Questionnaire for sample universities in South Africa

Dear Sir or Madam,

I am Liu Yuan, now studying M. Tech in Central University of Technology, Free State. My research title is: *A Critical Review of Translation Education in China and South Africa: A proposed model*. So I need some information about Translation Education. Would you help me finish the questionnaire below? It will take you around 5-10 minutes to finish it. In addition, I will not write your name in my thesis, because it is an anonymous investigate enquiry, so please answer the questions honestly.

Thank you.

Sincerely,

Liu Yuan

Questionnaire

1. Class size: How many students are there in one class (The final year students as example)? For example, there is only one student in English-Chinese translation class, so write 1 in the table. If you offer other languages in the university, please write down in the blank.

English	Afrikaans	Sesotho	Setswana	isiXhosa	IsiZulu	Tshivenda	IsiNdebele
siSwati	Xitsonga	Sepedi	Japanese	Sign L.	German	French	
							Chinese
							1

2. Text books that students use in the university:

A = Government published textbooks

B = Self-edited material as textbooks

C = Other translation books as textbooks

	First year	Second year	Third year	Fourth year
Only A				
Only B				
Only C				

A + B				
A + C				
B + C				
A + B + C				

3. How often do you renew your textbooks of Translation Subject in general?

Please circle the matching answer.

A. One year B. Two–Three years C. Four years D. More than Five years.

4. If you use some published books as textbooks, please write down the author's name and the publication date, the publisher and the ISBN number. (The fourth year students' textbooks as example)

5. Do you have a specific translation direction? For example: technical translation.

6. Do you have translation practicum? If yes, what kind of role do you play in the practicum and what do students do in the practicum? Do students have translation practicum in the real world before they graduate?

7. How do you evaluate students' translation?

8. What do you think of the current translation education in South Africa? Any suggestions for translation education?

Appendix II Questionnaire for sample universities in China

Dear Sir or Madam,

I am Liu Yuan, now studying M. Tech in Central University of Technology, Free State. My research title is: *A Critical Review of Translation Education in China and South Africa: A proposed model*. So I need some information about Translation Education. Would you help me finish the questionnaire below? It will take you around 5-10 minutes to finish it. In addition, I will not write your name in my thesis, because it is an anonymous investigate enquiry, so please answer the questions honestly.

Thank you.

Sincerely,

Liu Yuan

Questionnaire

1. Class size: How many students are there in one class (The final year students as example)? For example, there is only one student in English-Chinese translation class, so write 1 in the table. If you offer other languages in the universities, please write down in the blank.

	English	French	German	Japanese	Sign L.
1 st Year	1				
2 nd Year					
3 rd Year					
4 th Year					

2. Text books that students use in the university:

A = Government published textbooks B = Self-edited material as textbooks

C = Other translation books as textbooks

	First year	Second year	Third year	Fourth year
Only A				
Only B				
Only C				
A + B				

A + C				
B + C				
A + B + C				

3. How often do you renew your textbooks of Translation Subject in general?

Please circle the matching answer.

A. One year B. Two–Three years C. Four years D. More than Five years.

4. If you use some published books as textbooks, please write down the author's name and the publication date, the publisher and the ISBN number. (The fourth year students' textbooks as example)

5. Do you have a specific translation direction? For example: technical translation.

6. Do you have translation practicum? If yes, what kind of role do you play in the practicum and what do students do in the practicum? Do students have social translation practicum before they graduate?

7. How do you evaluate students' translation?

8. What do you think of the current translation education in China? Any suggestions for translation education?

Appendix III Questionnaire for students

Dear friends,

I am Liu Yuan, now studying M. Tech in Central University of Technology, Free State. My research title is: *A Critical Review of Translation Education in China and South Africa: A proposed model*. So I need some information about students' opinion on Chinese and South African Translation Education. Would you help me finish the questionnaire below? It will only take you around 5 minutes to finish it. In addition, I will not write you name in my thesis, because it is anonymous investigate enquiry, so please answer the questions honestly.

Thank you.

Sincerely,

Liu Yuan

Questionnaire for students

SA = strongly agree (with the statement)

A = agree (with the statement)

N = neither agree or disagree (with the statement)

D = Disagree (with the statement)

SD = strongly disagree (with the statement)

	SA	A	N	D	SD
1. The course objectives match the actual needs of students.					
2. The course objectives match the actual needs of practice.					
3. The translation textbooks that students use are useful for students.					
4. The additional translation exercises that lecturer gives to students are useful.					
5. The evaluation results of translation can reflect students' translation ability.					

6. Do you have any suggestions on the evaluation of translation?

7. What do you think the translation course? Any suggestion?

THE TRANSLATORS AND INTERPRETERS GUILD**Code of Ethics for Translators & Interpreters****I. Introduction**

A. As stated in its bylaws, the purpose of the Translators and Interpreters Guild (TTIG) is to improve the quality of life of its members by raising the standards and ethics of translation and interpretation, and to do so in a spirit of solidarity. This Code embodies TTIG's recognition of translators' and interpreters' responsibilities to the public, to clients, and to colleagues.

B. Membership in either the Translators Referral Service (TRS) or the Referral Service for Interpreters (RSI) of TTIG implies a commitment to honourable behaviour beyond that of laws and regulations.

C. TTIG deems this Code of Ethics to be a blueprint for sound ethical behaviour throughout the fields of translation and interpretation. However, in the case of members of the TRS and the RSI, compliance with the Code is a binding obligation.

D. As with all voluntary organizations, adherence to the Code depends

foremost on the understanding and voluntary actions of members; secondarily on reinforcement from colleagues, clients and the public; and finally, if necessary, on disciplinary action against those who do not comply with it.

II. Obligations

A. Members pledge to render the best possible translation and interpretation services, and to undertake all reasonable steps to that end.

B. Members pledge to accept only those assignments for which they are qualified, taking into account language combination and expertise in a given subject area as may be required for the job in question.

C. Members pledge to maintain secrecy as appropriate regarding confidential information obtained in their professional capacity.

D. Members pledge not to use any confidential information obtained in their professional capacity for financial profit or personal advantage.

E. Members pledge to help eliminate illegal and unethical practices in the translating and interpreting professions.