MINISTRY OF HIGHER AND SPECIAL SECONDARY EDUCATION SAMARKAND STATE INSTITUTE OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES

CHAIR OF TRANSLATION THEORY AND PRACTICE

Lectures

SEMULTENEOUS TRANSLATION

For the third year students

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Lecture 1

Theme: Types of translation. Oral translation: Synchronous translation. A sight translation

Plan:

1. Comparison to translation
2. Consecutive interpreting
3. Simultaneous translation
4. Sight translation
5. Whispered interpreting

Introductory words:

Oral translation, written translation, simultaneous and sight translation, whispered interpreting, interpreter, sight translation.

Types of translation.pptx

Introduction

Comparison to translation

Though the basic characteristics of translation can be observed in all translation events, different types of translation can be singled out depending on the predominant communicative function of the source text or the form of speech involved in the translation process. Thus we can distinguish between literary and informative translation, on the one hand, and between written and oral translation (or interpretation), on the other hand. Literary translation deals with literary texts, i. e. works of fiction or poetry whose main function is to make an emotional or aesthetic impression upon the reader. Their communicative value depends, first and foremost, on their artistic quality and the translator's primary task is to reproduce this quality in translation. Informative translation is rendering into the target language non-literary texts, the main purpose of which is to convey a certain amount of ideas, to inform the reader. However, if the source text is of some length, its translation can be listed as literary or informative only as an approximation. A literary text may, in fact, include some parts of purely informative character. Contrariwise, informative translation may comprise some elements aimed at achieving an aesthetic effect. Within each group further gradations can be made to bring out more specific problems in literary or informative translation.

Literary works are known to fall into a number of genres. Literary translations may be subdivided in the same way, as each genre calls for a specific arrangement and makes use of specific artistic means to impress the reader

There are two types of translation: oral and written. Written translation consists of business letters, recommendation letters, formal letter and translation of literary plays and scientific text.

Oral translation consists of the following modes:

- ✓ **Simultaneous**
- ✓ **Consecutive**
- ✓ **Whispered**

Consecutive interpreting

In consecutive interpreting (CI), the interpreter speaks after the source-language speaker has finished speaking. The speech is divided into segments, and the interpreter sits or stands beside the source-language speaker, listening and taking notes as the speaker progresses through the message. When the speaker pauses or finishes speaking, the interpreter then renders a portion of the message or the entire message in the target language.

Consecutive interpretation is rendered as "short CI" or "long CI". In short CI, the interpreter relies on memory, each message segment being brief enough to memorize. In long CI, the interpreter takes notes of the message to aid rendering long passages. These informal divisions are established with the client *before* the interpretation is effected, depending upon the subject, its complexity, and the purpose of the interpretation.

On occasion, document sight translation is required of the interpreter during consecutive interpretation work. Sight translation combines interpretation and translation; the interpreter must render the source-language document to the target-language as if it were written in the target language. Sight translation occurs usually, but not exclusively, in judicial and medical work.

Consecutively interpreted speeches, or segments of them, tend to be short. Fifty years ago, the CI interpreter would render speeches of 20 or 30 minutes; today, 10 or 15 minutes is considered too long, particularly since audiences usually prefer not to sit through 20 minutes of speech they cannot understand.

Often, if not previously advised, the source-language speaker is unaware that they may speak more than a single sentence before the CI interpretation is rendered and might stop after each sentence to await its target-language rendering. Sometimes, however, depending upon the setting or subject matter, and upon the interpreter's capacity to memorize, the interpreter may ask the speaker to pause after each sentence or after each clause. Sentence-by-sentence interpreting requires less memorization and therefore lower likelihood for omissions, yet its disadvantage is in the interpreter's not having heard the entire speech or its gist, and the overall message is sometimes harder to render both because of lack of context and because of interrupted delivery (for example, imagine a joke told in bits and pieces, with breaks for translation in between). This method is often used in rendering speeches, depositions, recorded statements, court witness testimony, and medical and job interviews, but it is usually best to complete a whole idea before it is interpreted.

Full (i.e., unbroken) consecutive interpreting of whole thoughts allows for the full meaning of the source-language message to be understood before the interpreter renders it in the target language. This affords a truer, more accurate, and more accessible interpretation than does simultaneous interpretation.

Simultaneous translation

In (extempore) simultaneous interpretation (SI), the interpreter renders the message in the target-language as quickly as he or she can formulate it from the source language, while the source-language speaker continuously speaks; an oral-language SI interpreter, sitting in a sound-proof booth, speaks into a microphone, while clearly seeing and hearing the source-language speaker via earphones. The simultaneous interpretation is rendered to the target-language listeners via their earphones. Moreover, SI is the common mode used by sign language interpreters, although the person using the source language, the interpreter and the target language recipient (since either the hearing person or the deaf person may be delivering the message) must necessarily be in close proximity.

Simultaneous interpreting is used when people need to follow what is said in the room without themselves making a contribution, whereas consecutive interpretation is used when there is a dialogue, and perhaps people wish to hear what the original speaker said in the source language because some of the listeners speak that language, or in a court setting, to preserve for the record the original words of the speaker when a witness or other party is questioned. Consecutive interpretation will double the time taken, as everything said in source language is repeated once again in the target language. Because of the intense concentration needed by interpreters to hear every word spoken and provide an accurate rendition in the target language, professional interpreters work in pairs or in teams of three, so that after interpreting for twenty minutes, the interpreters switch.

Whispered interpreting

In whispered interpreting (*chuchotage*, in French) sometimes called *whispering simultaneous*, the interpreter sits or stands next to the person or people requiring interpretation (a maximum of two people can be accommodated, unless a microphone and headphones are used) The interpreter does not whisper, as this would after a time be taxing on the voice making further speech impossible due to the hoarseness whispering for long periods induces. . Instead the interpreter speaks softly using normal (voiced) speech kept at a low volume. The interpreter's mouth and the ear of the person listening must be in close proximity so as not to disturb the others in the room. Without electronic equipment, chucotage is tiring as the interpreter's posture is affected.

Sight translation

Some translators call "sight translation" as a text before drafting it in writing. In the booth, however, a sight translation must "sound" like the result of an oral communication and not like a written text.

Sight translation has an important role in preparing future translators to dictate their work. Here we shall focus on the role of sight translation in the training of conference interpreters only.

Sight translation involves the transposition of a text written in one language into a text delivered orally in another language. Since both aural and visual information processing are involved, sight translation could be defined as a specific type of written translation as well as a variant of oral interpretation.

From a human information processing perspective, sight translation appears to have more in common with interpretation (Moser,calls personal communication), as a number of variables such as time, stress, anticipation, reading for idea closure, not to mention the oral nature of the task they are either absent in written translation, or present only to a limited degree.

Sight translation can also be rendered more or less carefully. An unstressful sight translation would be one where the students are allowed ten minutes or so to read over a passage and prepare the vocabulary. A more stressful exercise would be to eliminate the preparation time and ask the student to begin translation immediately without even having read the text. This is often done in court interpretation situations, where documents are handed to the court interpreter for immediate translation before the judge.

Students are encouraged to use some basic public speaking skills such as reading ahead so as to anticipate where the sentence is going, handling difficult vocabulary either by paraphrasing or finishing a sentence once they have begun it rather than start, stop mid-way and start the same sentence over again, and finally speaking clearly, and convincingly.

Sight interpretation one step is closer to simultaneous interpretation. In that the message is presented aurally to students as well as visually. In this case, students are given five to ten minutes to prepare a written editorial-type speech. Following this preparation, they are then asked to deliver a sight interpretation as it is being read to them through headphones. Students are told to follow the speaker who may or may not depart from the original text from time to time, and not to simply read from the passage as though it were a sight translation exercise.

It is simultaneous interpreter's task to make even the most complicated written information sound straightforward and clear to the listener. Under some circumstances this may mean extracting the main points of information from written text and presenting it in the form of a restructured "oral" speech. This where sight translation comes into play as the ideal means to achieve this goal, as the interpreter is master of his own reading speed and has often read speech before starting his interpretation.

Sight translation is an ideal tool, which, at this stage of the preparation the interpreter can use to assimilate technical terms in context and to develop the instantaneous translation reflexes to use technical terminology in a field in which he is no expert. These reflexes may cover difficulties ranging from pronunciation (e.g., the names of chemical compounds) to developing a certain ease in the use of terms that are rarely part of the interpreter's everyday vocabulary. This exercise will build up the interpreter's muscle memory. Moreover, sight translation allows the interpreter to prepare the more difficult passage of a speech quite thoroughly and provides a rehearsal before the actual conference.

Lastly, sight translation once it has been fully mastered develops simple speed-reading techniques, which are particularly helpful to the interpreter when preparing for a conference.

Questions:

1. How many types of translation are there?
2. What kind of differences are there between oral and written translation?
3. What is synchronous translation?
4. What kind of differences are between whispered and consecutive translation?
5. What is main aim of sight interpreting?

Literature:

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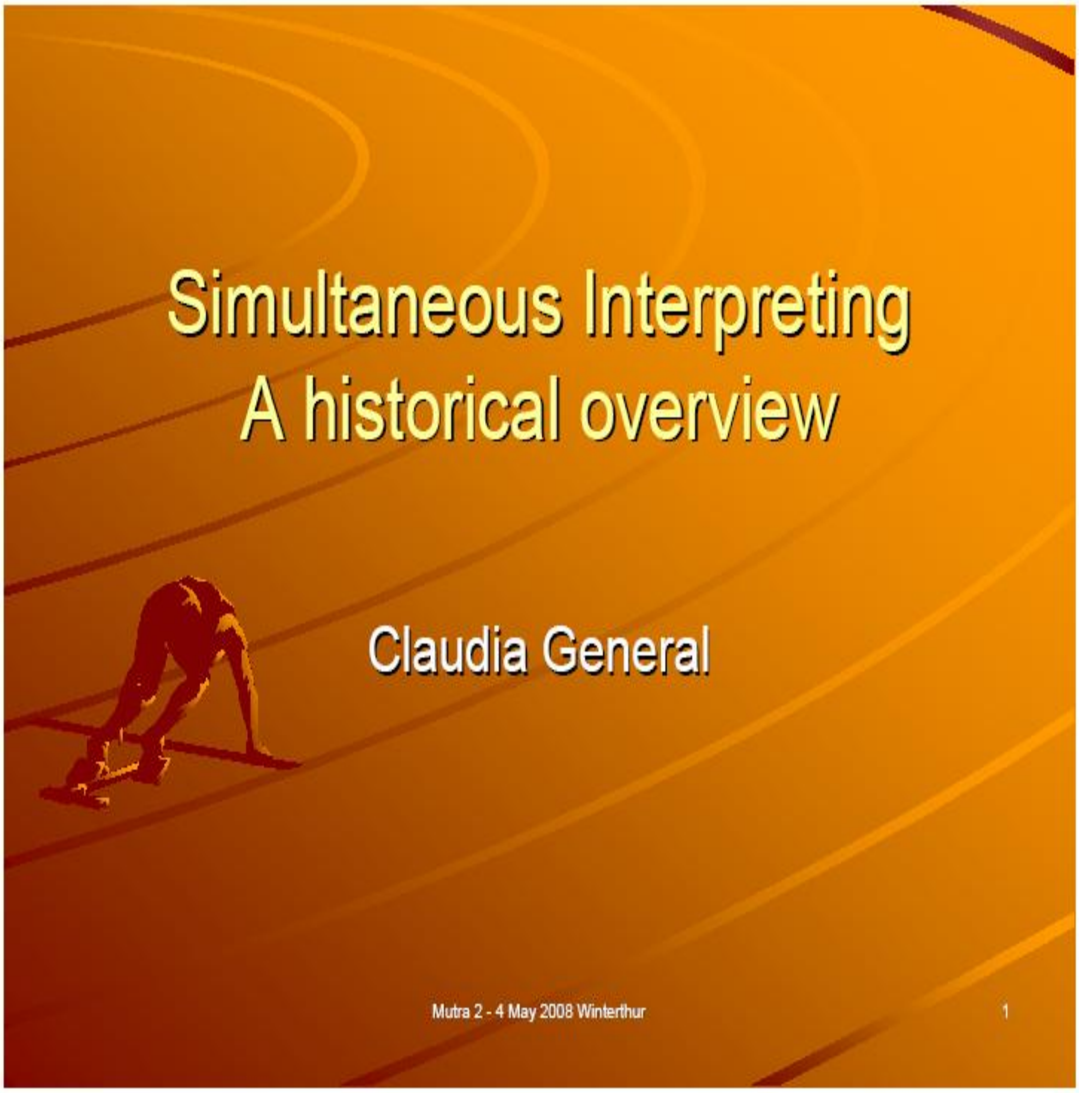
Lecture 2

Theme: Simultaneous translation and Simultaneous translators

Plan:

1. About simultaneous translation
2. History of simultaneous translation
3. About simultaneous translators

Introductory words: interpreter, simultaneous interpreting, Whispered Interpreting, conference interpreters, lead language, simultaneous translator, headphones



Introduction

Translation as an official or professional activity seems to have been in existence since very early times. Some studies have incticated its use even in Ancient Egypt. Interpreters have played important roles in history, during exploration and invasion campaigns,etc.

Recent interest in the field is associated with the emergence of specialized forms of professional interpreting, such as business interpreting, conference interpreting, court interpreting, etc. The problem connected with the simultaneous translation (conference interpreting) from English into Uzbek or from Uzbek into English has not been investigated yet.

This guide will be generally useful for the translation courses in Universities and colleges of higher education. It deals with the translation proceeding from the practical purpose of training students to translation. It includes a useful theoretical material and a set of practical exercises which are intended to learn the basic principles of simultaneous translation for beginning simultaneous translators. This book acquaints students with the basic techniques of simultaneous translation.

However, the textbooks available for such courses are very few. The guide includes exercises to be carried out by the students. Many of these exercises involve translation from or into their mother tongue. The material is presented in such a way that it can be used in self-teaching situation or in a classroom. The first chapter gives an overview presenting the fundamental principles and theory of simultaneous translation and the rest of the book expands and illustrates these principles.

The material presented here is borrowed from the writings of English and American linguists and translators and the guide takes the translation principles explained by them and puts these principles into a new framework as a guide for prospective translators to learn the translation secrets when the langua-ges are non-related (like Uzbek and English).

The author is especially grateful to the colleagues of the Translation Institute in Brussels (Haute Ecole de Bruxelles) and European Commission Education Tempus Program who made many helpful suggestion in the preparation of this guide.

SIMULTANEOUS TRANSLATION THEORY

In simultaneous interpreting, the interpreter sits in an interpreting booth, listening to the speaker through a headset and interprets into a microphone while listening. Delegates in the conference room listen to the target-language version through a headset.

Simultaneous interpreting is also done by signed language interpreters (or interpreters for the deaf) from a spoken into a signed language and vice versa. Signed language interpreters do not sit in the booth; they stand in the conference room where they can see the speaker and be seen by other participants.

Whispered 'interpreting is a form of simultaneous interpreting in which the interpreter does not sit in a booth in the conference room, but next to the delegate who needs the interpreting, and whispers the target- language version of the speech in the delegate's ears.

None of these modes of interpreting is restricted to the conference setting. Simultaneous interpreting, for instance, has been used in large conferences, forums and whispered interpreting may be used in a business meeting.

The conference interpreters, in a way, become the delegates they are interpreting. They speak in the first person when the delegate does so, not translating along the lines of 'He says that he thinks this is a useful idea...' The conference interpreting must empathize with the delegate; put themselves in someone else's shoes.

The interpreter must be able to do this work in two modes: consecutive interpretation, and simultaneous interpretation. In the first of these, the interpreter listens to the totality of speaker's comments, or at least a significant passage, and then reconstitutes the speech with the help of notes taken while listening; the interpreter is thus speaking consecutively to the original speaker. Some speakers prefer to talk for just a few sentences and then invite interpreters. The interpreter can perhaps work without notes and rely solely on their memory to reproduce the whole speech.

However, a conference interpreter should be able to cope with speeches of any length; they should develop the techniques of interpreting.

In practice, if interpreters can do a five-minute speech satisfactorily, they should be able to deal with any length of speech.

It is also clear that conference interpreters work in 'real time'. In simultaneous, by definition, they cannot take longer than the original speaker, except for odd seconds. Even in consecutive they are expected to react immediately after the speaker has finished, and their interpretation must be fast and efficient. This means that interpreters must have the capacity not only to analyze and resynthesise ideas, but also to do so very quickly .

In most cases nowadays simultaneous interpreting is done with the appropriate equipment: delegates speak into microphones, which relay the sound directly to interpreters seated in sound-proofed booths listening to the proceeding through ear-phones; the interpreters in turn speak into a microphone which relay their interpretation dedicated channel to headphones worn by delegates who wish to listen to interpreting. However, in some cases, such equipment is not available, and simultaneous interpreting is whispered. One of the participants speaks and simultaneously an interpreter whispers into the ear of the one or maximum two people who require interpreting services.

Clearly, simultaneous interpreting takes up less time than consecutive. Moreover, with simultaneous it is much more feasible to provide multilingual interpreting, with as six languages (UN) or even eleven (European Union). Given this advantage and widening membership of international organizations, more and more interpreting is being done in simultaneous.

2. History of simultaneous translation

Conference interpreting was born during World War I. Until then, important international meetings were held in French, the international language at the time. During World War I, some high-ranking American and British negotiators did not speak French, which made it necessary to resort to interpreters. Especially after the Nuremberg trials (1945-46) and Tokyo trials (1946-68), conference interpreting became more widespread. It is now used widely, not only at international conferences but also on radio and TV programs.

The first experiment in simultaneous conference interpreting dates back to 1928, the Vlth Comintern Congress. There were no telephones. The speaker's message reached the interpreters' ears directly. The first booth and headphones appeared in 1933 at the Xlllth Plenary Meeting of the Comintern Executive .A group of Russian simultaneous interpreters from Moscow formed part of the conference interpreter's team servicing the Nuremberg Trials and another one participated in the Tokyo Trials of the Japanese war criminals.

The interpreters who worked at those first conferences came out of the Nuremberg Trial Interpretation Service where they had made their debute as simultaneous interpreters. They had been young graduates of the Military Institute of Foreign Languages (established in 1942 on the basis of the Military Department of the Moscow Pedagogical Institute of Foreign Languages), where they were trained as military translators- interpreters (Mishkurov 1997), Moscow Institute of Foreign Languages, Moscow University, and the Institute of Philosophy and Literature (IFLI), as well as several staff members of the Foreign Ministry and the Society for Cultural Exchanges with Foreign Countries took a part in training interpreters (Gofman 1963 .20). Some of the most capable among them formed the first post-war group of free-lance conference interpreters in Russia.

An International Economic Conference serviced with simultaneous interpreting was conducted in 1952 in Moscow, employing over fifty simultaneous interpreters with six conference languages: Russian, English, French, German, Spanish and Chinese. The lead language-changing mode is a purely national system based on one native tongue common to all members of the team of simultaneous interpreters, which in fact serves as a "lead language"

Since 1962 the United Nations Language Training Course in Moscow, at the Maurice Thorez Institute of Foreign Languages, set itself as a school where 5 to 7 simultaneous conference interpreters are trained annually for the Russian Booth of the UN Secretariat in New York, Geneva and Vienna.

A decade later, in 1971, a postgraduate Advanced Translating and Interpreting Schools at the same college introduced a two-year course of simultaneous conference interpretation in A to B and B to A language combination, if so desired by the student.

Simultaneous translation studies began after the invention of the multichannel tape recorder and were done at roughly the same time by several researchers at the end of the sixties and the beginning of the seventies (Henri C.Barik in the United States and Canada 1971; D.Gerver in the United Kingdom 1974; I. A. Zimnyaya in Russia and others.

Shiryayev writes that simultaneous interpretation as a specialized activity consists of Steps or Actions, each of which has several stages. The most important stages are: stage of orientation, stage of the search for, the translation decision and execution stage. When the speaking rate in the source language is slow, enough, stage one of step two follows stage three of step one there is no simultaneity of listening and speaking, in fact.

The simultaneous interpretation is a complex type. It is bilingual, sense- oriented.

Historically, research in conference interpreting can be broken down into four periods; early writings, the experimental period, the practitioner's period and the renewal period.

The early writings period covers the 1950s and early 1960s. During this period, some interpreters and interpreting teachers in Geneva and Brussels started thinking and writing about their profession. These were intuitive and personal publications with practical didactic and professional aims, but they did identify most of the fundamental issues that are still debated today.

The experimental period includes the1960 and early 1970s. A few psychologists and psycholinguists such as Treisman, Oleron and Nanpon, Goldman-Eisler, Gerver, and Barik became interested in interpreting. They undertook a number of experimental studies on specific psychological and psycholinguistic aspects of simultaneous interpreting and studied the effect on performance of variability such as source language, speed of delivery, ear-voice span (i.e. the interval between the moment a piece of information is perceived and the moment it is reformulated in the target language), noise, pauses in speech delivery, etc.

During the practitioner's period, which started in late 1960s and continued into the 1970s and early 1980s, interpreters, and especially interpreters teachers, began to develop an interesting theory. There was much activity in Paris,West Germany, East Germany, Switzerland and other European countries, as well as in Russia, Czechoslovakia and Japan. Most of the research was speculative or theoretical rather than empirical, and most Western authors, except a group at ESIT (Ecole Superieure dTnterpretes et de Traducters) in Paris, worked in relative isolation.

From a cognitive psychological point of view, simultaneous interpretation is a complex human information processing activity composed of a series of independent skills. The interpreter receives a meaning unit. He begins translating and conveying meaning unit 1. At the same time, meaning unit 2 arrives while the interpreter is still involved with the vocalization of meaning unit 1. Thus the interpreter must be able to hold unit 2 in some type of echoic memory or short term memory before interpretation. (Gerver 1971), Furthermore, while conveying unit 1, the interpreter is also verifying and monitoring the correct delivery of that meaning unit. The interpreter has to learn to monitor, store, retrieve, and translate source language input while simultaneously transforming a message into target language output at the same time.

There are, in fact, so many activities involved during simultaneous interpretation. Pedagogical approach should tease these activities apart, differentiate the component skills, and where possible, provide training experiences in each one.

Questions:

1. The interpreter must be able to do this work in two modes. What are they?

2. Shiryayev writes that simultaneous interpretation as…?

3. What do you know about an International Economic Conference which was conducted in 1952 in Moscow?

4. Speak about nowadays simultaneous translation’s equipments?

5. The activities of translator on simultaneous translation?

Literature:

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Lecture 3

Theme: Exercises used in simultaneous Translation

Ped-technologies: pair work

exercises.pptx

Exercise I

Listen in the following figures through headphones in your mother tongue and recall them. Tell your remembered ones.

485 298 843 694 568 39 1 242

116 934 297 369 252 596 879

1251 24865898 7641 3962 8111 1321

11000 18649 31594 43251 50171 36002 52000

Exercise П

Work in pairs. Let one student e[plain the geographical position of the following countries and another one translate his/her speech into uzbek.

Poland,Great Britain, Laos, Haiti, Ireland, Morocco, Bulgaria , Tanzania, Madagascar, Romania, Nigeria, Italy, Sweden, Japan, France, Denmark, Belgium, Kuwait, Switzerland, the Netherlands, Afghanistan, Russia, Guinea, Yemen, Tunisia, Czechoslovakia, Argentina, Somalia, Turkey, Philippines, Uganda, Mongolia

Exercise III

Listen in the following through the headphones in English and shadow them in English.

Польша, Буюк Британия, Лаос, Гаити, Ирландия, Марокко Болгария, Танзания, Мадагаскар, Руминия, Нигерия, Италия Швеция, Япония, Франция, Дания, Бельгия, Кувейт, Швейцария, Нидерландия, Афгонистон, Россия, Гвинея, Яман

Тунис, Чехословакия, Аргентина, Сомали, Туркия, Филиппин, Уганда, Монголия.

Exercise IV

Speak about the customs and traditions of the following people.

Polish, British, Laotian, Haitian, Irish, Moroccan, Bulgarian, Tanzanian, Madagascar, Roumanian, Nigerian, Italian, Swedish Japanese, French, Danish, Dutch, Afghan, Swiss, Belgic, Kuwait

Russian, Guinean, Yemeni, Turkish, Czechoslovak Argentinean/Argentine, Ugandan, Mongolian, Mongolic/Mongol

Exercise V

Practice your memory training exercise with your class-mate.

поляк, инглиз, лаос, гаити, ирланд, **марокка,** болгар, **Танзания** Мадагаскар, румин, Нигерия, итальян, швед, япон, француз, дания, бельгия, кувайт, Швейцария, голланд, афгон, рус, Гвинея, яман, тунис, чех, аргентин, сомали, турк, Филиппин, уганд, монгол,

Exercise VI

1. Listen in the following words and word combinations through headphones and guess their translation . 2. Try to find which of them can be substituted by Uzbek words and word combinations in exercise VII.

economic reform, legal basis, the privatization of state property, integration with the world economic community, reliable social guarantees, spiritual and moral rejuvenation of nation, social foundation of economic reform, securing economic and sociao-political independence, achieving macro-economic stabilization.

Land; dry land; earth; ground; crust; earth's crust; continent; territory; peninsular; island; terrain; heights; highland; lowland; shore; coast; coastline; seashore; region; continental shelf

Ocean; Atlantic o.; Pacific o.; Indian o.; Arctic o.; Antarctic o.; sea; salt water; deep sea; high seas; ocean floor; sea bed; sea bottom; waves; tide; high tide; low tide; ebb; sea lane; *ocean going* vessels; maritime; transportation; seafaring; seafaring nations; coastal states; land-locked countries; archipelago states.

Exercise VII

1. Translate the following words and word groups into English.
2. Make an edited sensible text in English out of them.
3. Ask your class- mate to translate simultaneously while you are reading your text.

^и^щсодий ислохотлар, хукукий негизлар, давлат мулкини хусу- сийлаштириш, жахон и**ктисодий** хамжамиятига куцщдщц, ишончли ижтимоий кафолатлар, халкнинг маънавий рухий тикланиши; икти- содий ислохотларнинг иктисодий негизи; иктисодий ва ижтимоий- **сиёсий баркарорликни таъминлаш; макро-иктисодиётни баркарор- лаштиришга эришиш.**

Ер, кур у клик, ур юзи; китьа; майдон (территория); ярим орол; орол; жой; баландлик; тепалик; пастлик; киргок; киргок буйи; киргок буйлаб; денгиз буйи; туман; минтакавий шельф.

Океан; Атлантика океан; Тинч океани; Х,инд океани; Шимолий муз океани; Антарктикани ювиб турадиган; денгиз; денгиз суви; очик денгиз; чу кур денгиз, океан туби; денгиз туби; тулкин; куюлиш; су в кайтиши; денгиз йули; океан кемалари; денгиз транспорти; денгизда сузиш; денгиз хукмронлиги; денгизбуйи давлатлари; денгизга чика олмайдиган давлатлар; оролда жойлашган мамлакатлар; архипелаг давлатлар.

Exercise VIII

Guess what word is omitted:

Wednesday is a busy day for the Tati discount... on the Rude de Rennes in Paris. School is... that afternoon, and mothers, particularly those with modest incomes.

.... to Tati with their children in search of bargains.

...........the sidewalk in front of the store was busting

.... week at 5:28 p.m., when two black-moustachedmen in

...........black BMW drove past.

(last, fiock, store, a, out, thus)

Exercise IX

Read over the following passage and work at the vocabulary. Now eliminate the preparation time and begin sight translating immediately without even having read the text.

Dear friends!

Now, let us look at regional technical secondary schools. At present 280,000 of the youth study at them. To examine their activity critically, I think, we all must know about their poor material and technical basis, the quality of acquired knowledge very narrow special education and low professional level of teachers and educators. This shows that these schools don't answer the requirements of our time.

Exercise X

Translate into English listening in the following passage through headphones.

Азиз дустлар!

Энди укув тизимининг навбатдаги боскичига - вилоятлар ва туманларда жойлашган хунар-техника билим юртларига бир назар ташласак. Бугунги кунда уларда 280 мингга якин угил кизларимиз таълим олмоада, Уларнинг фаолиятига ганкидий куз билан **Караганда** моддий техника базасининг ночорлиги, улар бераётган билим ва тарбиянинг сифати укувчилар олаётган жуда тор ихтисос мутахас- сислиги, шу билан бирга, навбатчи тарбиячи укитувчилар малака- сининг пастлиги, бу билим юртларнинг умуман бугунги кун талабига жавоб бермаслиги барчамиз учун аник булиши керак, деб уйлайман.

Exercise XI

Search the Uzbek equivalents for the following words and word combination from exercise XII and learn them by heart.

In consequence of, for reasons of space, in view of the fact that, whereas while, of special interest is, it might be well to do smth, in passing, successfully, sequentially; radically or fundamentally new, accomplishing the execution; bring about or be performed.

Exercise XП

1. Make up sentences using the following word combinations.
2. Ask your class-mate to translate your sentences into English.

окибатда, жой етмаслигини хисобга олиб, куринишидан маъ- лумки, худди шу пайтда, алохида кизикиш уйготади, фойдали булар эди, йул-йулакай, кетма-кет, катъийан янги, бунёд этиш, руёбга чикармок-

Exercise XIII

Listen in the following speech through headphones, find the key words, guess the main idea of the speech and translate into Uzbek trying to sequence the ideas

Ladies and Gentlemen!

The 20th century in the life of human life countries and nations is coming to an end. I am absolutely sure that many of us, living in Uzbekistan apart from the current problems of the realities of today, are thinking about who and what we are in this world, where we are going, where and what our place will be when mankind enters the new 21 century. It is important to be aware and make an assessment of the peculiarity of the period in which we are living, the historical significance for the present and future of those changes that have taken place recently in the world and that have radically transformed the geopolitical structure and the map of the world.

Exercise XIV

Work in pairs. Ask your class-mate to translate simultaneously while you are reading the following text.

Хонимлар ва жаноблар!

Инсоният мамлакатлар ва халклар хаётида 20 аср ноёнига етмок- да. Ишончим комилки, бизни - хозирги Узбекистонда истикомат килувчштарнинг купчилиги тирикчилик ташвишлари - чин вокеълик муаммолари билан бирга. «Бу ёруг оламда биз киммиз, не бир сир синоатимиз цаёкца караб кетаяпмиз? Инсоният янги - 21 асрга цадам куйганда бизни урнимиз цаерда ва кандай булади?» - деган саволлар уйлантириши табиий.

Биз яшаётган давр кандай хусусиятларга эга? Сунгги вактларда жах,онда юз берган дунёнинг жугрофий-сиёсий тузилишини ва хари- тасини тубдан янгилаган узгаршплар х,озирги замон ва келажак учун кандай тарихий ащамиятга молик. Булар хдкида муло^аза юритиш ва уларга тугри бах,о бериш жуда мухим.

Exercise XV

Listen in the following speech through headphones translate the main points of the passage into Uzbek simultaneously without distorting the original meaning of the speaker s speech.

Dear Friends!

In the history of our people there started quite a new are. The way of development of our country has been definitely specified. This way has been recognized by the people themselves who cast their votes the independence, sovereignty of Uzbekistan, market relation and radical changes at large, who have given their support to all foregoing. Unanimity and adherence of the people prove to be our great victory. The people look trustfully and hopefully at their elected deputies, the member of their Government and all those who bear exclusive responsibility for the fate of the reforms. So, dear friends, let us be worthy of our people's high trust and confidence.

Exercise XVI

Translate the main ideas of the passage into English simultaneously. Try not depart from the original.

Азиз хамшахарлар!

Тошкент -Узбекистоннинг куркидир. Уни жахоннинг энг гузал шахарларидан бирига айлантириш сиз билан бизнинг мукаддас ва шон-шараф ишимиздир.

Муваккат иктисодий кийинчиликларга карам ас дан, Тошкенти- **миз**-жоножон пойтахтимизнинг муаммо-юмушларини хал килишда, мушукул ишни енгиллаштиришда хеч ким мехнатини аямайди деб ишонаман.

Тошкент шахар согликни саклаш тизимида 60 та станционар ва 156 та амбулатория-поликника мавжуд булиб уларнинг 3 % ханузга- ча марказий иситиш тармогига уланмаган. Шахарда карийиб 52 % тиббиий "тез тибиий" шифокорлари, участка терапиевти, педиатр етишмайди. Натижада, "тез ёрдамни" соатлаб кутилади. Бунинг усти- т, уларнинг машинаси ишламайди, телефони ишламайди, турли туман бахоналари эса бехисоб.

Таълим ва кадрлар тайёрлаш сохасида маркетингни ривожлантириш йули билан таълим хизмати курсатиш ракобагга асосланган бозори шакллантирилади. Давлат ва нодавлат муассасалари ривож- лантирилади, таълим ва кадрлар тайёрлаш сохасида ракобатга асосланган мухит вужудга келтирилади. Таълим хизмати курсатиш бозори давлат йули бошкариб борилади. Асосий таълим дастурларида назарда тутилмаган консултатив ва купшмча таълим хизматларидан иборат пуллик таълим хизмати курсатиш тизими ривожлантирилади.

Exercise XVTI

Grasp the short information from the speech and translate it simultiniously

Замонавий ахборот технология л ар и, комютерлаштириш ва комтотерлар тармоклари негизида таьълим жараёнини ахборот билан таъминлаш ривожлантириб боради. Таълим жараёнида оммавий ахборот воситаларининг мавкеи ошиб боради. Телевидения ва радионинг таълим дастурлари интеллектуаллашуви таъминланади. Фан ва таъ- лимнинг нашриёт базаси ривожлантирилади, укув, укув-услубий, илмий, комусий адабиётлар ва маълумотлар билан таъминлашнинг баркарор тизими шакллантирилади.

Азиз дустлар!

Аввало, фурсатдан фойдаланиб, сиз деиутатлар ва сизнинг сий- монгизда пойтахгимиз- Тошкентнинг барча фаоларига ва мехнаткаш- ларига юкса хурмат - эхтиромни изх,ор этмокчиман.

Даётимиздаги узгаришлар, ютукларимиз, шу билан бирга, катта- катта муаммоларимиз, ташки ва ички сиёсатиимзнинг одимларидан хабардорсиз, албатта. Мамлакатимиз менаткашлари келажакларини, такдирларини уз куллари билан бунсд этмокдалар. Мустакиллигимиз эълон килииадиган буён утган давр нисбатан киска булсада, халкимиз ва давлатимиз ?арихида гоят катга ижтимоий-сиёсий ва иктисодий узгаришлар юз беради.

Exercise XVIII

Learn the following Uzbek verbose correspondences to English words in brackets.

Ташкилотлар - узаро фойда куриш учун ишлашлари **(cooperation)**

Унумли бирга ишлашлари учун ишни хар хдя турларини ташкил этиш ва режа ту з иш **(coo rdi nate)**

Кийин вазиятда ёки ишда муваффакиятга эришмок, уддасидан чикмок(cope)

Эркак ва аёлларнинг турмуш куришларидан аввалги юрган пайтлари **(courtship)**

Телевизор ва радио оркали бериладиган биророта нарса хдкидаги янгилик(coverage)

Бирорта нарсани эх,тиёткорлик билан кудда ушлаш**(1o cradle)**

Кйшиларнинг бир- бирлари билан жуда нохуш бахслашган пайтлари **(dogfight)**

Кучи ва мавкеига караб киши л ар устидан салбий назорат килиш **(dominate)**

Exercise XIX

Translate the following text into English using instead of verbose Uzbek word groups the English words below simultaneously

Бизнинг ташкилотимиз АКД1 фирмапари билан узаро фойда куриш учун ишни бошлаб юборишди. Унумли бирга ишлаш учун ишнинг хар х,ил турларини ташкил этишмокда ва режалар тузилмок- да. Телевизор ва радио оркали берилаётган янгиликларда бизнинг му- ваффакиятларимиз ёритиб берилаяпти, хар кандай кийин вазиятда ёки ишимнзда муваффакиятга эришиш учун харакат кдлинаяпти. Бу муваффакиягларни биз эхтиёткорона кулда ушлашга харакат килаяп- миз.

(cooperation, cope, coordinate, coverage, cradle)

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Lecture 4

Theme: Translation of words and word combinations. Abbreviations

Plan:

1. Formulation of Abbreviations.
2. Translating Abbreviations.
3. Conclusion.

Introductory words: abbreviation, Below are some abbreviation styles, UNO, USAID, IMF, AU TV, VCD, DVD, *Borrowed Acronyms,* Acronyms by Inversion of Order, Acronyms by Replaced Initials.

Abbreviation.pptx Introduction

THe task of translation, which is the rendering of the message of a text from one language to another spans three levels of language science: linguistics, extra linguistics and met linguistics. The present study mainly concerns the linguistic level. As language study at this level can also be subdivided into three different areas, namely, syntax, lexis, and semantics, our emphasis here is on lexis which has to do with the vocabulary of a language. Oftentimes, lexis and semantics are linked together, in which case we can speak of lexica-semantics. Issues on synonymy, homonymy, polysemy etc. are located at this level. It can be noted that even cases of homonymy (though rare) also occur with acronyms. For instance, PO could mean post office, postal order, petty officer etc. while in French, BIT (Bureau international du travail) and OIT (Organization international du travail) could be synonyms, i.e. signifying the same concept. There are also other French homonymous acronyms such as PJ (pieces joints), PJ (Police judiciary); RN (Route nationally), RN (Revenue national).

For years, however, the emphasis in linguistic studies has been on phonology, morphology and syntax. In the preface to Jean Tournier's *Précis de lexicology anglaise*, David Crystal states that "the contrasts of semantics are less discrete, less determinant and their analysis has been often neglected."(3) Lexicography, which should not be mistaken for a mere list of words, "...makes the student get to grips with realities of language use in a way that no other linguistics topic can."(3) This may be because lexicography also has to do with the techniques of forming words and expressions from the basic lexical units, *'lexies primaries.'* The lexis of a language grows at a constant rate, which Tournier estimated at approximately 600 words yearly. This could create difficulties for a translator who is not abreast of the constant evolution, as it takes a while for some of these neologisms to find their way into dictionaries. With the emergence of modern information and communication technology, in particular the internet and mobile telephony, there could be so many abbreviations, such as HTML, FAQ, SMS, which are already used in various languages before they are entered into dictionaries. If abbreviations can constitute difficulties for the translator, one could then imagine the situation of the conference interpreter doing his job in the booth, and all of a sudden he is bombarded with a succession of abbreviations from the speaker.

Meanwhile, the formation of abbreviations follows certain patterns, which, if the translator is familiar with them, could leave him stress-free when faced with such a sequence of letters. According to Tournier, there are up to thirty types of abbreviations. Some of these shall be considered, along with how they become reformulated when translating into French, and some of the frequently used international abbreviations are listed by categories in the annex.

The use of abbreviations is a relatively new linguistics phenomenon. The art of reducing a sequence of words to their initial letters became well developed in the late 50s and 60s. This phenomenon portrays the characteristics of the modern era, in which technical and scientific discoveries are developing fast along with all manner of organizations and institutions. Although the word initialism first occurred in the *Oxford English Dictionary* in 1899, the first acronym was only included in 1943.

Abbreviations often occur as names of professions, art groups and especially as organizations and associations—UNO, USAID, IMF, AU, etc. They also appear as names of appliances, such as TV, Fridge, VCD, DVD, etc., vehicles and on vehicle license plates. Here in Nigeria, national organizations are often called by their abbreviations. We have a series of recently created abbreviations especially with the advent of telecommunication companies in the field of mobile telephony such as MTN, Vmobile, Glo, MTS. All these have become household names without anyone caring to know what they stand for; they are simply brand names of telephone companies. Abbreviations are also found in literary works; e.g., viz, AD, i.e., DV, pm, am, PTO, PS, etc. Another area where abbreviations abound is in academic certificates and names of educational institutions such as B.A, B.S., M.Phil., Ph.D,. etc.

Formulation of Abbreviations

As abbreviations often occur with frequently used long terms for which short terms are more convenient, they aim at facilitating pronunciation and writing, typing, or printing. This, however, doesn't prevent some cynics from alleging that abbreviations are used to render terms obscure. They may occur in the following ways:

First, at the level of pronunciation, Tournier observes: "abbreviations are pronounced letter by letter, because they do not conform to the morphological-phonetical constraints that exist for words." (142) This is why abbreviations such as CPU, LFC, FLCM, etc. are pronounced letter by letter. He states further: "but when it forms a set that corresponds to an existing or possible morphological-phonetical model, it tends to be pronounced as a word." (142) Examples of pronounceable acronyms are UNESCO, UNICEF and OPEC.

Abbreviations have been written using a period to mark the part that was deleted. In the case of most acronyms, each letter is its own abbreviation, and in theory should have its own period. This usage is however becoming outdated as the use of capital letters is sufficient to indicate that the word is abbreviated. Nevertheless some popular style guides still insist on the multiple periods style with unpronounceable abbreviations, such as USA, but not with pronounceable ones such as RAM. Reduction of a single word to its initial: C (caution) D (Deutschland), usually on imported used vehicles, X (l'écoles polytéchnique, Paris), nickname for the top polytechnic school in Paris

Below are some abbreviation styles:

1. Reduction of a single word to its initial: C (caution) D (Deutschland), usually on imported used vehicles, X (l'écoles polytéchnique, Paris), nickname for the top polytechnic school in Paris
2. Reduction of a group of words to the first two letters of each concept: Soweto (South Western Township).
3. Reduction of concept of a group to equivalent of a syllable: Comsat (communication satellite), USENET (User Network)
4. Reduction of the initial of just one word of the group: O level (Ordinary level).
5. Transcription of the abbreviation: emcee for MC (Master of ceremonies) deejay for DJ (Disc jockey)
6. Reduction of a group to the initial of the first concept and the first syllable of the second: M. Tech (Master of Technology)
7. Preserving a conjunction: D and D (Drunk and Disorderly)
8. Preserving the abbreviation in its original language: FAO (Food and Agriculture Organization), also FAO in French, FIFA (Fédération internationale de football), also FIFA in English

Generally, initials of short function words (and, or, of, to) are not included in abbreviations, except to make such acronyms pronounceable.

Lastly, some abbreviations are assimilated into ordinary words and are found written in low case and with time, people forget that they were acronyms. Good examples are: laser (light amplification by stimulated emission of radar) and scuba (self-contained underwater breathing apparatus).

Translating Abbreviations

This form of translation could be regarded as reformulation of abbreviations of one language to another. In most cases the order of initials change due to difference in the grammatical structure of the languages involved; e.g. UNO (ONU). At times, initials may be completely replaced; ISP (Internet Service Provider)—FAT (Fournisseur d'accès à l'internet). Still in other cases, they are reformulated into full words: WIA (Wounded In Action): les blessés de guerre. Some others are simply acquired into the target language as borrowed acronyms: laser

Following the above mentioned categories, a list of common international acronyms figures in the annex, especially those from international institutions, EU, UNESCO, WHO, and not leaving out acronyms of interstate and private persons organization, such as NGO and those of multinationals. Also, in this stage of modern InfoTech, this vocabulary would not be complete without some internet acronyms. They are categorized in 3 (three) groups: A Borrowed acronyms, B Inversion of order of letters and C Replaced initials.

A. Borrowed Acronyms

These are the acronyms that are identical in the two languages: English and French. These occur for the same reason that brings about the use of borrowed terms or loan words generally.

The issue of borrowed terms may be explained through one of the techniques of translation. Borrowed words usually arise from language contact of various linguistic communities. This may be due to wars, colonization, trade, etc., or for a need to maintain originality or local nuance of the SL text in the TL text or for simple stylistic reason which is the case with journalists. And at times it is simply the case of a weaker culture being subsumed by the stronger one. This is the case with most of the modern IT acronyms. That is why in French we have acronyms such as CDROM, DVD, FTP (File Transfer Protocol), email, even though the acronym curial (for e-mail) now exists in French.

B. Acronyms by Inversion of Order

Some acronyms have the same letters in both English and French but not in the same order. For instance we have AIDS: SIDA, AU: UA, NGO: ONG, etc. The reason for this can be explained by the translation technique of transposition which has to do with the replacement of one grammatical unit or part of speech by another. This is inevitable since the grammatical structure differs from language to language. This difference is particularly highlighted in the position of adjective as regards French and English languages. Whereas in English, qualifying adjectives always precede their nouns, it is the opposite in French except for a few but frequently occurring adjectives. This explains why we have the following acronyms :

English French

AU (African [adjective] Union [noun]) — UA (Union [noun] Africaine [adjective])

IMF (International [adjective] Monetary [adjective] Funds [noun]) — FMI (Fond [noun] monetary [adjective] international [adjective])

From the above, it can be noted that the words involved in the two languages are similar, which explains why the same initial letters occur in the acronym translation. On the other hand, the grammatical rules of the two languages mandate a different order or nouns and adjectives.

C. Acronyms by Replaced Initials

In this third group, the acronyms adopt entirely different initials because the equivalents of the words being reduced to initials are different in the other language. At this level, we have acronyms such as ILO (International Labor Organization) becoming OIT (Organization international du travail); WHO (World Health organization) becomes OMS (Organization mandible de la santé); UFO (Unidentified Flying Object) becomes OVNI (Objet Volant non identifier) etc.

At this juncture, it should be noted that for varied reasons some initials are rendered as full words in another language; e.g. POW (Prisoners of War) is *les prisoners de guerre*. In French you always hear of TGV (Train à Grande vitesse) whereas in English this acronyms simply translates to *high speed train*. And SVP (*s'il vous plait*) is simply rendered as *please* in English.

Of course, being conversant in the above-stated rules and techniques is not the only thing needed to confront problems of abbreviation, but their knowledge can be of great help to the translator. The remaining problems can then be solved by consulting the necessary translation tools which range from hard-copy dictionaries, glossaries etc. to online ones, such as the Acronym Finder (http://www.acronymfinder.com), which has over 470,000 definitions and, for specifically technical terms, Wiley Inter Science Acronym Finder (http://www3.interscience.wiley.com/stasa/search.html). Above all, the translator needs a broad and deep general culture.

Conclusion

It is often said that some of the essential qualities of a good translator are: sound knowledge of his working languages and general knowledge. Furthermore, it is recommended that the translator should work into his mother tongue or first language. In fact this is a prerequisite for gaining employment into international organizations. This implies that the translator is deemed to be naturally more fluent in his first language which is supposed to be the language of his immediate environment for his formative years. Meanwhile, regarding translation of abbreviations to borrow the expression of E.B. Sgarbossa in her article in 2005 August edition of the *ATA Chronicle*, the "source language may turn out to be the source of trouble."

As mentioned earlier, abbreviations often stand for names of organizations, associations, and educational institutions. Mastery of the language of the target text may not be as important in this case as familiarity with the source-language culture. For instance, abbreviations of multinationals, such as P&G (Procter and Gamble) G.E. (General Electric) would be easily comprehensible to an Anglophone American translator, but as he should be translating into French he would be confronted with abbreviations such as BN (Bibliothèque Nationale) FO (Force Ouvrière), etc. which are promptly discernible to a francophone translator. The difficulty is even higher with abbreviations of multinationals.

In the field of education, one can find plenty of local abbreviations denoting either names of institutions or degrees. For instance, as a Nigerian, I know that names of National universities are usually abbreviated to begin with the prefix Uni-, Unilag (University of Lagos), Unilorin (University of Ilorin), and state-owned universities end with the suffix -su, Lagos State University (LASU), Edo State University (EDSU), etc. But as I normally translate into French, I will be confronted with abbreviations such as HEC (Ecole des hautes études commerciales) LEP (Lycée d'enseignement professionel), etc. These are issues in the field of cultural references. This is the point Michel Ballard was raising in *La traduction de l'anglais au français*, when he said:

From the above quotation: SAT was not found in the [French-]English dictionary, but it was in Webster's, since it is related to American culture. In spite of the cultural issues, to deal with problems of abbreviations a good translator must have the latest information worldwide at his disposal, through reading of newspapers, journals, international magazines, the consulting of which has been facilitated by the Internet. And of course while on the job, there are also popular online dictionaries, as earlier mentioned in this paper, to get around the complex task of translating acronyms.

Another useful tool for the translator to have at his disposal a glossary of abbreviations of the subject field he is working on. In some cases; the translator may also have to consult his client or the author or the source text for more clarification of the terms. In summary, one last exit route for the translator (especially if he is going from English into French), is to simply render the acronyms as borrowed concepts, as they figure in the original text. In this era of globalization, the issue of translating acronyms is becoming less emphasized due to the constantly widening vocabulary, thanks to the modern information technology. We are being faced with a deluge of new acronyms daily and before these get officially translated from English into French, the French speaker is already using the English acronym and is used to it.

Finally, since English seems to be the language of the global world, it is natural for the acronyms to get 'osmosed' into different languages and thus used. This is common with internet-related acronyms and other terms such as net 2 phone, CDROM, FAQ, email.

Borrowed Acronyms

Ack	-Acknowledgemen tan olmoq
API	-Application Program Interface -Dasturning dasturiy muloqati
ASEAN	- Association of South East Asian nations Shimoliy Sharqiy Osiyo davlatlari rlashmasi
CDROM	- Computer Disc/Read only Memory Kompyuter diski
CEIC	- European Chemical Industry Council - Yevropa Kimyoviy ishlab chiqarish konsulligi
CFC	-Chlorofluorocarbon Freon moddasi

Acronyms by Inversion of Order of Letters

AIDS	- Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
	Orttirilgan immunitet tanqisligi sindromi
A.U	- African Union
	Afrika birlashmasi
U.A	- Union Africaine
	Birlashgan afrikaliklar
EBRD	- European Bank for Reconstruction and evelopment
	Yevropa taraqqiyot va rivojlanish banki

Acronyms by Replaced Initials

ECB	- European Chemicals Bureau
	Yevropa kimyo uyishmasi
GINC	Global Information Network – Chemicals
	Global kimyo ma'lumotlar tarmog'i

Questions:

1. What are abbreviations?

2. Which method are used on translating abbreviation?

3. How many types of abbreviation?

4. What is Borrowed Acronyms?

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Lecture 5

Theme: Pragmatic problems of Simultaneous Translation. Pragmatic adaptation in translation

Plan:

1. Translation and interpreting
2. Problems in translation.
2.1. Grammatical problems of simultaneous translation
2.2. Pragmatic adaptation in translation.

Introductory words: Translation and interpreting, grammatical problems, pragmatic adaptation, logical consequence, logical cause, and sequential ideas, lexical equivalences of O. Kade.

It is necessary to clarify the general principles of translation in order to describe the basic ways of simultaneous translation from English into Uzbek.

Translation is the replacement of a representation of a text in one language by a representation of an equivalent text in a second language. Text in different languages can be equivalent in different degree (full or partially equivalent), in respect of different levels of presentation (equivalent in respect of context, of grammar, of lexis, etc.) and at different ranks (word- for word, phrase -for - phrase, sentence- for - sentence).

Languages are different from each other, they are different in form having distinct codes and rules regulating the construction of grammatical structures of a language and these forms have different meanings.

Language is a formal structure, a code which consists of elements and can combine to signal semantic 'sense' and, at the same time, a communication system which uses the forms of the code to refer to entities (in the world of the senses and the world of the mind) and create signals which possess communicative 'value'.

The translator has the option, then, of focusing on finding formal equivalents which preserve the context- free semantic sense of the text at the expense of its context- sensitive communicative value or finding functional equivalents.

The choice (and it goes back to classical times; Cicero 46BC) is between translating word for word (literal translation) or meaning for meaning (free translation).

To specify the choices which are available to the communicator and the functions of such choices is needed. (See Susan Bassnett - Mc Guire, 1982).

We must work out not only the semantic sense of each word or a sentence in the text but also communicative value, its place in time and space and information about the participants involved in its production and reception. Putting questions to the semantic sense of the text we can reveal semantic components of a text. Their names are What? And Why? And When? And How? And Where? And Who?

Each of these questions defines one (or more) parameters of variation:

What? is the message contained in the text: the content of the signal; the content of the speech acts.

Why? orients us towards the intention and the purpose of the text. So our task as receivers of texts is to tease out the primary function from those which are secondary.

When? is concerned with the time of the communication realized in the text and setting it in its historical context; contemporary or set in the recent or remote past or future.

How? is ambiguous, since it can refer to:

(a) manner of delivery: serious, irony etc.

(b) medium of communication: the mode of the discourse; the channel(s)-verbal/non-verbal speech/ writing-selected to carry the signal.

Where? is concerned with the place of the communication; the physical location of the speech event realized in the text.

Who? refers to the participants in the communication; the sender and receiver. Both spoken and written texts will reveal, to greater or lesser extent, characteristics of the speaker or writer as an individual and also, attitude the sender adopts in relation to the receiver and to the message being transmitted.

Thus, the speaker should focus on each message: who the sender of the message is, the intention or purpose of the speaker , when and where the action is taken place and how the message is delivered.

To express ideas clearly and effectively, you must first have them clear in your own mind. It follows that if you wish to re-express someone else's ideas without having the possibility of repeating them words for word - which is the case for the interpreter - then you must make a clear, structured analysis of them. And making that analysis you have to understand the individual ideas that are the basic building blocks of a speaker's speech.

We must understand not of words but of ideas, for it is ideas that have to be interpreted. Obviously, you cannot understand ideas if you do not know the words the speaker is using to express them, or if you are not acquainted sufficiently with the grammar and syntax of the speaker's language to follow the ideas.

In connection with the notion of 'not knowing words', it is best to address here what is probably one of the two commonest questions put to conference interpreters by non-interpreters: "what do you do if they do not know a word or an expression that you hear in a speech?"

The answer to this has already been partially given, that the interpreter has to understand ideas, not words. It may well be perfectly possible to understand a speaker's speech without actually understanding every single word and expression be used and without having to reproduce all of those terms in the interpretation. For example, imagine that a detegate says:

"I don't think that the advisory committee is the appropriate forum for discussion of this point. What is important is that the groundwork be done in the technical working parties, in order to prepare the basis for a decision in the executive committee".

Let's assume that the interpreter understands neither "forum" nor "groundwork". Yet this does not prevent them from understanding that the advisory committee is not the right place to discuss the matter, and the question has to be properly prepared for the executive committee by the technical working parties. The interpretation is possible without all the words and without changing the meaning.

There are other occasions, however, where a word is too important. For example: "Given the topography of the country, the construction of motorway has been very expensive. The Norwegians have found the solution to their financing problems by imposing tolls. And these tolls are pretty expensive. The roads are wonderfully built, a pleasure to drive upon, with beautiful scenery, but when the poor driver gets to the end of the journey and has to pay the toll, he certainly feels that his money is little".

The key word here is "toll", and if the interpreter does not know it he can hardly avoid it. But the interpreter can also benefit from working in consecutive. By the time they start interpreting they will have heard the whole speech, and should have been able to deduce the meaning of "toll" from context. Thus, again, it is possible for the interpreter to work satisfactorily, indeed in this case totally accurately, without their having known in advance all the vocabulary used by the speaker.

Two further points should be made here. First, interpreters must accept that there are times when they do not know a word or an expression, can neither avoid it nor deduce its meaning from context, and are consequently stuck.

On the other hand, the interpreter does not have the right to "betray" the delegates by missing things out *or* guessing at meanings in order to hide their ignorance. In order to understand meaning without knowing all the lexical items, and still more in order to deduce meaning from context, the interpreters must in any case have a thorough knowledge of their foreign language.

Second, there may be a logical cause, as in "The American government has been exerting greater pressure on the Columbian authorities, because the illegal import and consumption of cocaine for that country are again on the increase." The interpreter must likewise remember all words like "as", "since" or "due to".

Third, ideas may be sequential, following on the one another, but without logical cause or consequence. In such cases sentences may be simply juxtaposed or the ideas linked with the word "and". Here it must be noted that when ideas are simply juxtaposed-where the link is what we might call a 'zero link' the interpreter must not fall into the trap of creating another link artificially. Although key words such as "because" and "therefore" should not be omitted, to create a link where there is not in the original is an equally serious mistake.

The basic types of links are **logical consequence, logical cause, and sequential ideas.** They may be linked by certain form of speech that the interpreter should know. Sequential link is particularly important.

So, you cannot understand ideas if you do not know the word the speaker is using to express them or if you are not acquainted sufficiently with the grammar and syntax of the speaker's language to follow the ideas.

In order to attain the fullest information from one language into another one lexical and grammatical substitutions are very helpful.

By substitution we understand the replacement of one part of speech by another or one form of a word by another one, a word or, a word group by its synonym.

In the process of simultaneous translation words and word groups with <u>common semantic component</u> may be substituted by one another because they make the interpreting easy. If an interpreter forgets one he recalls the other.The substitution of words with common semantic component by each other doesn't influence on the general sense of speaker's speech in translation. Example:

Whole, wholeness, fullness, completeness, unity, whole number, ensemble, complex, totality, sum, universality etc;

Conference, talks, symposims, seminar gathering, exchage of views, assembly, council, round table conference, session, meeting, etc; agreement, uniformity, mutual understanding, convention, consensus, conformity, cooperation, joint effort, collaboration etc.

Some linguists define translation in terms of equivalents relations (Catford 1965;Nida and Taber, 1969; Toury, 1980; Pym, 1992, 1995; Koller, 1995) while others reject the theoretical notion of equivalence, claiming it is either irrelevant (Shell-Hornby 1988) or damaging (Gentzler 1993) translation studies. Yet other scientists are a middle position. Baker uses the notion of equivalence 'for the sake of convenience- because most translators are used to it rather than because it has not any theoretical status' (1992: 5-6). Thus, equivalence is variously regarded as a necessary condition for translation, an obstacle to progress in translation studies, or a useful category for describing translations.

The equivalence is the relationship between a source text and a target text that allows the target text to be considered as a translation of the source text in the first place. The above definition of equivalence is not unproblematic, equivalence is supposed to define translation, and translation, in turn, defines equivalents.

Unfortunately, few attempts have been made to define equivalence in translation.

Linguists who maintain that translation is predicated upon some kind of equivalence have, for the most part, concentrated on developing typologies of equivalence, focusing on the rank (word, sentence or text level) at which equivalents are said to obtain (see, Baker 1992) or on the type of meaning (denotatjve, connotative, program atic, etc.) that said to be held constant in translation. Investigations of the essential nature of equivalents remain the exception.

At various levels, and loosely following Koller (1979:187-91, 1989: 100-4), equivalence is commonly established on the basis of; the source language and target language words supposedly referring to the same thing in the real world, i.e. on the basis of their referential or denotative equivalence; the source language and target language world triggering the same similar associations in the minds of native speaker of the two languages, i.e. their connotative equivalence; the source language and target language words being used in the same or similar contexts in their respective languages, i.e. what Koller (1989:102) calls text-normative equivalence: the source language and target language words having the same effect on their respective readers, i.e. pragmatic (Koller 1989: 102) or dynamic equivalence (Nida 1964); the source language and target language words having similar orthographic or phonological features, or formal equivalence.

Baker (1992) extends the concept of equivalence to cover similarity in source text and target text information flow and source text and target text device's play in their respective texts. She calls these two factors combined textual equivalence.

Newman (1994: 46 95) stresses that not all the variables in translation are relevant in every situation, and that translators must decide which considerations should be given priority at any one time, establishing a kind of functional equivalence (see also Neubert 1994).

O.Kade (1968) and other writers on lexical equivalence, in particular in the areas of terminology (see for example, Arnts 1993; Harm 1992), combine the above qualitative distinctions with a quantative scheme that categorizes equivalence relationship according to whether there is: a single expression in the target language, a single source language expression, i.e. one- to-one equivalence; more than one target language expression for a single source language expression, i.e. one-to-many equivalence; a target language expression that covers part of a concept designated by a single source language expression, i.e. one-to part-of- one equivalence; or no target language expression for a source language expression, equivalence.

Questions:

1. What is Baker's opinion on equivalence of translation?
2. What is Kade's view on equivalence of translation?
3. What is the difference between Newman's view and Toury's view on equivalence of translation?
4. What kind of grammatical problems are there in translation activity?
5. Why have few attempts been made to define equivalence in translation?

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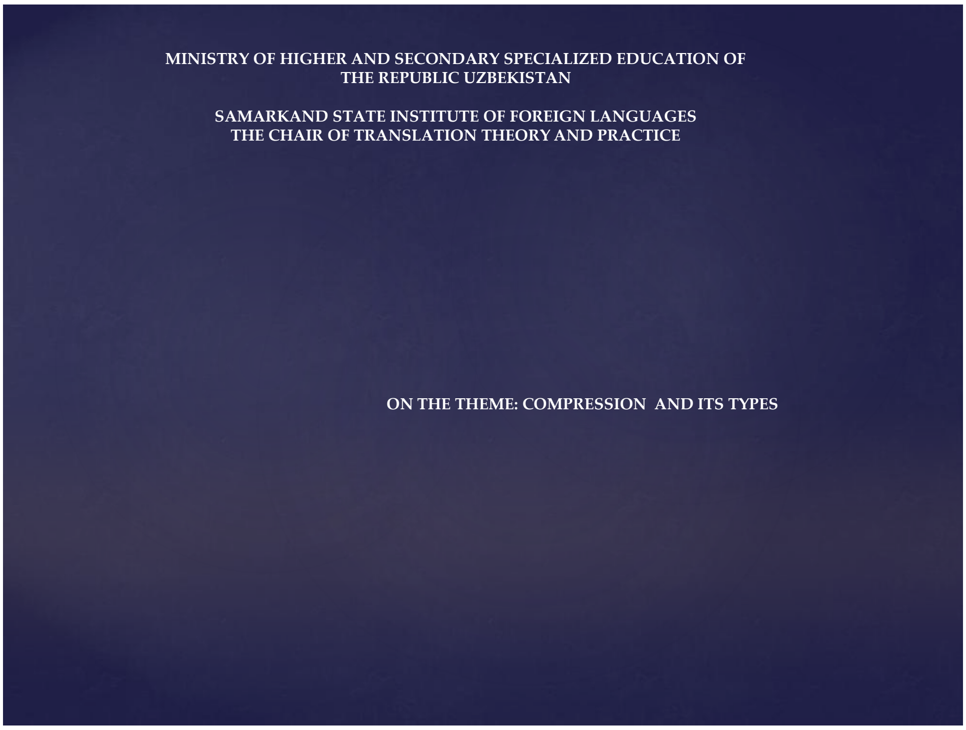
Lecture 6

Theme: Compression and its types". Syllabic. Semantics. Omission.

Plan:

1. Compression process
2. Lexical and semantic compressions
3. The omission predicate

Introductory words: compression, omission, syntactic, lexical and semantic compressions



Translation with compression is the process of pressing or squeezed the information so it is smaller, or saying the information in fewer word reducing the information and gives the main content of it.

The following ways may belong to syntactic, lexical and semantic compressions for translation from English into Uzbek:

1) devision of complex sentence into several simple sentences.

Ex: I saw the beautiful place where then I remembered how I had spent the days with my girl friend there -мен жуда чиройли жойни курдим. Кейин киз уртогим билан у ерда утказган кунларим ёдимга тушди;

2) substitution the subordinate clause by participle or participial constructions. Ex: The book which was written last year was sold- утган йили ёзилган китоб сотилди;

3) substitution of participial constructions by nouns or noun phrases. Ex: A piece of electric equipment used for cutting into very small pieces - майдалагич ёки гушт майдалайдиган;

4) substitution of word groups by one word and the full names of states or organizations by their shortened forms. Ex: involving the use of force - мажбурий; the United States of America - АКД1;

5) lexical compression is to express the ideas with a few words. Ex: In particular, attention should be given to the use of appropriate and or intermediate technology wherever possible - керакли ва уртача технологияга эътибор каратилиши керак;

|6) Semantic compression is the use of pronouns instead of notional words. Ex: Tom and John went to the garden. - Улар бокка кетищди.

In order to keep the simultaneity of the English speech and its Uzbek translation it is possible to break the sentence of the source language into two simple sentences.

Uzbekistan airways is one the youngest air ompanies in the world and within its short me of existence has already become ternationally known taking its place in the orld market.	Узбекистан хаво йуллар энг ёш хаво омпаниясидир. У дунёда киска вактда илакочон танилди ва дунё бозорида уз ойини эгаллади.
It was founded five years ago in January 992 it is a member of International Civil viation Organization, a full member.	5 йил илгари январ 1992 йилда ташкил илинган ва у халкаро фукоролар авиация ашкило- тининг тулик аъзоси булди.
as New York, Amsterdam, London, rankfurt, Athens, Istambul, Pekin, Delhi, eoul, Kuala-Lumpur in total more than 20 ternational destinations, about 19 destinations ithin CIS and 16 destinations in side of the epublic as well.	Нью Иорк, Амстредамга, ондонга,Франкфуртга, Афина, Истамбулга, екин, Дехли, Сэул у мумий хисобда 20 та алкаро 19 та МДХ ва мамлакат ичкарисида 5 та жойга у чади.
The extent of Uzbekistan airways air routes more than 2 million kilometers. New routes e being rated regulary.	Узбекистан хаво йулларинng йуналиши 2 иллион километр- дан ошгандир. Янги ейслар ку- шилмокда.
Uzbekistan airways boosts a vast fleet of air aft including Airbus A 310'S Boings, IL 62'S L- 86'S, TU-154'S and IL- 76'S.The airbus 310 as been used successfully as international outes. At the end of 1996 and March 1997 two ew Boeing -767'S were added to the fleet. ecently, the British French liner RJ-85 began fly the Uzbekistan sky, providing passengers ith international style services	Узбекистан хаво йулларида катта тез чадиган самолётлар мавжуд. Улар А 310, оинг, ИЛ 62 С, ИЛ 86 С, ТУ 154 С ва ИЛ 76 лардир. 310 само лёт лари халкаро асофага муваффакият- ли учадиган ейсдир. 1996 йил охирида ва март 997йилда ик- кита янги Боинг 767 само ети кушилди. Якинда Британия Француз лайнери РЖ-85 уча бошлади Узбекистан осмонида асажир- ларга халкаро усулда хизмат урсатилади.

Sometimes the omission of the predicate doesn't distort the logical sequence and links of the sentences in the translation from English into Uzbek. In this case the suffix "-дир" is added to the last word of the

I now give the floor to the distinguished delegate of Tanzania.	Суз Танзания делегатига.
Mr President. the question of Namibia is the question for consideration before the General Assemble. Without doubt	Жаноб раис. Намибия - Бош Ассамблея к>фиб чикддиган масаладир. Шубхасиз
These are the deadly consequences of apartheid. rasism and colonialism, scourages of humanity	Улар апартаиднмнг ёмон асо- глари иркчилик ва колониа- змнинг инсониятга зарарли- гидир.
Solutions to the problems of development are best formulated within the context of the over all socio-economic and technological framework of the particular country.	Муаммоларни >ш яхши хал этиш содиал иктисодий ва тех- никавий вазиятдаги хар бир мам- лакатга тегишлидир.
In this way. available resources are utilized to the maximum extend and dependence on imported techlogies is diminished	Шундай килиб ресурслар макс и- мал равишладир манбалар *вг* импорт технологияси камдкр.

To sum up, the interpreter must pick up the halfdozen or so ideas that make up the backbone of the speech and lay sufficient emphasis on them in the interpretation; verbal redundancies should be cut down to a minimum; digressions, comparisons and compression may be kept in the translation but should have the right relative weight in the overall context of the speech.

The first key to understand a speech is the identification of the main ideas; the second is an analysis of links between those ideas. A speech is not just a sequence of juxtaposed sentences. The sentences are related to one another in particular way, and it is this relationship that determines the over all meaning of a speech.

Questions:

1) What is compression?

2) How does compression help a simultaneous interpreter save time during interpretation?

3) To which parts of speech does compression apply?

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Lecture 7

Theme: Equivalence in simultaneous translation

Plan:

1. About equivalence
2. Equivalence in translation
3. Types of equivalence

Introductory words: equivalence, lexical equivalence, grammatical equivalence, textual equivalents, source language, target language

Some linguists define translation in terms of equivalents relations (Catford 1965;Nida and Taber, 1969; Toury, 1980; Pym, 1992, 1995; Koller, 1995) while others reject the theoretical notion of equivalence, claiming it is either irrelevant (Shell-Hornby 1988) or damaging (Gentzler 1993) translation studies. Yet other scientists are a middle position. Baker uses the notion of equivalence 'for the sake of convenience- because most translators are used to it rather than because it has not any theoretical status' (1992: 5-6). Thus, equivalence is variously regarded as a necessary condition for translation, an obstacle to progress in translation studies, or a useful category for describing translations.

The equivalence is the relationship between a source text and a target text that allows the target text to be considered as a translation of the source text in the first place. The above definition of equivalence is not unproblematic, equivalence is supposed to define translation, and translation, in turn, defines equivalents.

Unfortunately, few attempts have been made to define equivalence in translation.

Linguists who maintain that translation is predicated upon some kind of equivalence have, for the most part, concentrated on developing typologies of equivalence, focusing on the rank (word, sentence or text level) at which equivalents are said to obtain (see, Baker 1992) or on the type of meaning (denotative, connotative, programmatic, etc.) that said to be held constant in translation. Investigations of the essential nature of equivalents remain the exception.

At various levels, and loosely following Koller (1979:187-91, 1989: 100-4), equivalence is commonly established on the basis of; the source language and target language words supposedly referring to the same thing in the real world, i.e. on the basis of their referential or denotative equivalence; the source language and target language world triggering the same similar associations in the minds of native speaker of the two languages, i.e. their connotative equivalence; the source language and target language words being used in the same or similar contexts in their respective languages, i.e. what Koller (1989:102) calls text-normative equivalence: the source language and target language words having the same effect on their respective readers, i.e. pragmatic (Koller 1989: 102) or dynamic equivalence (Nida 1964); the source language and target language words having similar orthographic or phonological features, or formal equivalence.

Baker (1992) extends the concept of equivalence to cover similarity in source text and target text information flow and source text and target text device's play in their respective texts. She calls these two factors combined textual equivalence.

Newman (1994: 46 95) stresses that not all the variables in translation are relevant in every situation, and that translators must decide which considerations should be given priority at any one time, establishing a kind of functional equivalence (see also Neubert 1994).

O.Kade (1968) and other writers on lexical equivalence, in particular in the areas of terminology (see for example, Arnts 1993; Harm 1992), combine the above qualitative distinctions with a quantative scheme that categorizes equivalence relationship according to whether there is: a single expression in the target language, a single source language expression, i.e. one- to-one equivalence; more than one target language expression for a single source language expression, i.e. one-to-many equivalence; a target language expression that covers part of a concept designated by a single source language expression, i.e. one-to part-of- one equivalence; or no target language expression for a source language expression, i.e. nill equivalence.

Catford confirms an extralinguistic domain of objects, persons, emotion, memories, history, etc., features of which may or must achieve expression in a given language. Translational equivalence occurs, he suggests, when source texts and target texts are relatable to at least some of the same features of this extralinguistic reality, that is when source text and target text have approximately the same referents (1965: 50,). Catford thus relies on an essential theory of meaning, an approach which is too narrow.(Bassett', 1980/1991)

Thus, the general view in translation studies soon came to be that equivalents are the relation between texts in two different languages, rather than between the languages themselves. This step liberated studies from debated on interlingual translability based on entire language system with all their unactualised meaning potential (see Kollerl979; Pyml995:157-8).

Such debates had centred on incompatibilities between the words of a speaker of different languages and on the structural dissimilarities between languages. The attention was focused on texts and utterances, many of the potential and functions of words and structure in a languages system could be eliminated by reference to their cotext and context, making translation more realistic.

Toury (1980, 39) identified two main use of the term equivalence: first, equivalence could be 'a descriptive term, denoting concrete objects- actual relationship between actual utterance in two languages recognized as target texts and source texts -which are subject to direct observation'.

This definition regarded equivalence as an empirical category which could be established only after the event of translation .Toury contrasted this approach with equivalents as a' theoretical term, denoting an abstract, ideal relationship or category of relationship between target texts and source texts, translations and their sources[1]

Toury's empirical category of equivalence has much in common with Catford's textual equivalence. A textual equivalent is defined as ' any target language form which is observed to be the equivalent of a given source language form (text or portion of text)' (1965: 27) Equivalent forms can be matched by appealing to the intuition of bilingual informants or by applying more formal procedures such as commutation (Catford 1965: 27- 8), a method of discovering textual equivalents which consists of asking a competent bilingual informant to translate stretches of text and then systematically introducing changes into the source language text to establish how each change is reflected in the translation. Textual equivalence is, according to Catford, an empirical, probabilistic phenomenon. The probability that a given source text form will be translated as a given target text form can be calculated on the basis of previous experience and recast as a probabilistic translation rule (Catford 1965: 31)

Questions:

1. What is equivalence?
2. What is textual equivalence according to Catford theory?
3. What is Baker’s opinion about equivalence?
4. Importance of denotative and connotative meanings?
5. Differences and similarities of Catford and Toury’s theory about equivalence?

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Lecture 8

Theme: Theme and rheme. Defining rheme in simultaneous translation

Plan:

1. Definition of theme and rheme
2. Differences between theme and rheme
3. Importance of theme in text
4. Defining rheme in simultaneous translation

Introductory words: theme, rheme, Textual clause, relevance to stress, Emphatic preposing, theme-rheme order

Theme. Textual clause function: the point of departure of the clause as message. It sets up the local context for each clause. This local context often relates to the method of development of the text: the Theme is selected in such a way that it indicates how the clause relates to this method and contributes to the identification of the current step in the development. The term theme has an entirely different meaning in formal grammars (as does the term thematic roles), which has nothing to do with the long tradition of work on theme in Prague School linguistics and other functional traditions. => IFG Chapter 3. => LexCart Section 6.2. (From Christian Matthiessen: Glossary of systemic-functional terms.http://minerva.ling.mq.edu.au/) **Topic**. The subject matter of a clause; what it is about – often as one member of the pair topic + comment. Topic corresponds roughly to the experiential part of Theme, Topical theme, in Halliday's analysis of English, but it typically excludes textual and interpersonal Themes. (Sometimes the notion of given or known is also included in topic, but never in Halliday's Theme.) Cf. IFG p. 39. (From Christian Matthiessen: Glossary of systemic-functional terms.http://minerva.ling.mq.edu.au/)

Theme		**Rheme**
Relatively predictable information		Relatively unpredictable information
(already known information)	**-------------------->**	(new information)

Sentences can be divided up into some elements. Some provide at least relatively predictable information (**theme**) and others provide at least relatively unpredictable information (**rheme**) (Dickins, 2008: 116).

Consider the following from a text on Ayatollah Khomeini (from Dickins and Watson 1999: 461, Cited in Dickins, 2008: 116):

Writing paragraphs

Flow of information in paragraphs

In order for a paragraph to be easy to read, the information in it must flow easily from one sentence to the next. To do this it is important to structure your information clearly and signal exactly what you want to say by the use of signalling words.

Information structure.

Most sentences in English have two parts a theme (or topic) and a rheme (or comment) (McCarthy, 1991, p. 55). The theme is what you are writing about - it is shared information and it has been introduced to your reader. The rheme is what you are saying about the theme - it is new information, what you want to tell your reader.

Look at the following sentences:

1. The M1 goes from London to Leeds.

2. The motorway from London to Leeds is called the M1.

The theme in sentence 1 is "the M1". The reader has been introduced to the M1 but does not know where it goes and therefore needs to be told. In sentence 2, the theme is "the motorway from London to Leeds". The reader knows there is a motorway from London to Leeds but does not know what it is called.

In English the theme usually comes at the beginning of the sentence and the rheme at the end. The decision about which part of the sentence to make the theme and which part to make the rheme depends on the information that needs to be communicated. This depends on the sentences that come before.

Look at the following short paragraphs:

3. I was born in Glasgow. Glasgow is the largest city in Scotland.

4. I was born in Glasgow. The largest city in Scotland is Glasgow.

All the sentences are grammatically correct but in example 4, the information to be communicated, the rheme - the largest city in Scotland, is at the beginning of the sentence. Example 3 is preferred in English.

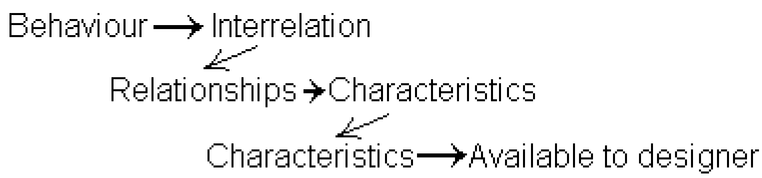
There are two basic choices in organising information texts:

1. The rheme of one sentence becomes the theme of the next sentence.

Example

The complete electrical behaviour of any valve or transistor can be described by stating the interrelation of the currents and the voltages between all the electrodes. These relationships can conveniently be displayed graphically, and the various curves are known as the 'characteristics' of the device. In principle, all the characteristics should be available to the designer proposing to use the device in a circuit.

(W. P. Jolly, (1972). Electronics, p. 61)

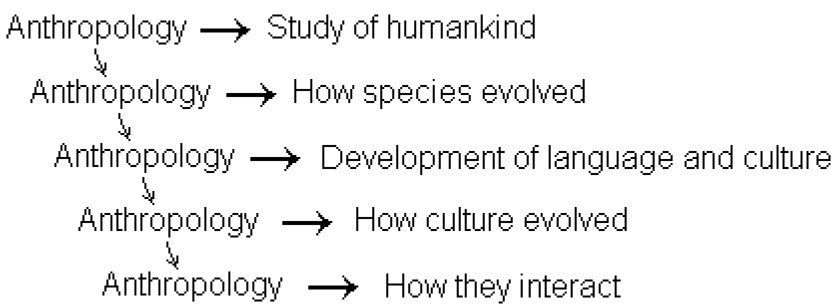


2. The theme of one sentence is the same as the theme of the next sentence.

Example

Anthropology is the study of humankind, especially of Homo sapiens, the biological species to which we human beings belong. It is the study of how our species evolved from more primitive organisms; it is also the study of how our species developed a mode of communication known as language and a mode of social life known as culture. It is the study of how culture evolved and diversified. And finally, it is the study of how culture, people, and nature interact wherever human beings are found.

(Marvin Harris, (1975), Culture, people nature, p. 1)



A mixture of the two is also possible.

Exercise 9

In the following paragraphs, the first and last sentences are correct. Rewrite the middle sentences of to put the theme at the beginning and the rheme at the end of the sentences.

Paragraph 1

Atoms of all elements consist of a central nucleus surrounded by a "cloud" containing one or more electrons. We can think of these electrons as occupying a series of well-defined shells. The number of electrons in its outermost shells determines the behaviour of a particular element. Other factors, such as the total number of electron shells, also play a part in determining behaviour but it is the dominance of the outer electron configuration that underlies the periodic law and justifies the grouping of the elements into groups or families.

Paragraph 2

Every substance contains a certain amount of heat, even a relatively cold substance such as ice. The substance's molecules are in continual motion and, by this motion, possess kinetic energy which produces heat. The average kinetic energy of the molecules are measured by temperature. Cooling to the point at which molecular movement ceases completely should thus be possible. Scientists are very interested in this point, absolute zero, but it is in practice unattainable. At temperatures close to absolute zero some materials exhibit remarkable properties, such as superconductivity and superfluidity.

Paragraph 3

Nauru is so small that the plane lands in what is best described as the capital's main street. To stop cars when planes are landing the seaward side of the runway has traffic lights at each end. Well-fed and brightly clothed Naurans cowd the tiny air terminal with their smart cars. The only hotel, the luxurious Menen, is a 10-minute drive half way round the island and is where new arrivals are driven off in Japanese minibuses. The well-paved road passes rows of neat, modern houses, set among the trees.

(David Lascelles, The Financial Times)

Paragraph 4

The most striking example of value rigidity I can think of is the old south Indian Monkey Trap, which depends on value rigidity for its effectiveness. A hollowed-out coconut chained to a stake makes the trap. A monkey can put its hand though a small hole in the coconut and grab some rice inside. The monkey can put its hand into the hole but cannot take its fist out with rice in it. The monkey's value rigidity traps it when it reaches in. The rice cannot be revalued. He cannot see that freedom without rice is more valuable than capture with it.

Questions:

1. What are theme and rheme?
2. What is function of rheme in the text?
3. What is main role of emphatic preposing in the text?
4. Give information Dicken's theory.

Literature:

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Lecture 9

Theme: Transformation in simultaneous translation

Plan:

1. The theory of Transformation
2. The transformation in simultaneous interpreting
3. The transformation is as the process of translation.

Introductory words: Grammatical transformations: embedding, replacement, omission, Partioning of sentence, Sentence integration; Lexical transformations:

Concretization, Compensation, transcription, transliteration; Lexico-grammatical transformations ,Antonymic, Metonymic translation:

The theory of translation is a linguistic science which teaches how to translate. It teaches laws and rules of translation, analyses various problems connected with process of translation. Translation is a means of intraliguistic communication, a transfer of mng across culture or cultures. More specificly translation is the process and result of creating in a TL a text which has approximately the same communicative value as the corresponding text in a SL. Transformation is any change of the Source text at any level (syntactic, semantic, lexical) of the language during translation. Transformations can be lexical, grammatical and lexico-grammatical.

Grammatical transformations are:

1) embedding/addition – is a device intended for the compensation of structural elements implicitly present in the S text missing in the T language. eg. The policeman waved me on.

2) replacement – is any change in the T text at the morphological, lexical and syntactic levels of the language when the elements of certain source paradigms are replaced by different elements of the Target ones.

3) deletion/omission both lexical and grammatical transformation) – eg. Summer rains in Florida may be violent, while they last.

4) permutation/ transposition – is a change of the word order in the T text as compared to the S text. Eg. A deligation from Krasnodar arrived in Moscow yesterday.

5) Partioning of sentence / sentence fragmentation – involves splitting one complex or compound sentence into 2 or more simpler sentences. Eg. People everywhere are confronted with the need to make decisions in the face of ignorance and these problem is growing.

6) Sentence integration — involves combining 2 sentences or more into one. Eg. Your presence is not required. Nor it is desirable.

Lexical transformations are:

1) concretization – is used when smth in the TL is usually expressed using concepts with narrow mng or when preserving the original text with broader mng would result in an awkward translation. Eg. There is a picture on the wall.

2) generalisation (генерализация) – is used when smth in the TL is usually expressed using concepts with broader mng or when preserving the original concepts with narrower mng would result in an awkward translation. Eg. I ordered a daiquiri.

3) Compensation / Loss of mng compensation involves adding to or reinforcing a T text in one place to compensate for smth that hasn't been translated in different place in S text. Eg. There is one thing I hate, it's the movies

4) transcription – is a way of translating lexical unit of the text reconstructing its sound form with the help of letters of the TL.

5) transliteration – is a way of translating lexical units of the ST using the letters of the TL.

6) calque – is a part by part restorating of a word in another language.

7) Complete transformation – is used when it is necessary to understand the mng of the whole utterance and render it by means of words of TL sometimes very distant from the mng of S text. Eg. Help yourself, please.

8) sense development/ extension – involves translating a cause by its effect and vice versa. Eg. He answered the phone

Lexico-grammatical transformations are:

]1) Antonymic translation involves translating a phrase or clause containing a negation using a phrase or clause that doesn't contain a negation and vice versa. Eg. I don't think you are right.

2) Metonymic translation – is similar to mng extention. Metonymy is a figure of speech in which one word or phrase is substituted for another with which it is closely connected. Eg. Moscow agreed to sign the peace treaty.

This article aims to identify and describe the peculiarities of the transformation in the process of simultaneous interpreting of a scientific discussion. Discussion is a very special text type. Its peculiarities arise from its oral and immediate nature. The process of simultaneous interpreting is not a simple transformation of a text from a source language into a target language, but is, rather, a complex process. The interpreter first transforms the source language text into a certain type of representation of its sense; this is followed by a second transformation of this semantic representation into the target language text. The task of the interpreter requires mechanisms and procedures for language comprehension and language production within a very limited span of time. The present article explores the peculiarities of simultaneous interpreting of scientific discussion as a text type.

One key issue addressed in this article is a translator's right to give up translating certain pieces of writing which he considers unworthy of translation. The issue of a translator's choice and his responsibility are regarded as constituting the ethics of translation. Another question discussed is the criterion for assessing the value of literature. The author argues that there are three types of human beings, and that this classification also comprises writers. Using this typology as a yardstick he puts several poems by Russian poets to an aesthetic test. He goes on developing the dichotomy of poet and personality, and concludes that poetry is in fact a mode of personal behavior which helps liberate creativity. The latter is defined as commitment to one's art. It is further stated that an adequate reading of the source text is a prerogative of the translator's creative behavior. The author describes various distortions in Soviet translations of source texts from the languages of minorities in the former Soviet Republics. He advocates a careful approach to the cultural, linguistic and structural differences encapsulated in the source texts. At the same time he examplifies the difficulties of creating culturally adequate translations in the target language by quoting translations of François Villon's Ballade de la Grosse Margot by Russian poets and translators.

By translator's transformations are meant such major and minor alterations in the structural form of language units performed with the aim of achieving faithfulness in simultaneous translation. Not all sense units need to be structurally transformed in the process of translation, a considerable number of them are transplanted to the target language in the form, meaning and structure of the original, i.e., unchanged or little changed, and namely:

1) most of genuine internationalisms, some idiomatic expressions, culturally biased notions: computerization – комп'ютеризація, democratic system демократична система, finite la commedia – фініта ля комедія (ділу кінець), veni, vidi, vici – прийшов, побачив, переміг, etc.

2) many loan internationalisms which maintain in the target language the same meaning and often the same structural form but have a different phonetic structure (sounding): agreement/concord (gram.) – узгодження, enjoinment/juxtaposition – прилягання, standard of living – життєвий рівень, etc.

3) almost all proper nouns of various subclasses (names of people, family names and geographical names, etc.): Cronin – Кронін, Newton – Ньютон, Ohio – Огайо, General Motors Corp. – корпорація "Дженерал Моторз", etc.

Some proper names and family names, as well as geographical names,

names of companies/corporations, firms, titles of newspapers, magazines/journals do not always completely retain their source language form in the target language, e.g.: Lorraine – Лотарингія, Munich – Мюнхен, Charles V – король Карл П'ятий, Boston Globe and Mail – Бостонська газета "Ґлоуб енд мейл”, etc. Such proper nouns acquire in the target language a somewhat different sounding and additional explication, which often extend their structure as compared with that in the source language (cf. Reuters – інформаційне агентство Великої Британії “Рейтер”). A considerable number of various different proper nouns do not maintain their form or structure due to the historic tradition or because of the lack of the corresponding sounds in the target language. Cf.: Варшава –Warsaw, Москва – Moscow, Харків – Kharkiv, etc.

Different alterations and changes constantly take place in the process of translation both at word level and at syntactic level. Translation of sense 170 Кузенко Г.М. units at the language level, hence, represents a process of constant transformations. The most regular of these are the following two:

1) ‘inner’ or implicit transformations taking place at the lexical/semantic level of the target language as compared with the corresponding source language units;

2) ‘outer’ or explicit transformations causing some alterations in the target language as compared with the structure of the corresponding sense units of the source language units.

A vivid illustration of inner transformation is realized in genuine internationalisms through their synonymous or polysemantic meanings. For example, the noun icon apart from its direct Ukrainian meaning ікона may have some in some context also the meanings зображення, портрет, статуя. Sometimes the meaning (‘inner form’) of an internationalisms or any other language unit may be absolutely unexpected. Cf.: national – 1. національний; 2. народний або державний, збройний; Therefore, inner or implicit transformations disclose the semantic potential of the source language units in the target language.

The outer/explicit transformation is performed in the process of translation practically of any type of the source language unit; already the change of the Roman type for the Ukrainian or Arabic one presents an explicit or outer transformation (cf. Львів – Lviv, Чоп - Chop).

A kind of combined explicit and implicit transformation may sometimes take place too. Thus, the proper name John may have three outer/contextual explicit realizations of its implicit meanings in Ukrainian: 1. Джон as in Джон Буль, Джон Кітс; 2. Іван as in Pope John Paul II – папа Іван Павло Другий; 3. Іоанн as in John the Baptist – Іоанн Хреститель. Outer/explicit transformations may sometimes change the structural form of the sense unit under translation.

A peculiar type of outer transformation is observed at the phonetic/phonological level. The outer transformation in this case finds its expression in adopting the spelling and sounding forms of the lexical units of the source language to the corresponding target language phonetic/phonological system, which usually differs from that of the source language. For example: assembly [É' ëÉãÄäá] – асамблея, ceremony [' ëÉêáãÉåá] – церемонія, discussion [Çáë' ^på] – дискусія, etc. Навчальний посібник з курсу

Questions:

1. What are target and source languages?
2. How many types of transformation?
3. What is lexico- grammatical transformation?
4. What means the terms transliteration and transcription?

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Lecrute 10

Theme: Types of Scientific Conferences and translating process

Plan:

1. Scientific conference
2. Translating process on scientific conference
3. Interpreter’s activities on scientific conference

Introductory words: scientific conference, taking notes, headset

It is simultaneous interpreter's task to make even the most complicated written information sound straightforward and clear to the listener. Under some circumstances this may mean extracting the main points of information from written text and presenting it in the form of a restructured "oral" speech. This where sight translation comes into play as the ideal means to achieve this goal, as the interpreter is master of his own reading speed and has often read speech before starting his interpretation.

Sight translation is an ideal tool, which, at this stage of the preparation the interpreter can use to assimilate technical terms in context and to develop the instantaneous translation reflexes to use technical terminology in a field in which he is no expert. These reflexes may cover difficulties ranging from pronunciation (e.g., the names of chemical compounds) to developing a certain ease in the use of terms that are rarely part of the interpreter's everyday vocabulary. This exercise will build up the interpreter's muscle memory. Moreover, sight translation allows the interpreter to prepare the more difficult passage of a speech quite thoroughly and provides a rehearsal before the actual conference.

Lastly, sight translation once it has been fully mastered develops simple speed-reading techniques, which are particularly helpful to the interpreter when preparing for a conference.

In simultaneous interpretation, sight translation is practiced in its most advanced form. Each time the interpreter works with a written copy of the speech that he is listening to. However, in addition to sight translating, the interpreter must check to be sure that the speaker does not depart from the written text. In this form of interpretation, the interpreter encounters most often difficulties in scientific and technical meetings. The more effortlessly the interpreter is able to process the written and the oral information, the more comfortable he will feel.

Surprisingly enough, it seems that most interpreters prefer to follow the written text very closely whenever it is available, rather than to rely on the oral information alone. Only the very best (and usually the best prepared) interpreters are able to interpret "live " under these difficult circumstances, without any help at all from written texts. Whenever written material is read at high speed the interpreter normally needs to resort to his visual perception to do several things: 1) check whether what die speaker has said was understood correctly; 2) complete this information by anything that has been lost aurally; 3) translate on sight as much information as is possible to convey.

Moreover, in simultaneous interpretation, the process of sight translation requires the interpreter's total concentration, as the written information will frequently take precedence over that received by ear. The faster the interpreter is able to sight translate, the more effective his interpretation will be.

A word for word translation should never be accepted, the student should analyze the text at all times. Any meaning unit that was not expressed clearly and logically should be repeated by the student if necessary without referring to the text. Teachers may find it helpful when students perform not to look at the text, but to play the part of the listener entirely. This presupposes of course that the teacher has thoroughly prepared and assimilated the assignment beforehand.

Students should demonstrate regularly! As students are usually exposed to sight translation before being exposed to consecutive and simultaneous interpretation, it is particularly important for them to compare their own performance to a model. A recorded version of the teacher's demonstration may be available to students for their homework,

Always ensure that students deepen their translation like a speech, not a written translation. This is probably the one feature of sight translation for students of conference interpretation. Most speeches, even when prepared in writing, contain certain redundancies, cliches, etc., Students must learn how to take advantage of these, to use them as "shortcuts" in their effort to attain a perfectly clear and logical translation of the speaker's idea, especially if the latter was poorly expressed.

It is well-known that we do not hear ourselves in the same manner as other people do. The only way to correct personal and poor speaking habits is through listening to one's own recordings. The students' performance must be regularly critiqued by their professor.

Sight translation incorporates most of the skills of a conference interpreter, especially the skills required to translate at speed. Therefore, it should be taught early in a training program. More importantly, it should continue to be taught until the end of the training program. It is however, debatable whether examinations in the skill of translation should be a part of the final examinations, as it may be tested implicitly through exams in consecutive and simultaneous interpretation. A final examination in simultaneous interpretation must, in any event, always contain one exam during which the student is asked to interpret a speech whose written text he has received in advance and which he has had fifteen to twenty minutes to prepare.

As sight translation includes all these skills, it introduces students early on to all of them, step by step. Just as consecutive interpretation is an ideal preparation for simultaneous interpretation, sight translation may be equally useful as a preparation for both types of interpretation.

Students practicing sight translation should always work standing. They must learn how to master stage fright, to "think on their feet" and to feel generally comfortable circumstances.

Taking Notes

Interpreters generate a system of abbreviations, symbols, and initials that each one develops during their career, through the combination of training, practice, and experience. Note taking is used as a tool to help the interpreter remember ideas and concepts (to refresh his or her memory) and, therefore, it is not necessary for them to be legible by others or even the same interpreter at a later time–just within the time that the current job requires. Since it is a personalized system, there is no theory surrounding it. There are only suggestions and exercises for each interpreter to practice and discover their personal best method.

Suggestions on Taking Notes

It is crucial that the interpreter not lose visual contact with the speaker. Therefore, he or she must not be focused on what is being written. Take notes in a space that leaves you plenty of room. It is much easier to read notes at a simple glance when the text is not bunched together.

Write down only the basic information of the sentence: who? when? how? and why?

Write down the essential connectors, such as “however”, “then”, “if”, etc. (possibly in the margin) for this essential information. These summarize the meaning in your memory. It is much easier to recreate the logic of the speech this way, even if some details are omitted.

Make sure you include dates, numbers, and names; they are very difficult to remember otherwise. If the speaker lists something, for example, “There are a total of five factors: …”, make sure to write down all five, ideally in the form of a list.

Write down who says what. Use drawings, abbreviations, and symbols that are clear. It makes no sense to learn a complicated system that you probably will forget or confuse in stressful situations when you need it the most.

Questions:

1.Pecularities of translating scientific conference.

2. Translating process in conferences

Literature:

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Lecture 11

Theme: Translation of political terms

Big Government: A negative term, used mainly by conservatives to describe government programs in areas where they believe government shouldn't be involved, especially those that spend money on social problems.

Bipartisan: A cooperative effort by two political parties.

Bleeding Heart: A term describing people whose hearts "bleed" with sympathy for the downtrodden; used to criticize liberals who favor government spending for social programs.

Bully Pulpit: The Presidency, when used by the President to inspire or moralize. Whenever the President seeks to rouse the American people, he is said to be speaking from the bully pulpit. When the term first came into use, "bully" was slang for "first rate" or "admirable."

Campaign: (noun) An organized effort to win an election. (verb) To strive for elected office.

Caucus: An informal meeting of local party members to discuss candidates and choose delegates to the party's convention.

Checks and Balances: The system of dividing power among the three branches of government (executive, legislative, and judicial) to prevent any one from having too much power. Each branch has some authority to check the power of the others, thereby maintaining a balance among the three.

Coattails: The power of a popular candidate to gather support for other candidates in his or her party. Winning candidates are said to have coattails when they drag candidates for lower office along with them to victory.

Convention: A national meeting of a political party, where delegates formally elect a party's nominee.

Dark Horse: A long-shot candidate.

Delegate: A representative to a party's national convention chosen by local voters to vote for a particular candidate. Each state is assigned a certain number of delegates based on its population.

Demagogue: A leader whose impassioned rhetoric appeals to greed, fear, and hatred, and who often spreads lies. Former U.S. Sen. Joseph McCarthy (see McCarthyism) is often cited as a classic demagogue.

Fence Mending: What politicians do when they visit their electoral districts to explain an unpopular action. The term originated in 1879, when Ohio Senator John Sherman made a trip home that most people considered a political visit. Sherman insisted, however, that he was home "only to repair my fences."

Filibuster: An attempt by a Senator or group of Senators to obstruct the passage of a bill, favored by the majority, by talking continuously. Because there is no rule in the Senate over how long a member can speak, a Senator can prevent a bill from coming up for a vote by talking endlessly. Senator Strom Thurmond of South Carolina set the record in 1957 by speaking for more than 24 hours without stopping.

Fishing Expedition: An investigation with no defined purpose, often by one party seeking damaging information about another. Such inquiries are likened to fishing because they pull up whatever they happen to catch.

Front Burner: Where an issue is placed when it must be dealt with immediately.

Gerrymander: The reorganization of voting districts by the party in power to insure more votes for their candidates. The term originated in 1811, when Governor Elbridge Gerry of Massachusetts signed a bill that changed districts to favor the Democrats. The shape of one new district supposedly resembled a salamander, provoking a Boston newspaper editor to say, "Salamander? Call it a Gerrymander!"

GOP: Grand Old Party, nickname of the Republican Party.

Grass Roots: Political activity that originates locally, or arises from ground level.

Ideology: An integrated system of ideas about politics, values, and culture. Those who espouse an ideology are sometimes criticized as rigid and narrow-minded.

Incumbent: A current officeholder.

Inside the Beltway: The area inside the Capital Beltway, a highway that encircles Washington, D.C. An issue described as "inside the Beltway" is believed to be of concern only to the people who work in and with the federal government and of little interest to the nation at large.

Lame Duck: An officeholder whose term has expired or cannot be continued, who thus has lessened power.

Left-wing: Liberal. The labeling system originated from the seating pattern of the French National Assembly, which put liberals on the left, moderates in the middle, and conservatives on the right.

Lobby: A group seeking to influence an elected official, or the act of doing so. The term originated in the 17th century, when people waiting to speak with legislators at the English House of Commons waited in a large atrium outside the legislators' hall, called the lobby.

Machine Politics: Politics controlled by a tightly-run organization that stresses discipline and rewards its supporters. Machines are usually found in large cities and are frequently accused of corruption.

McCarthyism: The practice of smearing people with baseless accusations. Refers to the tactics of Senator Joseph McCarthy, who in the 1950s destroyed the careers of many prominent Americans by branding them Communists.

Muckraker: A journalist who seeks out the scandalous activities of public officials. Derived from the Man with the Muck Rake, a character in John Bunyan's *The Pilgrim's Progress*, who could never look up, only down.

Nomination: When a political party chooses its official candidate for a particular office.

Nominee: The candidate chosen by a political party to run for a particular office.

Photo-Op: Short for "photo opportunity," an event staged specifically for news cameras to help a politician appear on the evening news or in morning papers.

Platform: The positions that a party adopts, and stands on, at the beginning of an election campaign.

Political Party: An organization that seeks to achieve political power by electing its members to public office.

Political Suicide: A vote or action that is likely to be so unpopular with voters as to cause a politician's probable loss in the next election.

Poll: A survey used to gauge public opinion concerning issues or to forecast an election.

Pork Barrel: Wasteful and unnecessary projects that politicians secure for their local districts, usually to gain favor with local voters. The term dates from the days when salted pork was occasionally handed out to slaves from large barrels. An observer once wrote that the mad rush of politicians to get their district's share of treasury funds looked like slaves rushing to the pork barrel.

Primary: A state election in which party members vote for a candidate from within their party. The vote determines how many of that state's delegates each candidate gets.

Pundit: A political analyst, commentator, or columnist who usually works for a newspaper or magazine, or in broadcasting. Derived from a Hindi phrase meaning "learned one."

Reactionary: A militant conservative; opposite of "radical," which means ultraliberal.

Red Tape: Government paperwork and procedures that are slow and difficult. Stems from an 18th-century British practice of binding official papers with a reddish twine.

Rubber Chicken Circuit: The endless series of public dinners and luncheons politicians must attend to raise funds and make speeches. The food often includes chicken, which is cooked hours earlier and then reheated, giving it a rubbery texture.

Silent Majority: The mass of Americans whose opinions are not loud and public, but who together have enormous power. Popularized by President Richard Nixon, who claimed that Vietnam War protesters comprised a minority, while a "silent majority" supported the war.

Slate: Candidates for various offices running as a team; or a group of delegates running on behalf of one candidate.

Smoke-Filled Room: The sort of place where behind-the-scenes political wheeling and dealing, often devious, occurs. Refers to the penchant of many political operatives for smoking cigars.

Spin: A politician's attempt to shape the way the public looks at an issue or event, much the way a tennis player uses spin to direct the ball. Political advisers who spin are known as "spin doctors."

Stump: To campaign in person on a local level.

Swing Vote: The undecided, usually independent, portion of the electorate that can "swing" the outcome of an election one way or the other.

Trial Balloon: An idea a politician suggests in order to observe the reaction. If public reaction is favorable, the politician takes credit for it; if not, the idea dies quickly.

Whip: The party member who makes sure that all other members are present for crucial votes and that they vote in accordance with the party line. The term originated in British fox hunting, where the "whipper-in" was responsible for keeping the hounds from straying.

Whistle-Stopping: The practice of making speeches in many towns in a short time, often during a single day. When politicians traveled by train, small towns were called whistle-stops. Politicians would use the stop to deliver a quick campaign speech, often from the back of the train, before heading to the next stop.

Witch Hunt: A vindictive, often irrational, investigation that preys on public fears. Refers to witch hunts in 17th-century Salem, Massachusetts, where many innocent women accused of witchcraft were burned at the stake or drowned.

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Lecture 12

Theme: Translation of economical terms

Ped-technologies: individual work

Absolute advantage - The ability to produce something with fewer resources than other producers would use to produce the same thing
Alternatives - Options among which to make choices.

Balance of trade - The part of a nation's balance of payments that deals with merchandise (or visible) imports or exports.
Bank, commercial - A financial institution accepts checking deposits, holds savings, sells traveler's checks and performs other financial services.
Barter - The direct trading of goods and services without the use of money.
Benefit - The gain received from voluntary exchange.
Bond - A certificate reflecting a firm's promise to pay the holder a periodic interest payment until the date of maturity and a fixed sum of money on the designated maturity date.
Business (firm) - Private profit-seeking organizations that use resources to produce goods and services.

Capital - All buildings, equipment and human skills used to produce goods and services.
Capital resources - Goods made by people and used to produce other goods and services. Examples include buildings, equipment, and machinery.
Change in demand - see Demand decrease and Demand increase.
Change in supply - see Supply decrease and Supply increase.
Choice - What someone must make when faced with two or more alternative uses of a resource (also called economic choice).
Circular flow of goods and services (or Circular flow of economic activity) - A model of an economy showing the interactions between households and business firms as they exchange goods and services and resources in markets.
Collateral - Anything of value that is acceptable to a lender to guarantee repayment of a loan.
Command economy - A mode of economic organization in which the key economic functions--*what, how*, and *for whom*--are principally determined by government directive. Sometimes called a "centrally planned economy."
Comparative advantage - The principle of comparative advantage states that a country will specialize in the production of goods in which it has a lower opportunity cost than other countries.
Competition - The effort of two or more parties acting independently to secure the business of a third party by offering the most favorable terms.
Complements - Products that are used with one another such as hamburger and hamburger buns
Consumers - People whose wants are satisfied by consuming a good or a service.
Consumption - In macroeconomics, the total spending, by individuals or a nation, on

consumer goods during a given period. Strictly speaking, consumption should apply only to those goods totally used, enjoyed, or "eaten up" within that period. In practice, consumption expenditures include all consumer goods bought, many of which last well beyond the period in question --e.g., furniture, clothing, and automobiles.

Consumer spending - The purchase of consumer goods and services.

Corporation - A legal entity owned by stockholders whose liability is limited to the value of their stock.

Costs - See Opportunity Cost

Costs of production - All resources used in producing goods and services, for which owners receive payments.

Craftsperson - A worker who completes all steps in the production of a good or service.

Credit - (1) In monetary theory, the use of someone else's funds in exchange for a promise to pay (usually with interest) at a later date. The major examples are short-term loans from a bank, credit extended by suppliers, and commercial paper. (2) In balance-of-payments accounting, an item such as exports that earns a country foreign currency.

Criteria - Standards or measures of value that people use to evaluate what is most important.

Decision making - Choosing from alternatives the one with the greatest benefit net of costs.

Deflation - A sustained and continuous decrease in the general price level.

Demand - A schedule of how much consumers are willing and able to buy at all possible prices during some time period.

Demand decrease - A decrease in the quantity demanded at every price; a shift to the left of the demand curve.

Demand increase - An increase in the quantity demanded at every price; a shift to the right of the demand curve.

Determinants of demand - Factors that influence consumer purchases of goods, services, or resources.

Determinants of supply - Factors that influence producer decisions about goods, services, or resources.

Distribution - The manner in which total output and income is distributed among individuals or factors (e.g., the distribution of income between labor and capital).

Division of labor - The process whereby workers perform only a single or a very few steps of a major production task (as when working on an assembly line.)

Durables - Consumer goods expected to last longer than three years.

Earn - Receive payment (income) for productive efforts.

Economic growth - An increase in the total output of a nation over time. Economic growth is usually measured as the annual rate of increase in a nation's real GDP.

Economic system - The collection of institutions, laws, activities, controlling values, and human motivations that collectively provide a framework for economic decision making.

Economic wants - Desires that can be satisfied by consuming a good or a service. Some economic wants range from things needed for survival to things that are nice to have.

Entrepreneur - One who organizes, manages, and assumes the risks of a business or enterprise.
Entrepreneurship - The human resource that assumes the risk of organizing other productive resources to produce goods and services.
Equilibrium price - The market clearing price at which the quantity demanded by buyers equals the quantity supplied by sellers.
Exchange - Trading goods and services with others for other goods and services or for money (also called trade). When people exchange voluntarily, they expect to be better off as a result.
Exchange rates - The rate, or price, at which one country's currency is exchanged for the currency of another country.
Excise Tax - Taxes imposed on specific goods and services, such as cigarettes and gasoline.
Exports - Goods or services produced in one nation but sold to buyers in another nation.

Factors of production - Resources used by businesses to produce goods and services.
Federal Reserve System - The central bank and monetary authority of the United States.
Final goods - Products that end up in the hands of consumers.
Fiscal policy - A government's program with respect to (1) the purchase of goods and services and spending on transfer payments, and (2) the amount and type of taxes.
Functions of money - The roles played by money in an economy. These roles include medium of exchange, standard of value, and store of value.
Full employment - A term that is used in many senses. Historically, it was taken to be that level of employment at which no (or minimal) involuntary unemployment exists. Today economists rely upon the concept of the natural rate of unemployment to indicate the highest sustainable level of employment over the long run.

Goods - Objects that can satisfy people's wants.
Government - National, state and local agencies that use tax revenues to provide goods and services for their citizens.
Gross domestic product (GDP) - The value, expressed in dollars, of all final goods and services produced in a year.
Gross domestic product (GDP), real - GDP corrected for inflation.

Households - Individuals and family units which, as consumers, buy goods and services from firms and, as resource owners, sell or rent productive resources to business firms.
Human capital - The health, strength, education, training, and skills which people bring to their jobs.
Human resources - The quantity and quality of human effort directed toward producing goods and services (also called labor).

Incentives - Factors that motivate and influence the behavior of households and businesses. Prices, profits, and losses act as incentives for participants to take action in a

market economy.
Imports - Goods or services bought from sellers in another nation.
Income - The payments made for the use of borrowed or loaned money.
Increase in productivity - When the same amount of an output can be produced with fewer inputs; more output can be produced with the same amount of inputs; or a combination of the two.
Inflation - A sustained and continuous increase in the general price level.
Interdependence - Dependence on others for goods and services; occurs as a result of specialization.
Interest rates - The price paid for borrowing money for a period of time, usually expressed as a percentage of the principal per year.
Investment in capital goods - Occurs when savings are used to increase the economy's productive capacity by financing the construction of new factories, machines, means of communication, and the like.
Investment - The purchase of a security, such as a stock or bond.
Investment in capital resources - Business purchases of new plant and equipment.
Investment in human capital - An action taken to increase the productivity of workers. These actions can include improving skills and abilities, education, health, or mobility of workers.

Labor force - That group of people 16 years of age and older who are either employed or unemployed.
Labor market - A setting in which workers sell their human resources and employers buy human resources.
Labor union - A group of employees who join together to improve their terms of employment.
Land - Natural resources or gifts of nature that are used to produce goods and services.
Law of demand - The principle that price and quantity demanded are inversely related.
Law of supply - The principle that price and quantity supplied are directly related.
Loss - Business situation in which total cost of production exceeds total revenue; negative profit.

Market - A setting where buyers and sellers establish prices for identical or very similar products, and exchange goods and/or services.
Market economy - An economic system where most goods and services are exchanged through transactions by private households and businesses. Prices are determined by buyers and sellers making exchanges in private markets.
Medium of exchange - One of the functions of money whereby people exchange goods and services for money and in turn use money to obtain other goods and services.
Mixed economy - The dominant form of economic organization in noncommunist countries. Mixed economies rely primarily on the price system for their economic organization but use a variety of government interventions (such as taxes, spending, and regulation) to handle macroeconomic instability and market failures.
Monetary policy - The objectives of the central bank in exercising its control over money, interest rates, and credit conditions. The instruments of monetary policy are primarily open-market operations, reserve requirements, and the discount rate.

Money - Anything that is generally accepted as a medium of exchange with which to buy goods and services, a good that can be used to buy all other goods and services, that serves as a standard of value, and has a store of value.
Money market - A term denoting the set of institutions that handle the purchase or sale of short-term credit instruments like Treasury bills and commercial paper.

National debt - The net accumulation of federal budget deficits.
National income - The amount of aggregate income earned by suppliers of resources employed to produce GNP; net national product plus government subsidies minus indirect business taxes.
Natural resources - "Gifts of nature" that are used to produce goods and services. They include land, trees, fish, petroleum and mineral deposits, the fertility of soil, climatic conditions for growing crops, and so on.
Non-durables - Consumer goods expected to last less than three years.
Non-price determinants of supply - The factors that influence the amount a producer will supply of a product at each possible price. The non-price determinants of supply are the factors that can change the entire supply schedule and curve.
Normal profit - The minimum payment an entrepreneur expects to receive to induce the entrepreneur to perform entrepreneurial functions.
Normative economics - Normative economics considers "what ought to be"--value judgments, or goals, of public policy. Positive economics, by contrast, is the analysis of facts and behavior in an economy, or "the way things are."

Opportunity cost - The next best alternative that must be given up when a choice is made.

Physical capital - Manufactured items used to produce goods and services.
Price - The money value of a unit of a good, service, or resource
Prices - The amounts that people pay for units of particular goods or services.
Private goods - A commodity that benefits the individual. An example is bread, which, if consumed by one person, cannot be consumed by another person**Producers -** People who use resources to make goods and services (also called workers).
Production - The making of goods available for use; total output especially of a commodity or industry.
Productive resources - All natural resources (land), human resources (labor), and human-made resources (capital) used in the production of goods and services.
Productivity - The ratio of output (goods and services) produced per unit of input (productive resources) over some period of time.
Profit - The difference between total revenues and the full costs involved in producing or selling a good or service; it is a return for risk taking.
Property tax - Taxes paid by households and businesses on land and buildings.
Public goods - A commodity whose benefits are indivisibly spread among the entire community, whether or not particular individuals desire to consume the public good.

For example, a public-health measure that eradicates smallpox protects all, not just those paying for the vaccinations. These goods are often provided by the government. To be contrasted with **private goods**.

Quantity demanded - The amount of a product consumers will purchase at a specific price.
Quota - A legal limit on the quantity of a particular product that can be imported or exported.
Quantity supplied - The amount of a product producers will produce and sell at a specific price.

Resources - All natural, human, and human-made aids to production of goods and services (also called productive resources).
Revenue - Payments received by businesses from selling goods and services.

Sales tax - Taxes paid on the goods and services people buy.
Save - Set aside earnings (income) for a future use.
Saving - Occurs when individuals, businesses, and the economy as a whole do not consume all of current income (or output).
Scarcity - The condition that results from the imbalance between relatively unlimited wants and the relatively limited resources available for satisfying those wants.
Services - Activities that can satisfy people's wants.
Shortage - The situation resulting when the quantity demanded exceeds the quantity supplied of a good or service, usually because the price is for some reason below the equilibrium price in the market.
Specialists - People who produce a narrower range of goods and services than they consume (also called specialized workers).
Specialization - The situation in which people produce a narrower range of goods and services than they consume.
Spend - Use earnings (income) to buy goods and services.
Standard of living - A minimum of necessities, comforts, or luxuries held essential to maintaining a person or group in customary or proper status or circumstances.
Standard of value - One of the functions of money whereby the value of goods and services is expressed in money terms (prices).
Stock - A certificate reflecting ownership of a corporation.
Store of value - One of the functions of money allowing people to save current purchasing power to buy goods and services in a future time period.
Substitutes - Products that can replace one another such as butter and margarine.
Supply - A schedule of how much producers are willing and able to sell at all possible prices during some time period.
Supply decrease - A decrease in the quantity supplied at every price; a shift to the left of the supply curve.
Supply increase - An increase in the quantity supplied at every price; a shift to the right of the supply curve.
Surplus - The situation resulting when the quantity supplied exceeds the quantity

demanded of a good or service, usually because the price is for some reason below the equilibrium price in the market.

Tariff - A tax on an imported good.
Taxes - Required payments of money made to governments by households and business firms.
Total cost - Cost of resources used in producing a product multiplied by the quantity produced.
Total revenue - Selling price of a product multiplied by the quantity demanded.
Trade agreement - An international agreement on conditions of trade in goods and services.
Trade-off - Giving up some of one thing to get some of another thing.
Traditional economy - A mode of economic organization which borrows economic decisions made at an earlier time or by an earlier generation

Unemployment - The situation in which people are willing and able to work at current wage rates, but do not have jobs.

Wages - The payment resource earners receive for their labor.
Work - Employment of people in jobs to make goods or services. .

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Practical lesson 14

Theme: Translation of cultural text

Plan:

1. Introduction
2. Translation of cultures
3. Skepticism towards translation of cultures
4. A two-fold process
5. Culture and civilization
6. General cultural implications for translation
7. The Importance of Culture in Translation

Key wordos : culture, cultural words, cultural translation, cultural transfer, cultural contexts, cultural translator, Cultural untranslatability, transnational (across borders) and translational (exchange of translations) concepts

Introduction

Translation is a kind of activity which inevitably involves at least two languages and two cultural traditions.". As this statement implies, translators are permanently faced with the problem of how to treat the cultural aspects implicit in a source text (ST) and of finding the most appropriate technique of successfully conveying these aspects in the target language (TL). These problems may vary in scope depending on the cultural and linguistic gap between the two (or more) languages concerned.

It has been established that a discourse such as persuasive advertisements must be seen as communicative function taking place in a given situation which forms part of a broader socio-cultural background. The translation no longer entails "linguistic substitution or mere code-switching but a ‘cultural transfer’. The role of the translator is to facilitate the transfer of message, meaning and cultural elements from one language into another and create an equivalent response from the receivers. The message in the source language is embedded a cultural context and has to be transferred to the target language. The dynamic equivalent translation approach provides the translator with a theory which can deal with the cultural challenges and problems inherent in persuasive advertisements. Cultural translation represents the practice of translation, which involves cultural differences. Cultural translation can be also defined as a practice whose aim is to present another culture via translation. This kind of translation solves some issues linked to culture, such as dialects, food or architecture. The main issue that cultural translation must solve consists in translating a text as showing cultural differences of this text, in respecting the source culture.

Translation of cultures

Cultural translation is a term which must be also studied through cultural anthropology, a field of anthropology focused on cultural issues among humans. This discipline questions translation through cultural differences. Indeed, translation studies are not only based on language issues, but also on cultural contexts between peoples.

An anthropological translator of cultures needs to deal with the issues between the source and the target language, that is to say he must respect at the same time the cultural source of point of view and the target culture. Wilhelm von Humboldt shared this opinion of translation in a letter addressed to A.W. Schlegel: “All translation seems to me simply an attempt to solve an impossible task. Every translator is doomed to be done in by one of two stumbling blocks: he will either stay too close to the original, at the cost of taste and the language of his nation, or he will adhere too closely to the characteristics peculiar to his nation, at the cost of the original. The medium between the two is not only difficult, but downright impossible”. Correspondingly, according to Md. Ziaul Haque, a poet, columnist, scholar, researcher and a faculty member of the English department at Sylhet International University, Bangladesh:

"Nonetheless, despite the fact that translation brings cultures nearer, in each translation, there will be a definite deformation between cultures."

Skepticism towards translation of cultures

Some anthropologists raise objections to translation of cultures. According to these researchers, culture seeks a certain coherence that can be found in people’s thinking and practices. In this case, a cultural translator must have a much more widespread knowledge than the

text actually provides. Besides, translation of cultures cannot be as equal as it should be, as some cultures and societies remain dominant compared to others, therefore power is a limit to translation of cultures. Indeed, within a translation of cultures, the target language may dominate the source culture in order to make the text comprehensible in a sense of culture for the readers. The meaning of culture is quite difficult to understand, therefore translation of cultures is certainly limited, all the more so borders exist between cultures, which must be thus distinguished. This limit of translation of cultures was also explained in the theory of Edward Sapir, an American

linguist and anthropologist: “The worlds in which different societies live are distinct worlds, not merely the same world with different labels attached”. Each linguistic community has its own perception of the world, which differs from that of other linguistic communities implies the existence of different worlds determined by language.

Some linguists assume that untranslatability doesn’t only come from

linguistic limits but also from cultural barriers within translation. According to some linguists, such as C.L. Wren, differences of point of view between peoples relatively impose narrow limits to cultural translatability. The theory of universal translatability is therefore disapproved by some researchers, like Ané Martinet, who is convinced that human experience cannot be well communicated because it is unique. Cat ford rationalized this theory in his book "Linguistic Theory of Translation": "Cultural untranslatability arises when a situational feature, functionally relevant for the source language text, is completely absent from the culture of which the TL the translatability of texts: a historical overview [target language] is a part. For instance, the names of some institutions, clothes, foods and abstract concepts, amongst others." Anton Popovich also assumes that there is a difference between linguistic and cultural untranslatability, an idea that he defends in “A Dictionary for the Analysis of Literary Translation”: “A situation in which the linguistic elements of the original cannot be replaced adequately in structural, linear, functional or semantic terms in consequence of a lack of denotation or connotation ”Dominance of some cultures is consequently obvious within the World History, for instance during the time when colonia- lism represented a main ideology among many different countries. Indeed, some cultures were represented as pure and as the essence of the world’s functioning. One should say that translation of cultures may remind an inequality between cultures and peoples. Furthermore, translation of cultures provides other issues, such as conflicts between cultures and historical changes.

A two-fold process

Translation may be obviously linked to exchanges, migration and

mobility, terms which are the essence of globalization. Therefore, this

discipline presents a two-fold process, that is to say the transnational (across borders) and translational (exchange of translations) concepts. This two-fold process withdraws the separation between the source and the target language and enables to negotiate cultural differences. These global 'negotiations of difference' are especially crucial in postcolonial settings and can be read as 'performative negotiations of cultural differences in a process of de- and recontextualization'.

Culture and civilization

Cultural translation obviously implies the notion of culture, which needs here to be defined, in order to understand well the term cultural translation. Culture offers two different meanings: the first one defines culture as a civilized society in a developed country, whereas the second one considers culture as a whole set of behaviors and ways of life that a people shares. As previously explained, culture gets an important role and meaning in translation. According to Katan, culture is a shared model of the world, hierarchical model of beliefs, values and strategies which can guide action and interaction of people. Culture can be acquired through diverse ways, like education. The term civilization is defined as a developed human society which managed to create its own culture through people. Through this concept, a translator is able to translate a text by solving the issue of a culture’s development. In this case, Newmarkis convinced that translation is culturally valued, that is to say

translation improves cultures “development within the entire world. As civilization lead to the creation of evident ways of communication, such alphabet, dictionaries and to a tremendous development of

languages and literatures, this process raised new questions in cultural translation. Culture has a huge influence on society and politics of a country, in terms of ideology. According to some translation

researchers such as Even-Zohar, Bassnett and Trivedi, culture is also linked to the will of power and to the way people pretend to this power. In this sense, translation deals with making systems of ideologies comprehensible for the readers. Translation of cultures is therefore linked to ethics and explains a new way of thinking. This kind of translation must show the context and the personal way of thinking through translated texts.

In 1988 Newmark defined culture as "the way of life and its manifestations that are peculiar to a community that uses a particular language as its means of expression", thus acknowledging that each language group has its own culturally specific features. He also introduced 'Cultural word' which the readership is unlikely to understand and the translation strategies for this kind of concept depend on the particular text-type, requirements of the readership and client and importance of the cultural word in the text. Peter Newmark also categorized the cultural words as follows:

1) Ecology: flora, fauna, hills, winds, plains

2) Material Culture: food, clothes, houses and towns, transport

3) Social Culture: work and leisure

4) Organizations Customs, Activities, Procedures, Concepts:• Political and administrative• Religious• artistic

5) Gestures and Habits

He introduced contextual factors for translation process which include:

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

Some strategies introduced by Newmark for dealing with cultural gap:

1) Naturalization: A strategy when a SL word is transferred into TL text in its original form.

2) Couplet or triplet and quadruplet: Is another technique the translator adopts at the time of transferring, naturalizing or calques to avoid any misunderstanding: according to him it is a number of strategies combine together to handle one problem.

3) Neutralization: Neutralization is a kind of paraphrase at the level of word. If it is at higher level it would be a paraphrase. When the SL item is generalized (neutralized) it is paraphrased with some culture free words.

4) Descriptive and functional equivalent: In explanation of source language cultural item there is two elements: one is descriptive and another one would be functional. Descriptive equivalent talks about size, color and composition. The functional equivalent talks about the purpose of the SL cultural-specific word.

5) Explanation as footnote: The translator may wish to give extra information to the TL reader. He would explain this extra information in a footnote. It may come at the bottom of the page, at the end of chapter or at the end of the book.

6) Cultural equivalent: The SL cultural word is translated by TL cultural word

7) Compensation: A technique which is used when confronting a loss of meaning, sound effect, pragmatic effect or metaphor in one part of a text. The word or concept is compensated in other part of the text.

General cultural implications for translation

Language and culture may thus be seen as being closely related and both aspects must be considered for translation. When considering the translation of cultural words and notions, Newmark proposes two opposing methods: transference and componential analysis. As Newmark mentions, transference gives "local colour" keeping

cultural names and concepts. Although placing the emphasis on culture, meaningful to initiated readers, he claims this method may cause

problems for the general readership and limit the comprehension of

certain aspects. The importance of the translation process in

communication leads Newmark to propose componential analysis which he describes as being "the most accurate translation procedure, which excludes the culture and highlights the message". This may be

compared to the scale proposed by Hervey at all, visualised as follows:

Nida's definitions of formal and dynamic equivalence may also be seen to apply when considering cultural implications for translation. According to Nida, a "gloss translation" mostly typifies formal

equivalence where form and content are reproduced as faithfully as possible and the TL reader is able to "understand as much as he can of the customs, manner of thought, and means of expression" of the SL context. Contrasting with this idea, dynamic equivalence "tries to relate the receptor to modes of behavior relevant within the context of his own culture" without insisting that he "understand the cultural patterns of the source-language context" (idem).

The Importance of Culture in Translation

The definition of "culture" as given in the Concise Oxford Dictionary varies from descriptions of the "Arts" to plant and bacteria cultivation and includes a wide range of intermediary aspects. More specifically concerned with language and translation, Newmark defines culture as "the way of life and its manifestations that are peculiar to a community that uses a particular language as its means of expression", thus acknowledging that each language group has its own culturally specific features. He further clearly states that operationally he does "not regard language as a component or feature of culture" in direct opposition to the view taken by Vermeer who states that "language is part of a culture". According to Newmark, Vermeer's stance would imply the impossibility to translate whereas for the latter, translating the source language (SL) into a suitable form of TL is part of the translator's role in transcultural communication. The notion of culture is essential to considering the implications for translation and, despite the differences in opinion as to whether language is part of culture or not, the two notions appear to be inseparable. Discussing the problems of correspondence in translation, Nida confers equal importance to both linguistic and cultural differences between the SL and the TL and concludes that "differences between cultures may cause more severe complications for the translator than do differences in language structure". It is further explained that parallels in culture often provide a common understanding despite significant formal shifts in the translation. The cultural implications for translation are thus of

significant importance as well as lexical concerns. Lotman's theory states that "no language can exist unless it is steeped in the context of culture; and no culture can exist which does not have at its centre, the structure of natural language". Bassnett underlines the importance of this double consideration when translating by stating that language is "the heart within the body of culture," the survival of both aspects being interdependent. Linguistic notions of transferring meaning are seen as being only part of the translation process; "a whole set of extra-

linguistic criteria" must also be considered. As Bassnett further points out, "the translator must tackle the SL text in such a way that the TL version will correspond to the SL version. To attempt to impose the value system of the SL culture onto the TL culture is dangerous ground" . Thus, when translating, it is important to consider not only the lexical impact on the TL reader, but also the manner in which cultural aspects may be perceived and make translating decisions accordingly.

Questions:

1. Who is Md. Ziaul Haque?
2. Importance of culture in translation?
3. When considering the translation of cultural words and notions, Newmark proposes two opposing methods..Which are they?
4. Speak about Lotman theory?
5. How Newmark defines culture ?

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Lecture 14

Theme: Translation of technical terms.

Plan:

1. Technical terms.
2. Particularities of technical terms.
3. Problems of technical terms in the translation

Introductory words: Advanced process control, Alternating current, Air-insulated switchgear, Back-to-back connection, Base-load power plant, Closed Control System (CCS)

Ped-technologies: mini group work

General information about technical translation

Technical translating

Technical translation is a type of specialized translation involving the translation of documents produced by technical writers (owner's manuals, user guides, etc.), or more specifically, texts which relate to technological subject areas or texts which deal with the practical application of scientific and technological information. While the presence of specialized terminology is a feature of technical texts, specialized terminology alone is not sufficient for classifying a text as "technical" since numerous disciplines and subjects which are not "technical" possess what can be regarded as specialized terminology. Technical translation covers the translation of many kinds of specialized texts and requires a high level of subject knowledge and mastery of the relevant terminology and writing conventions.

The importance of consistent terminology in technical translation, for example in patents, as well as the highly formulaic and repetitive nature of technical writing makes using translation memories and terminology databases especially appropriate. In his book *Technical Translation* Jody Byrne argues that technical translation is closely related to technical communication and that it can benefit from research in this and other areas such as usability and cognitive psychology.

In addition to making texts with technical jargon accessible for a wider ranging audience, technical translation also involves linguistic features of translating technological texts from one language to another

Translation as a whole is a balance of art and science influenced by both theory and practice. Having knowledge of both the linguistic features as well as the aesthetic features of translation applies directly to the field of technical translation.

As a field, technical translation has been recognized, studied, and developed since the 1960s. Stemmnom the field of translation studies, the field of technical translation traditionally emphasized much importance on the source language from which text is translated. However, over the years there has been a movement away from this traditional approach to a focus on the purpose of the translation and on the intended audience. This is perhaps because only 5-10% of items in a technical document are terminology, while the other 90-95% of the text is language, most likely in a natural style of the source language. Though technical translation is only one subset of the different types of professional translation, it is the largest subset as far as output is concerned. Currently, more than 90% of all professionally translated work is done by technical translators, highlighting the importance and significance of the field.

The role of the technical translator is to not only be a transmitter of information, but also to be a constructor of procedural discourse and knowledge through meaning, particularly because often, the technical translator may also take on the role of the technical writer.Research has demonstrated that technical communicators do, in fact, create new meaning as opposed to simply repackaging (198) old information. This emphasizes the important role that technical translators play in making meaning, whether they are doing technical translation in one language or in multiple languages.

Much like professionals in the field of technical communication, the technical translator must have a cross-curricular and multifaceted background. In addition to grasping theoretical and linguistic orientations for the actual translation process, an understanding of other subjects, such as cognitive psychology, usability engineering, and technical communication, is necessary for a successful technical translator. Additionally, most technical translators work within a specialized field such as cal or legal technical translation, which highlights the importance of an interdisciplinary background. Finally, the technical translators should also become familiar with the field of professional translation through training.

Technical translation requires a solid knowledge base of technological skills, particularly if the translator chooses to utilize computer-assisted translation (CAT) or machine translation (MT). Though some technical translators complete all translation without the use of CAT or MT, this is often with pieces that require more creativity in the document. Documents dealing with mechanics or engineering that contain frequently translated phrases and concepts are often translated using CAT or MT.

Technical translations comprise a highly varied sector in which absolute precision and attention to detail are required. In order to produce an accurate translation, in depth knowledge and understanding of the sector and the textual conventions which characterise it are necessary. The translator must be able to understand the technical terminology of the source language and the target language and must be able to use appropriate technical terminology in the language into which he/she translates. This means that he/she must have command of the technical jargon used by the authors of the texts and with which the readers of the translated texts are familiar. In the case of recurrent projects, the use of the translation memory allows for reduction in costs and increased speed of translation.

Actuator: In electrical engineering, the term actuator refers to a mechanism that causes a device to be turned on or off, adjusted or moved, usually in response to anelectrical signal. In some literature the terms actor oreffector are also used. The term “effector” is preferred by programmers, whereas engineers tend to favor "actuator." An example of an actuator is a motor that closes blinds in response to a signal from a sunlight detector. Actuators enable computers to control complex manufacturing processes without human intervention or supervision.

Advanced process control (APC): In general terms, advanced process control refers to large-scale computer systems that are used to monitor and control processing plants such as cement factories or oil refineries. The systems extend traditional process control, which is used to monitor and control individual processes, by evaluating and controlling multiple processes across the plant. By monitoring multiple processes, APC systems can optimize operations for multiple parameters, evaluating the impact each adjustment will have on neighboring operations by referencing current and historical data. With a broad yet detailed view of an entire plant's operations, APC applications allow processes to operate closer to their maximum capacity, while maintaining the necessary standards of reliability and safety. Air-insulated switchgear: see Switchgear.

Algorithm: A set of (mathematical) instructions or procedures for carrying out a specific task such as defining the steps taken by an automation system.

Alternating current (AC): Alternating current is a form of electricity in which the current alternates in direction (and the voltage alternates in polarity) at a frequency defined by the generator (usually between 50 and 60 times per second, ie, 50 - 60 hertz). AC was adopted for power transmission in the early days of electricity supply

Arc welding: A group of welding procedures that fuse metal pieces by melting them together, using heat from an electric arc between an electrode and the work piece. The arc is caused by electrical current flowing though plasma consisting of ionized air molecules and metalions. Material from the electrode is transferred to the work piece, and the electrode is consumed over time. Arcwelding processes are attractive because of their low capital and running costs.

Arc-welding cell: The area of a factory set up to weld metals using electric arcs. ABB provides modular robotic arc-welding cells that are ready to install in a customer's plant.

Asset management: Also referred to as industrial and plant asset management. Asset management systems collect and manage data on the condition and availability of major plant equipment in discrete and process manufacturing plants.

Back-to-back connection: In HVDC terms, links used to connect neighboring grids are often referred to as “back-to-back” connections, indicating that the distance between the two grids is minimal. Such connections are able to link independent power grids, including those operating at different frequencies, and enable power to flow from one grid to another. This means that generators on either grid can be used to secure the supply of electricity across the extended network. The connections can also improve voltage and frequency stability in the linked grids. Note: The term “back-to-back connection” is also used to describe a test set-up for electrical devices where a motor and a generator are connected to the same shaft line

berm: a sloped wall or embankment (typically constructed of earth, hay bales, or timber framing) used to prevent inflow or outflow of material into/from an area.

bioassay: a method used to determine the toxicity of specific chemical contaminants. A number of individuals of a sensitive species are placed in water containing specific concentrations of the contaminant for a specified period of time.

bioaugmentation: the introduction of cultured microorganisms into the subsurface environment for the purpose of enhancing bioremediation of organic contaminants. Generally the microorganisms are selected for their ability to degrade the organic compounds present at the remediation site. The culture can be either an isolated genus or a mix of more than one genera. Nutrients are usually also blended with the aqueous solution containing the microbes to serve as a carrier and dispersant. The liquid is introduced into the subsurface under natural conditions (gravity fed) or injected under pressure.

bioavailability: the availability of a compound for biodegradation, influenced by the compound's location relative to microorganisms and its ability to dissolve in water.

biocide: a substance capable of destroying (killing) living organisms.

biodegradability (or biodegradation potential): the relative ease with which petroleum hydrocarbons will degrade as the result of biological metabolism. Although virtually all petroleum hydrocarbons are biodegradable, biodegradability is highly variable and dependent somewhat on the type of hydrocarbon. In general, biodegradability increases with increasing solubility; solubility is inversely proportional to molecular weight.

biodegradation: a process by which microbial organisms transform or alter (through metabolic or enzymatic action) the structure of chemicals introduced into the environment.

biomass: the amount of living matter in a given area or volume.

boiling point: the temperature at which a component's vapor pressure equals atmospheric pressure. Boiling point is a relative indicator of volatility and generally increases with increasing molecular weight.

Btu: "British Thermal Unit"; the quantity of heat required to raise the temperature of one pound of water one degree Fahrenheit at 39 degrees F; used as the standard for the comparison of heating values of fuels.

bubble radius: the maximum radial distance away from a biosparging well where the effects of sparging are observable. Analogous to radius of influence of an air sparging well.

condensate: the liquid that separates from a vapor during condensation.

conductivity: a coefficient of proportionality describing the rate at which a fluid (*e.g.*, water or gas) can move through a permeable medium. Conductivity is a function of both the intrinsic permeability of the porous medium and the kinematic viscosity of the fluid which flows through it.

cone of depression: the area around a discharging well where the hydraulic head (potentiometric surface) in the aquifer has been lowered by pumping. In an unconfined aquifer, the cone of depression is a cone-shaped depression in the water table where the media has actually been dewatered.

confined aquifer: a fully saturated aquifer overlain by a confining layer. The potentiometric surface (hydraulic head) of the water in a confined aquifer is at an elevation that is equal to or higher than the base of the overlying confining layer. Discharging wells in a confined aquifer lower the potentiometric surface which forms a cone of depression, but the saturated media is not dewatered.

confining layer: a geologic formation characterized by low permeability that inhibits the flow of water (see also aquitard).

conservative: (a) in the case of a contaminant, one that does not degrade and the movement of which is not retarded; is unreactive. (b) in the case of an assumption, one that leads to a worst-case scenario, one that is most protective of human health and the environment.

constituent: an essential part or component of a system or group (e.g., an ingredient of a chemical mixture). For instance, benzene is one constituent of gasoline.

cyclone: a type of separator for removal of larger particles from an exhaust gas stream. Gas laden with particulates enters the cyclone and is directed to flow in a spiral causing the entrained particulates to fall out and collect at the bottom. The gas exits near the top of the cyclone.

heat capacity: the quantity of energy that must be supplied to raise the temperature of a substance. For contaminated soils heat capacity is the quantity of energy that must be added to the soil to volatilize organic components. The typical range of heat capacity of soils is relatively narrow, therefore variations are not likely to have a major impact on application of a thermal desorption process.

Henry's law constant: the ratio of the concentration of a compound in air (or vapor) to the concentration of the compound in water under equilibrium conditions.

Henry's law: the relationship between the partial pressure of a compound and the equilibrium concentration in the liquid through a proportionality constant known as the Henry's law constant.

heterogeneous: varying in structure or composition at different locations in space.

heterotrophic: designating or typical of organisms that derive carbon for the manufacture of cell mass from organic matter.

homogeneous: uniform in structure or composition at all locations in space.

hose barb: a twist-type connector used for connecting a small diameter hose to a valve or faucet.

hydraulic conductivity: a coefficient of proportionality describing the rate at which water can move through a permeable medium. Hydraulic conductivity is a function of both the intrinsic permeability of the porous medium and the kinematic viscosity of the water which flows through it. Also referred to as the coefficient of permeability.

hydraulic gradient: the change in total potentiometric (or piezometric) head between two points divided by the horizontal distance separating the two points.

hydrocarbon: chemical compounds composed only of carbon and hydrogen.

hydrogen peroxide: H(2)O(2). Hydrogen peroxide is used to increase the dissolved oxygen content of groundwater to stimulate aerobic biodegradation of organic contaminants. Hydrogen peroxide is infinitely soluble in water, but rapidly dissociates to form a molecule of water [H(2)O] and one-half molecule of oxygen [O]. Dissolved oxygen concentrations of greater than 1,000 mg/L are possible using hydrogen peroxide, but high levels of D.O. can be toxic to microorganisms.

hydrophilic: having an affinity for water, or capable of dissolving in water; soluble or miscible in water.

hydrophobic: tending not to combine with water, or incapable of dissolving in water; insoluble or immiscible in water. A property exhibited by non-polar organic compounds, including the petroleum hydrocarbons.

hypoxic: a condition of low oxygen concentration, below that considered aerobic.

Questions:

1. Why we need to technical terms?

2. Show particularities of technical terms on translation.

3. What kind of problems of technical terms in the translation?

4. What is collaborative production management

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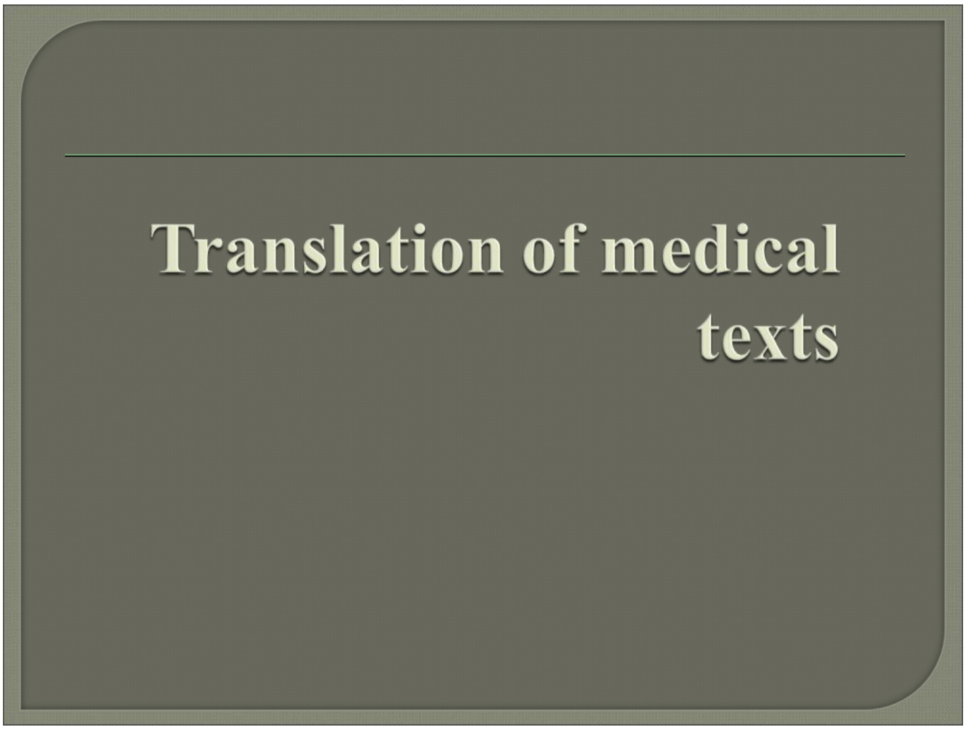
Lecture 15

Theme: Translation of Medical texts

Plan:

1. Translation of Medical Terms
2. Modes
3. Particularity of medical terms
4. The function of popular science texts in
   the field of health care.

Introductory words: medical terms, peculiarities of translating medical terms, function of medical term, Body's Systems, muscular, urinary, nervous, endocrine, respiratory.



Introduction

Translation of Medical Terms

The translation of medical terms from English into Uzbek represents an interesting and rich area for translation studies. This article provides a contribution to the characterization of the main translation-related problems encountered in this area. All European languages share the same Greco-Latin roots in medical terminology. The preservation of the Latin language as the language of sciences until the 19th century, contributed to a great range of lexical similarities in medical nomenclature, and its effects can be observed until today. The knowledge of the Latin roots helps professionals in the field of medicine understand medical texts in different languages. The purpose of this study is not only to describe but also to classify the analyzed examples. We believe that this categorization of cases will help professional translators and students in finding solutions when they encounter certain names of diseases in English which have to be translated into Uzbek. The main focus of this article is the communication between non-professionals, in particular journalists who write for a general readership that has no special medical background knowledge.

The function of popular science texts in the field of health care

During the last decades, the number of scientific publications, in particular publications from the field of health care, has increased enormously. On the one hand, advances in education contributed to the emergence of non-professional, but well-informed readers with a rising interest in health care issues. An ever increasing number is interested in learning more about their own body. On the other hand, the rapid development of media and communication technologies has decisively contributed to the popularization of medical terms, which today form an integral part of everyday language. Health care is a widespread concern, and patients expect their doctors to provide them with more and more detailed information. The increase in the number of publications of popular science texts has made a very remarkable contribution to the spread of medical language among the general population. However, the use of scientific terms may constitute a comprehension barrier between the doctor and the patient, which is why professionals prefer to use terms from the everyday language when talking to their patients. Such communication may, however, lead to misunderstandings due to the fact that doctor and patient have a completely different notion of one and the same concept. In Uzbek, for instance, the doctor normally uses the term “Qandli diabet”, whereas the patient would rather opt for the word 'sugar disease'. The term Sugar disease gives a quite general idea of the disease and just underlines one aspect of the whole pathological condition.

The main reason for our research is the specificity of medical terms in Uzbek. While in English, many terms, especially names of diseases apendicite, cataratas, conjuntivite are used in both professional and non-professional communication, i.e. between doctors as well as between patients, in Uzbek we normally come across two terms that belong to the same concept. One term is of Latin origin and typical of communication between experts, the other one has Uzbek roots and is part of everyday language.

Let us illustrate this situation by giving an example: Whereas the Uzbek professional (doctor) would use the term “Ko’richak”, in the communication between non-professionals the word Blinddarmentzundung would be preferred. When translating from English (or from other Romance languages) into Uzbek, it is evident that the option for either the Latin (or Greek) term or the Uzbek term is by no means arbitrary and depends basically on the "skopos" of the translation. If the text to be translated addresses a general audience, it would be correct to use the term of Uzbek origin, whereas in a translation for professionals the erudite term of Latin origin would be adequate. Although the question of synonymy (in sensu lato) seems evident, it is a matter of fact that words and their use undergo constant evolution, which may result in additional problems for the translation.

As it happened in economics, for example, the dissemination of medicine enriched everyday language with terms that before had been used exclusively by professionals, whereas, at the same time, other Uzbek words fell into disuse and sound antiquated while they are still used in the area of medicine. Apart from that, everyday language also 'absorbed' disease terms which relate to currently discovered diseases and new ways of treatment. Due to all of these reasons, the translation of medical terms may present a translation problem. This is why we intend to contribute to the identification of a set of problems encountered when dealing with medical texts in translation classes and try to offer some possible solutions for particular translation problems. We focused, therefore, on English popular science texts that were extracted from the Internet. These texts appeared in thematic sections of general publications, in health care magazines, and in information leaflets directed at a general readership. Most of these texts were written by technical journalists and not by physicians.

When translating medical terms from English into Uzbek in popular science texts, students are often uncertain about whether to opt for the erudite term or the term from everyday language. It is exactly this synonymy that presents a challenge for the translator. According to the translation skopos, it is necessary to decide on one term. For better understanding of this tricky translation problem, we analyzed different popular science texts and came up with a typology consisting of three main cases, one of them divided into several subgroups. This classification shall contribute to improving transparency when translating medical texts written for a non-professional readership.

We also observed a very strong tendency of popularization of erudite terms in popular science texts. These texts are often written by technical translators for non-professionals in order to inform or instruct them. It is, however, important to underline that today's non-professionals are different from those of some decades ago. Nowadays, it has become more and more important for a patient to learn about the most common diseases, their symptoms and how to protect themselves against them. The modern patient is more curious and also more demanding. This fact is closely linked to the general tendency of popularization in science. It can therefore be expected that Latin terms will become more widespread in popular science

Your Body's Systems

Your body is made up of many systems, each having their own vital parts that work together. This list represents your bodily systems and the specific parts that comprise them:

- **Skeletal:** Bones, axial skeleton, appendicular skeleton, and joints

- **Muscular:** Muscles and tendons
- **Integumentary:** Skin, hair, nails, and glands in skin
- **Sensory:** Eyes, ears, nose, skin receptors, and mouth
- **Cardiovascular:** Heart, blood vessels, and blood
- **Lymphatic:** Tonsils, spleen, thymus, lymph nodes, lymphatic vessels, and lymph fluid
- **Respiratory:** Nose, pharynx, larynx, trachea, bronchi, and lungs
- **Gastrointestinal:** Mouth, esophagus, stomach, small and large intestines, pancreas, liver, and gallbladder
- **Endocrine:** Hormones, pituitary gland, thyroid, adrenal glands, pancreas, and gonads
- **Nervous:** Brain, spinal cord, ganglia, nerves, and sensory organs
- **Urinary:** Kidneys, ureters, bladder, and urethra
- **Reproductive:** Ovaries, uterine tubes, uterus, and vagina in females; testes, ducts, penis, urethra, and prostate in males

MEDICAL TERMINOLOGY ABBREVIATIONS

The following list contains some of the most common abbreviations found in medical records. Please note that in medical terminology, the capitalization of letters bears significance as to the meaning of certain terms, and is often used to distinguish terms with similar acronyms.

@—at

A & P—anatomy and physiology

ab—abortion

abd—abdominal

ABG—arterial blood gas

a.c.—before meals

ac & cl—acetest and clinitest

ACLS—advanced cardiac life support

AD—right ear

ADL—activities of daily living

ad lib—as desired

adm—admission

afeb—afebrile, no fever

AFB—acid-fast bacillus

AKA—above the knee

Medical terms

Skeletal	*skelet*
Muscular	*muskullar*
Integumentary	*qoplama*
Sensory	*sensualizm*
Cardiovascular	*yurak tomirlari*
Lymphatic	*limfatik*
Respiratory	*nafas olish yo'llari*
Endocrine	*ichki sekretsiya bezlari*
Nervous	*asab*
Urinary	*siydikka oid*
Blood pressure	*qon bosimi*
Neurology	*nevrologiya*
Mental health	*ruhiy sog'lomlik*
Arthritis	*bo'g'in yallig'lanishi*
Asthma	*astma*

Cholesterol	*xolestrin*
Infectious disease	*yuqumli kasallik*
Lung conditions	*o'pka holati*
Medications	*davolanish*
Menopause	*klimaks davri*
Pregnancy	*homiladorlik*
Thyroid	*qalqonsimon bez*
Vitamin	*vitamin*
Temperature	*harorat*
Deep breath	*chuqur nafas*

Questions:

1. What is medical terms?

2. What methods are used in translating medical terms?

3. How translate medical terminology abbreviations?

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Lecture **16**

Theme: Simultaneous translation in conferences.

Plan:

1. About simultaneous translation and types of simultaneous translation.
2. History of simultaneous translation and simultaneous translation in conferences.
3. Problems of translating in conferences.

Key words: interpreter, simultaneous interpreting, Whispered Interpreting, conference interpreters, lead language

Ped-technologies: individual work

About simultaneous translation and types of simultaneous translation.

In simultaneous interpreting, the interpreter sits in an interpreting booth, listening to the speaker through a headset and interprets into a microphone while listening. Delegates in the conference room listen to the target-language version through a headset.

Simultaneous interpreting is also done by signed language interpreters (or interpreters for the deaf) from a spoken into a signed language and vice versa. Signed language interpreters do not sit in the booth; they stand in the conference room where they can see the speaker and be seen by other participants.

Whispered interpreting is a form of simultaneous interpreting in which the interpreter does not sit in a booth in the conference room, but next to the delegate who needs the interpreting, and whispers the target- language version of the speech in the delegate's ears.

None of these modes of interpreting is restricted to the conference setting. Simultaneous interpreting, for instance, has been used in large conferences, forums and whispered interpreting may be used in a business meeting.

The conference interpreters, in a way, becomes the delegates they are interpreting. They speak in the first person when the delegate does so, not translating along the lines of 'He says that he thinks this is a useful idea...' The conference interpreting must empathize with the delegate, put themselves in someone else's shoes.

The interpreter must be able to do this work in two modes: consecutive interpretation, and simultaneous interpretation. In the first of these, the interpreter listens to the totality of speaker's comments, or at least a significant passage, and then reconstitutes the speech with the help of notes taken while listening; the interpreter is thus speaking consecutively to the original speaker. Some speakers prefer to talk for just a few sentences and then invite interpreters. The interpreter can perhaps work without notes and rely solely on their memory to reproduce the whole speech.

However, a conference interpreter should be able to cope with speeches of any length; they should develop the techniques of interpreting.

In practice, if interpreters can do a five-minute speech satisfactorily, they should be able to deal with any length of speech.

It is also clear that conference interpreters work in 'real time'. In simultaneous, by definition, they cannot take longer than the original speaker, except for odd seconds. Even in consecutive they are expected to react immediately after the speaker has finished, and their interpretation must be fast and efficient. This means that interpreters must have the capacity not only to analyze and resynthesise ideas, but also to do so very quickly.

In most cases nowadays simultaneous interpreting is done with the appropriate equipment: delegates speak into microphones, which relay the sound directly to interpreters seated in sound-proofed booths listening to the proceeding through ear-phones; the interpreters in turn speak into a microphone which relay their interpretation dedicated channel to headphones worn by delegates who wish to listen to interpreting. However, in some cases, such equipment is not available, and simultaneous interpreting is whispered.

One of the participants speaks and simultaneously an interpreter whispers into the ear of the one or maximum two people who require interpreting services.

Clearly, simultaneous interpreting takes up less time than consecutive. Moreover, with simultaneous it is much more feasible to provide multilingual interpreting, with as six languages (UN) or even eleven (European Union). Given this advantage and widening membership of international organizations, more and more interpreting is being done in simultaneous.

History of simultaneous translation and simultaneous translation in conferences.

Conference interpreting was born during World War I. Until then, important international meetings were held in French, the international language at the time. During World War I, some high-ranking American and British negotiators did not speak French, which made it necessary to resort to interpreters. Especially after the Nuremberg trials (1945-46) and Tokyo trials (1946-68), conference interpreting became more widespread. It is now used widely, not only at international conferences but also on radio and TV programs.

The first experiment in simultaneous conference interpreting dates back to 1928, the 6-th Cementer Congress. There were no telephones. The speaker's message reached the interpreters' ears directly. The first booth and headphones appeared in 1933 at the Xlllth Plenary Meeting of the Comintern Executive .A group of Russian simultaneous interpreters from Moscow formed part of the conference interpreter's team servicing the Nuremberg Trials and another one participated in the Tokyo Trials of the Japanese war criminals.

The interpreters who worked at those first conferences came out of the Nuremberg Trial Interpretation Service where they had made their debute as simultaneous interpreters. They had been young graduates of the Military Institute of Foreign Languages (established in 1942 on the basis of the Military Department of the Moscow Pedagogical Institute of Foreign Languages), where they were trained as military translators- interpreters (Mishkurov 1997), Moscow Institute of Foreign Languages, Moscow University, and the Institute of Philosophy and Literature (IFLI), as well as several staff members of the Foreign Ministry and the Society for Cultural Exchanges with Foreign Countries took a part in training interpreters (Gofman 1963 .20). Some of the most capable among them formed the first post-war group of free-lance conference interpreters in Russia.

An International Economic Conference serviced with simultaneous interpreting was conducted in 1952 in Moscow, employing over fifty simultaneous interpreters with six conference languages: Russian, English, French, German, Spanish and Chinese. The lead language-changing mode is a purely national system based on one native tongue common to all members of the team of simultaneous interpreters, which in fact serves as a "lead language"

Since 1962 the United Nations Language Training Course in Moscow, at the Maurice Thorez Institute of Foreign Languages, set itself as a school where 5 to 7 simultaneous conference interpreters are trained annually for the Russian Booth of the UN Secretariat in New York, Geneva and Vienna.

A decade later, in 1971, a postgraduate Advanced Translating and Interpreting Schools at the same college introduced a two-year course of simultaneous conference interpretation in A to B and B to A language combination, if so desired by the student.

Simultaneous translation studies began after the invention of the multichannel tape recorder and were done at roughly the same time by several researchers at the end of the sixties and the beginning of the seventies (Henri C.Barik in the United States and Canada 1971; D.Gerver in the United Kingdom 1974; I. A. Zimnyaya in Russia and others.

Shiryayev writes that simultaneous interpretation as a specialized activity consists of Steps or Actions, each of which has several stages. The most important stages are: stage of orientation, stage of the search for, the translation decision and execution stage. When the speaking rate in the source language is slow, enough, stage one of step two follows stage three of step one there is no simultaneity of listening and speaking, in fact.

The simultaneous interpretation is a complex type. It is bilingual, sense- oriented.

Historically, research in conference interpreting can be broken down into four periods; early writings, the experimental period, the practitioner's period and the renewal period (Gile 1994)

The early writings period covers the 1950s and early 1960s. During this period, some interpreters and interpreting teachers in Geneva (Herbert 1952, Rozan 1965 Ilg 1959) and Brussels (van Hoof 1962) started thinking and writing about their profession. These were intuitive and personal publications with practical didactic and professional aims, but they did identify most of the fundamental issues that are still debated today.

The experimental period includes the1960 and early 1970s. A few psychologists and psycholinguists such *as* Treisman, Oleron and Nanpon, Goldman-Eisler, Gerver, and Barik became interested in interpreting. They undertook a number of experimental studies on specific psychological and psycholinguistic aspects of simultaneous interpreting and studied the effect on performance of variability such as source language, speed of delivery, ear-voice span (i.e. the interval between the moment a piece of information is perceived and the moment it is reformulated in the target language), noise, pauses in speech delivery, etc.

During the practitioner's period, which started in late 1960s and continued into the 1970s and early 1980s, interpreters, and especially interpreters teachers, began to develop an interesting theory. There was much activity in Paris,West Germany, East Germany, Switzerland and other European countries, as well as in Russia, Czechoslovakia and Japan. Most of the research was speculative or theoretical rather than empirical, and most Western authors, except a group at ESIT (Ecole Superieure dTnterpretes et de Traducters) in Paris, worked in relative isolation.

From a cognitive psychological point of view, simultaneous interpretation is a complex human information processing activity composed of a series of independent skills. The interpreter receives a meaning unit. He begins translating and conveying meaning unit 1. At the same time, meaning unit 2 arrives while the interpreter is still involved with the vocalization of meaning unit 1. Thus the interpreter must be able to hold unit 2 in some type of echoic memory or short term memory before interpretation. (Gerver 1971), Furthermore, while conveying unit 1, the interpreter is also verifying and monitoring the correct delivery of that meaning unit. The interpreter has to learn to monitor, store, retrieve, and translate source language input while simultaneously transforming a message into target language output at the same time.

There are, in fact, so many activities involved during simultaneous interpretation. Pedagogical approach should tease these activities apart, differentiate the component skills, and where possible, provide training experiences in each one.

Problems of translating in conferences.

Problems of training of conference interpreters have been the frequent subject of debate and research by translators as well as psychologists and linguists (Weller 1983; Gerver, Longley, Long and Lambert 1984; 1989; Moser-Mercer 1985; Schweda- Nicholson 1986; and Lambert and Meyer 1988).Chernov, Shvetser, Salamov, Barhudarov and others.

What qualities and skills are required for success as an interpreters in the field? Although relatively little empirical research has been carried out on this subject (Weller 1983; Longley, Long and Lambert 1984; 1989; Moser-Mercer1985; and Schneider-Nicholson 1986).A survey of articles written suggests some agreements of the following.

1.Profound knowledge of active and passive languages and culture.

2.Ability to grasp rapidly and convey the essential meaning of what is being said.

3.Ability to project information with a good voice.

4.Wide general knowledge and interest, and a willingness to acquire new information,

5.Ability to work as a participant or a delegate of the conference.

Furthermore, the actual exercises we propose can also serve as

eliminatory tests in that. Student-interpreters may be discouraged from moving on to the next stage if they are unable to master graded skills, in the same way that wishing to drive a car and could not force gear or drive on.

Questions:

1. Peculiarities of simultaneous translation?
2. What is simultaneous translation from a cognitive psychological point of view?
3. When conference translation was born?
4. Speak about whispered interpreting?
5. Speak about simultaneous translation’s history?

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Questions on Current assessment

1. Translation theory. Objects, aims and methods of anal.
2. The notion of Translation. Dif approaches to the def-n
3. The place of TT among other branches.
4. Translation theory: it’s emergence. History.
5. Comparative linguistics and translation theory
6. The object of translation comparative studies in various levels.
7. Unit of translation. UOT
8. Choice of unit of translation on various language levels
9. Types of translation single out on the basis of var.criteria

10. the notion of translatability
11. Equivalence and Adequacy of translation
12. Types of semantic correlation of Eng and Rus words
13. The notion of correspondences . Theory of regular correspondences by Retsker
14. The theory of the types of equivalence by Kommisarov
15. Equivalent correspondences -types,definits,role in T.
16. Variant correspondences (VC). Definition, uses
17. Contextual correspondences (CC) definits,types, uses
18. the notion of analogues, their role in translation
19. Micro- and macro-context. Use of contextual correspondences
20. Lexical problems of translation at word level
21. Translation transformations (TTfn) definitions, aims
22. Substitutions
23. Transformations of restructuring
24. Complex lexico-grammatical transformation – antomymic t-n, addition, omissions.
25. Context-free words: proper names in translation
26. Handling E noun phrases w/ multiple pre-mods in T.
27. International and pseudo-international words
28. Rendering words having no equivalences
29. Problems of rendering phraseological units
30. Terms, problems of translating terms in parallel dics
31. Difficulties inherent in translating neologisms
32. Modal component in textual info. Renderin modality
33. Grammatical divergences of E & R at pre-text level
34. Translation problems at textual level
35. Functions of the English article; means of compen-n
36. English absolute nominative constructions.
37. Problems of rendering word order Eng-Rus
38. Problems of rendering word order Rus-Eng
39. Translating Ru verbal adverbs
40. the correlation of Passive w-form in E and R
41. Rendering passive voice constructions
42. Rendering tense-aspect forms Eng-Rus
43. Rendering tense-aspect forms Rus-Eng
44. Rendering newspaper materials
45. ways if rendering newspaper headlines
46. Grammatical peculiarities of translating newspaper articles
47. Lexico-phraseological and stylistic peculiarities of translating newspaper articles.
48. Models based on componential analysis
49. Situational models of translation

Questions on Continuous assessment

1. “Theme and rheme. Defining rheme in simultaneous translation

2. “Transformation in simultaneous translation”.

3. “Types of Scientific Conferences and translating process”.

4. Translation of political terms.

5. Translation of economical terms.

6. Translation of Cultural texts.

7. Translation of Technical texts.

8. Translation of Medical texts.

9. Simultaneous Translation in Conferences.

10. Defining rheme in simultaneous translation.

11. Types of translation. Oral translation: Synchronous translation.

12. A sight translation.

13. Synchronous translation and synchronic translator

14. Exercises used in simultaneous

15. “Translation of words and word combinations”. Political terms

16. Translation of political terms and abbreviations.

17. Pragmatic problems of Simultaneous Translation. Pragmatic adaptation in translation

18. “Compression and its types”. Syllabic. Semantics. Omission.

19. “Equivalence in Simultaneous Translation” Transformations.

Samarqand davlat chet tillar instituti tarjima nazariyasi va amaliyoti kafedrasida ishlab chiqilgan bakalavriat tarjimonlik yo'nalishi uchun mo'ljallangan "Sinxron tarjima" fanidan III kurs talabalari uchun ishchi o'quv dasturiga

TAQRIZ

Vatanimiz o'z mustaqilligini qo'lga kiritgach yangi bir avlod shakllanib, keng va chuqur bilim olishga o'zida kuchli ehtiyoj sezayotgan talabalar o'zlarini globallashuv asrida umuminsoniy qadriyatlardan bir hilda bahramand bo'lishga haqli deb hisoblamoqda. Shunday bir vaziyatda mamlakatimizning ish yurituvchi mutaxxassis kadrlarning bir jihatdan mukammal, bilimdon va zukko bo'lishi, xalqaro andozalar miqyosida fikrlashi lozimligi bugungi kun talabidir. Respublikamizda yuqori darajali tarjimonlarni tayyorlash, tarjimonlik kompetensiyasi ko'nikmasini shakllantirish, birinchi talab bo'lib kelmokda. Bu holat o'z navbatida tarjima nazariyasi yo'nalishida ta'lim olayotgan mutaxassislar tayyorlash jarayonida qiyinchiliklar tug'diradi. Shu jihatdan bakalavriat yo'nalishida tanlov fan sifatida kiritilgan "Sinxron tarjima" fani tarjimonlik sohasida yaratilayotgan fanlar qatorida juda muhim o'rin egallaydi.

Fan bo'yicha tuzilgan ishchi o'quv dastur o'z ichiga fanning maqsadi, fanning vazifasi, fan bo'yicha talabalarning bilimiga, malaka va ko'nikmasiga qo'yiladigan talablar, fanning o'quv rejadagi boshqa fanlar bilan o'zaro bog'liqligi va uslubiy jihatdan uzviy ketma–ketligi, fanning ishlab chiqarishdagi o'rni, fanni o'qitishda zamonaviy axborot va pedagogik texnologiyalar qismlarini olib, asosiy qismda Tarjima qilish usullari va ularni amaliyotda qo'llash, har xil soxaga tegishli matnlarni og'zaki va yozma tarjima qilish, tinglab tushunib tarjima qilish. Bundan tashqari talabalarni tarjima qilish jarayonida ularning eslash va etkazib berish qobiliyatini shakllantirish mashqlari kiritilgan. Xususan ilmiy anjumanlarda og'zaki nutqni ketma-ket, ko'rib tarjima qilish, kompensatsiya yoli bilan tarjima qilish usullarini qo'llash o'z ichiga oladi.

Dastur ketma-ketlik va oddiydan murakkabga prinsipi asosida tarjima qilishni, og'zaki hamda yozma tarjima ko'nikmalari va malakalariga ega bo'lishni talab etadi. Ushbu dasturning vazifasi talabalarga tarjimaning yozma, og'zaki, ona tiliga va undan chet tiliga tarjimasini hamda ilmiy anjumanlarda tarjima qilish metodlarini qo'llab tarjima qilish uslubning o'ziga xos xususiyatlari, ya'ni mazmundorligi, mantiqiyligi,