

**ЎЗБЕКИСТОН РЕСПУБЛИКАСИ ОЛИЙ ВА ЎРТА МАХСУС ТАЪЛИМ
ВАЗИРЛИГИ**

**ХУЗУРИДАГИ ОЛИЙ ТАЪЛИМ ТИЗИМИ ПЕДАГОГ ВА РАЎБАР КАДРЛАРИНИ
ҚАЙТА ТАЙЁРЛАШ ВА УЛАРНИНГ МАЛАКАСИНИ ОШИРИШНИ ТАШКИЛ
ЭТИШ
БОШ ИЛМИЙ-МЕТОДИК МАРКАЗИ**

**ЎЗБЕКИСТОН ДАВЛАТ ЖАҲОН ТИЛЛАРИ УНИВЕРСИТЕТИ ХУЗУРИДАГИ
ЧЕТ ТИЛЛАРИНИ ЎҚИТИШНИНГ ИННОВАЦИЯВИЙ МЕТОДИКАЛАРИНИ
РИВОЖЛАНТИРИШ РЕСПУБЛИКА
ИЛМИЙ-АМАЛИЙ МАРКАЗИ**

“ТАРЖИМАШУНОСЛИКНИНГ ДОЛЗАРБ МУАММОЛАРИ”

МОДУЛИ БЎЙИЧА ЎҚУВ-УСЛУБИЙ МАЖМУА

ТОШКЕНТ - 2017

Мазкур ўқув-услубий мажмуа Олий ва ўрта махсус таълим вазирлигининг
2017 йил _____даги _____сонли буйруғи билан тасдиқланган ўқув режа ва
дастур асосида тайёрланди.

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_____даги _____-сонли қарори билан тасдиққа тавсия қилинган.*

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I. ИШЧИ ДАСТУР

КИРИШ

Маълумки ҳозирги кунда чет тили ўқитувчиларига катта масъулият юкланган–халқаро стандартларга мос чет тили компетенциясига эга маънавий ва маданий баркамол авлодни табиёлаш. Бу эса, ўз навбатида, чет тилини ўқитишни мукамаллаштириш талабани келиб чиқаради.

Хорижий тилларни умумевропа стандартлари талаблари асосида ўқитишнинг лингвистик аспекти фани ўқитилиши жараёнида эгалланадиган билим, малака ва кўникмалар ихтисослик фанлар блокига кирадиган фанлар билан интеграллашуви натижасида тингловчиларнинг чет тили коммуникатив компетенцияларини (лингвистик, ижтимоий-лингвистик, дискурсив, стратегик, ижтимоий-маданий) ривожлантиришда муҳим аҳамият касб этади, чунки филологнинг касбий компетенцияси назарий фанлар ва асосий чет тили фани ўқитиш мажмуида шаклланади.

Ушбу дастур мазкур курснинг коммуникатив тилшунослик, лингвопрагматика, когнитив тилшунослик, коммуникатив тилшунослик лингвокультурология, назарий грамматика, назарий фонетика каби тилшуносликнинг фундаментал йўналишларини ҳисобга олган ҳолда тузилган. Ушбу замонавий йўналишлари нуқтаи назаридан, матн – кўп поғонали, мураккаб характерга эга тил бирлиги, мулоқотнинг асосий бирлиги ва ижтимоий таъсир этиш асбоби сифатида талқин этилади. Матн лингвистикасида тил ва маданият муносабатлари муҳим аҳамият касб этса, назарий грамматика эса тилнинг тузилиши ва универсалияларини когнитив, прагматик жиҳатдан талқин қилади. Бунда ижтимоий-маданий омил ва миллий дунё тасвири алоҳида ўрин эгаллайди, чунки маданий контекстни назарда тутмаган ҳолда матн моҳиятини мукамал тушуниб бўлмайди, баъзи ҳолларда эса бунинг иложи ҳам бўлмайди.

Ушбу мажмуа янги педагогик технологиялар ва тилшуносликнинг замонавий йўналишлари асосида тубдан янгиланишни илгари суради ҳамда тингловчиларнинг таълим бериш сифатини кўтариш мақсадида дастурда турли эффектив ва замонавий педагогик технологиялар ишлатилган.

Модулнинг мақсади ва вазифалари

Фанни ўқитишдан мақсад - тингловчиларда Таржима назарияси ва амалиёти (инглиз тили) модулининг методологик тамойиллари, асосий тушунча ва тамойиллари бўйича мутахассислик профилига мос билим, кўникма ва малакаларни шакллантириш ва такомиллаштириш, ҳамда тингловчиларда таржима билан ишлаш малакаларини шакллантириш ва матнни таҳлил қилиш кўникмаларини ривожлантиришдир.

“Таржимашуносликнинг долзарб муаммолари” модулининг вазифалари:

- таржима назарияси ва тарихи курсини ўрганиш ўрганилаётган чет тилининг ўзига хос хусусиятларини чуқур тушуниб етишга,

ўрганилаётган чет тилини ўзбек ва рус тиллари билан қиёслаб ўрганишга, замонавий Европа CEFR ўқитиш услубини таржима соҳасига қўллаш;

- таржима фаолиятининг ижтимоий аҳамиятини англаш;
- тингловчиларни таржима жараёни ва натижа сифатидаги асосий муаммолар билан таништириш;
- замонавий лингвистик тадқиқотлар контекстида таржима назариясининг ўрни, коммуникациянинг алоҳида тури сифатида таржима билан боғлиқ бўлган муаммоларни текшириш;
- таржимашунослик муаммоларини тадқиқ этиш материали ва услубларини кўриб чиқишдан иборат.

Модул бўйича тингловчиларнинг билими, кўникмаси, малакаси ва компетенцияларига қўйиладиган талаблар

“Таржимашуносликнинг долзарб муаммолари” курсини ўзлаштириш жараёнида амалга ошириладиган масалалар доирасида:

Тингловчи

- она тилига ва ундан чет тилига таржима қилишнинг лексик, семантик ва фразеологик муаммолари
- она тилига таржима қилишнинг грамматик муаммолари, инглиз ва она тилида бир хил гап тизимларининг функционал ва шаклан мос келишлиги ва келмаслиги
- таржимага маданиятнинг таъсири
- она тилига таржима қилишнинг стилистик муаммолари;
- таржима қилинган матн жанрига тил воситаларини танлашнинг муҳимлиги
- таржима турлари: ёзма ва оғзаки таржима, уларнинг ўзига хосликлари.
- адекват ва эркин таржима.
- таржима трансформациялари. Таржимада контекстнинг роли, тор ва кенг контекстлар ва тилдан ташқари ҳолатлари
- синхрон таржимада лексик бирикмаларни ишлатиш йўллари
- таржиманинг стилистик муаммолари ҳақида *билимларга эга бўлиши*.

Тингловчи:

- таржимагага оид методларни ишлаб чиқиш;
таржимага оид методларни амалда тўғри қўллаш;
таржимашуносликка доир муаммоларни аниқлаш;
- таржимашуносликка оид матнларни таҳлил этиш;
- таржимани такомиллаштириш бўйича таклифлар бериш;
- таржимани баҳолаш ва умумлаштириш *малакаларини эгаллаши*.

Тингловчи:

- ўз касбий фаолият соҳаларида олий таълимнинг меъёрий-ҳуқуқий ҳужжатлари бўйича таржима хизмати кўрсатиш;
- таржимашунослик соҳаси бўйича асосий ютуқларини тарғиб қилиш;
- таржимашунослик муаммолари ва уларнинг ривожланиш истиқболларини таҳлил қилиш;
- таржимашуносликка доир кейслар тузиш;
- таржимашуносликка оид назария ва методларни амалиётда қўллаш кўникмаларини эгаллаши.

Тингловчи:

- олий таълимнинг таржимашуносликка доир меъёрий-ҳуқуқий ҳужжатларини қўллашда ижтимоий ўзаро таъсир кўрсатиш;
- меъёрий-ҳуқуқий ҳужжатлар асосида таржимани ташкил этиш;
- меъёрий-ҳуқуқий ҳужжатлар асосида таълим ва тарбия жараёнини бошқариш;
- таржима ҳужжатлар асосида хулосалар бериш;
- таржимашунослик бўйича ўз малакасини ошириб бориш;
- таржиманинг долзарб муаммоларини хал этиш *компетенцияларни* эгаллаши лозим.

Модулнинг ўқув режадаги бошқа модуллар билан боғлиқлиги ва узвийлиги

“Таржимашуносликнинг долзарб муаммолари” модули мазмуни ўқув режадаги “Олий таълимда замонавий ёндашувлар” ўқув модули билан узвий боғланган ҳолда педагогларнинг меъёрий - ҳуқуқий ҳужжатлар бўйича касбий педагогик тайёргарлик даражасини орттиришга хизмат қилади.

Модулнинг олий таълимдаги ўрни

Модулни ўзлаштириш орқали тингловчилар таржимашуносликнинг долзарб муаммоларини ўрганиш, уларни таҳлил этиш, амалда қўллаш ва баҳолашга доир касбий компетентликка эга бўладилар.

Модул бўйича соатлар тақсимоти

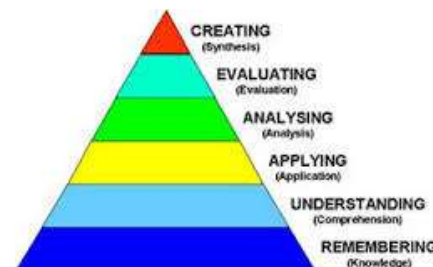
№	Модул мавзулари	Тингловчининг ўқув юкلامаси, соат				
		Ҳаммаси	Аудитория ўқув юкلامаси			Мустақил таълим
			Жами	Назай	Амалий машғулот	
1.	Таржимашунослик ва унинг предмети	3	3	2	1	-
2.	Таржимашунослик ва маданият	7	5	4	1	2
3.	Таржиманинг лексик муаммолари	6	4	2	2	2
4.	Таржиманинг грамматик муаммолари	5	5	4	1	

5.	Таржиманинг фразеологик муаммолари	3	3	2	1	
6.	Таржиманинг стилистик муаммолари	7	5	4	1	2
7.	Таржима методлари	6	6	4	2	
8.	Таржимада трансформация ходисаси	5	5	4	1	
9.	Таржима турларидаги муаммолар	5	5	4	1	
10.	Таржима мактаблари	3	3	2	1	
	Ҳаммаси:	50	44	32	12	6

II. МОДУЛНИ ЎҚИТИШДА ФОЙДАЛАНИЛАДИГАН ИНТРЕФАОЛ ТАЪЛИМ МЕТОДЛАРИ

Bloom's taxonomy

"Taxonomy" simply means "classification", so the well-known taxonomy of learning objectives is an attempt (within the [behavioural](#) paradigm) to classify forms and levels of learning. It identifies three "domains" of learning (see below), each of which is organised as a series of levels or pre-requisites. It is suggested that one cannot effectively — or ought not try to — address higher levels until those below them have been covered (it is thus effectively serial in structure). As well as providing a basic sequential model for dealing with topics in the curriculum, it also suggests a way of categorising levels of learning, in terms of the expected ceiling for a given programme. Thus in the Cognitive domain, training for technicians may cover *knowledge*, *comprehension* and *application*, but not concern itself with *analysis* and above, whereas full professional training may be expected to include this and *synthesis* and *evaluation* as well.



<p>Knowledge (list, define, tell, describe, identify, show, label, collect, examine, tabulate, quote, name, who, when, where, etc.)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ observation and recall of information ➤ knowledge of dates, events, places ➤ knowledge of major ideas ➤ mastery of subject matter
<p>Comprehension (summarize, describe, interpret, contrast, predict, associate, distinguish, estimate, differentiate, discuss, extend)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ understanding information ➤ grasp meaning ➤ translate knowledge into new context ➤ interpret facts, compare, contrast ➤ order,

	<p>group, infer causes</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ predict consequences
<p>Application (apply, demonstrate, calculate, complete, illustrate, show, solve, examine, modify, relate, change, classify, experiment, discover)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ use information ➤ use methods, concepts, theories in new situations ➤ solve problems using required skills or knowledge
<p>Analysis (analyze, separate, order, explain, connect, classify, arrange, divide, compare, select, explain, infer)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ seeing patterns ➤ organization of parts ➤ recognition of hidden meanings ➤ identification of components
<p>Synthesis (combine, integrate, modify, rearrange, substitute, plan, create, design, invent, what if?, compose, formulate, prepare, generalize, rewrite)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ use old ideas to create new ones ➤ generalize from given facts ➤ relate knowledge from several areas ➤ predict, draw conclusions
<p>Evaluation (assess, decide, rank, grade, test, measure, recommend, convince, select, judge, explain, discriminate, support, conclude, compare, summarize)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ compare and discriminate between ideas ➤ assess value of theories, presentations ➤ make choices based on reasoned argument

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ verify value of evidence ➤ recognize subjectivity
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Case-Based Learning

Teaching Methods for Case Studies

Introduction

Case method is a powerful student-centered teaching strategy that can impart students with critical thinking, communication, and interpersonal skills.

Having students work through complex, ambiguous, real world problems engages students with the course material, encouraging them to “see it from an action perspective, rather than analyze it from a distance” (Angelo & Bohrer). Case studies are, by their nature, multidisciplinary, and “allow the application of



Theoretical

concepts...bridging the gap between theory and practice” (Davis & Wilcock). Working on cases requires students to research and evaluate multiple sources of data, fostering information literacy.

Case method is also effective at developing real world, professional skills. Working on case studies requires good organizational and time management skills. Case method increases student proficiency with written and oral communication, as well as collaboration and team-work.

“Case studies force students into real-life situations,” training them in managerial skills such as “holding a meeting, negotiating a contract, giving a presentation, etc” (Daly, 2002).

Getting Started

Setting goals/objectives before choosing a case, it’s important to set your goals for the lesson. Have a clear set of objectives and “be sure you know what you

want to accomplish in the case, what facts, principles, and viewpoints the students should cover” (Herreid, 1998).

Picking a case “The most powerful and interesting cases are those that allow for several assessments of the same situation, leading to several equally plausible and compelling conclusions, each with different implications for action” (Angelo & Boehrer).

“Cases are narratives, situations, select data samplings, or statements that present unresolved or provocative issues, situations, or questions...The information included must be rich enough to make the situation credible, but not so complete as to close off discussion or exploration. Cases can be short for brief classroom discussions or long and elaborate for semester-long projects” (na University).

“Good case studies focus on one issue or problem, and have a clear problem statement... Choose case studies that match your course objectives, allowing students to apply what they learn in the course to the scenario” (University of Calgary).

Be prepared

Know all the issues involved in the case, prepare questions and prompts in advance, and anticipate where students might run into problems” (Carnegie Mellon). Within the case “where is the debate? You need to frame the fighting issues, because that’s where the action is” (Garvin, 2004). Get some sense of the timing. A big danger is over packing classes and then shortchanging the material. Break the material into segments, get a sense of how long each debate is likely to last, and determine which issues can be removed or made optional. “You have to be able to flatten or shorten the accordion on segments of class” as needed. Set two or three targets marking when you should be at a certain point in the discussion so you know when to compress and when to fill in the material (Garvin, 2004).

Prepare your students Students may be unfamiliar with the case method or may be predisposed to distrust group work. They need to know exactly what is expected of them in order to be successful in class. To avoid causing frustration, consider the following tips:

1. Start with a simple case first
2. Discuss the purpose and suggested methods for doing a case assignment
3. If cases are done in a team, introduce students to resources for team dynamics
4. Allow sufficient class time for students to meet with their teams
5. Establish discussion etiquette guidelines
6. Take sufficient time to introduce the narrative and establish the case facts
7. Reassure students that “messiness” is normal for this type of assignment

8. Make sure you give students an opportunity to provide their reactions and feedback (Pyatt, 2006)

If there are specialized skills or knowledge needed to complete the case analysis, go over this with the class. “Provide background resources for the case study, including supplementary readings and the necessary data to form an opinion” (University of Calgary). Spend some time at the beginning familiarizing students with specialized terminology or the expected formats for professional documents (Daly, 2002).

Get to know your students For case method to be successful, you must be familiar with your students. “Link the material with the people who are there. Who’s been an entrepreneur? Who’s worked in a large technology company?” Have students fill out cards listing their educational backgrounds, work histories, and interests. Review these cards before each class and make a list of four or five students in each class who are most likely to contribute something to the discussion (Garvin, 2004).

It’s also important for students to get to know and trust one another. If students don’t consider the classroom a safe space, they won’t contribute to the discussion. Help them get acquainted with name tags or cards for their desks (Herreid, 2001). A positive atmosphere can be created by setting out ground rules for participation. “Emphasize that the analysis will be a group project, and that no one will be criticized for raising naïve questions or uncertainties... and that everyone is required to actively work together on the analysis... Without a clear sense that they are free to experiment with hypotheses, students will tend to remain silent until they feel that the ‘right’ answer has been identified” (Stanford University).

Discussions In his analysis of case discussion, C. Roland Christensen argues that student involvement develops on at least three distinct levels:

“At the first level, students explore a problem by sorting out relevant facts, developing logical conclusions, and presenting them to fellow students and the instructor. The students discuss someone else’s problem; their role is that of the commentator-observer in a traditional academic sense. On the second level, students can be assigned roles in the case, and take on perspectives that require them to argue for specific actions from a character’s point of view, given their interests and knowledge. Finally, on the third level, students will take the initiative to become fully involved, so that topics are no longer treated as abstract ideas, but become central to the student’s sense of self—of what they would choose to do in a specific real world situation.” (Stanford University)

Leading the discussion. A basic framework for a case-based discussion can be broken down into six steps:

1. Give students ample time to read and think about the case. If the case is long, assign it as homework with a set of questions for students to consider.

2. Introduce the case briefly and provide some guidelines for how to approach it. Clarify how you want students to think about the case. Break down the steps you want students to take in analyzing the case. If you would like students to disregard or focus on certain information, specify that as well.

3. Create groups and monitor them to make sure everyone is involved. Small groups can drift off track if you do not provide structure. You may want to designate roles within each group. Alternatively, group members could be assigned broad perspectives to represent, or asked to speak for the various stake-holders in the case study.

4. Have groups present their solutions/reasoning

5. Ask questions for clarification and to move the discussion to another level

6. Synthesize issues raised (Carnegie Mellon)

Classroom setup

If it's possible to change the seating arrangement in your classroom, "a horseshoe-shaped seating arrangement works best. The open part of the U should face the blackboard... This arrangement permits all of the students to see one another... You don't always have to be in the center of the horseshoe. You can move out of the U altogether" when the students are talking to each other. Use the blackboard to bring the discussion together. Writing comments on the board is a way to engage students, showing them that they've been heard. Drawing circles, arrows, and underlines to connect these comments is a way to link fragments of discussion into a summary of what's been said (Garvin, 2004).

Asking questions The first question is important for setting the right tone for the rest of the discussion. Start with an open-ended inquiry. "If you start with a question that is too obtuse, too formidable, or looks like a trick question, no one will answer... The best opening questions are open ended, where there are multiple reasonable answers, or where the question is neutral and simple to answer." Hold back from engaging with controversial or emotional material until all the facts have been established and put into context. If you start off on a fighting issue, "there is a good chance that the facts will get lost in the barrage of attacks and counterattacks that ensue" (Herreid, 2001). As the discussion gets going, it's important to listen and plan follow up questions carefully. Professor David Garvin suggests listening at four levels: "I listen for content. I listen for what is said, and how it tracks with the analysis we need to get done. The second thing I listen for is how things are said. There are always emotional undercurrents. Sometimes the voice is tentative. Sometimes the voice is very strong. Sometimes there's a lack of energy in the comments. Sometimes there's tremendous dynamism in the debate. So I'm listening for that particularly so that, when we hit an emotional current, we can ride it. That's where the class tends to take off. The third thing I'm listening for is almost a contradiction in terms. I'm listening for what is left unsaid. Take, for

instance, a case which has ethical implications. Students are often very uncomfortable raising the ethical issues. If I go for ten, fifteen, twenty minutes in the heart of a discussion, and people are avoiding that point, I'll raise it. And then the fourth thing you listen for, and this one is tricky, is you listen for disconnects. When somebody says X, and somebody comes back with a response that doesn't quite meet them, there is a lack of correspondence somehow. They either didn't get it or they didn't quite take it in and fully understand it. In order to engage the debate they have to be on the same wavelength" (Garvin, 2004).

The kinds of questions you ask will control the kind of debate that follows. Potential techniques include:

1. Delay the problem-solving part until the rest of the discussion has had time to develop. Start with expository questions to clarify the facts, then move to analysis, and finally to evaluation, judgment, and recommendations.

2. Shift points of view: "Now that we've seen it from W's standpoint, what's happening here from Y's standpoint? What evidence would support Y's position? What are the dynamics between the two positions?"

3. Shift levels of abstraction: if the answer to the question above is "It's just a bad situation for her," quotations help: When Y says "____," what are her assumptions? Or seek more concrete explanations: Why does she hold this point of view?"

4. Ask for benefits/disadvantages of a position; for all sides.

5. Shift time frame—not just to "What's next?" but also to "How could this situation have been different?"

What could have been done earlier to head off this conflict and turn it into a productive conversation? Is it too late to fix this?

What are possible leverage points for a more productive discussion?

What good can come of the existing situation?

6. **Shift to another context:** We see how a person who thinks X would see the situation. How would a person who thinks Y see it? We see what happened in the Johannesburg news, how could this be handled in [your town/province]? How might [insert person, organization] address this problem?

7. Follow-up questions:

"What do you mean by ____?" Or, "Could you clarify what you said about ____?" (even if it was a pretty clear statement—this gives students time for thinking, developing different views, and exploration in more depth). Or "How would you square that observation with what [name of person] pointed out?"

8. **Point out and acknowledge differences in discussion**—"that's an interesting difference from what Sam just said, Sarah. Let's look at where the differences lie." (let sides clarify their points before moving on). (na University)

Transitions

Moving the class seamlessly from one section of the discussion to the next can be a challenge. By developing a system of clear signals and using them consistently, the students will learn to follow your lead. One way of signaling a transition is to change blackboards when you want to move to a new topic. Use the physical space of the classroom, standing to the side when leading a discussion between students and then coming to the center of the room when it's time to bring the attention back to you. Finally, summarize the important points at the end of each segment, this will both help change the topic to the next section as well as help make it easier to bring everything together at the end of class.

Classroom Activities Beyond discussion and small group work, there are a number of techniques that can be used to enhance case method.

1. Role-play

When picking students for role-play, try to consider their backgrounds and pick students who either fully identify with the role or are on the exact opposite end of the spectrum. Pick students who have participated before, as they will be likely to enliven the discussion. Finally, pick students across the room from each other so that their dialogue will bring the students sitting in between into it, rather than shutting them out.

2. Take a vote

A vote requires students to publically commit to their positions, engaging them with the discussion and making them more likely to argue for their side. It will also give you a sense of where the class stands on the debate. If the vast majority of the class stands on one side, you'll know to back up the minority so they don't feel overwhelmed and stop participating, shutting down the debate.

3. Have students write their own case studies

"In order to construct a plausible case study, they will research facts, consider various angles of an issue, and have greater engagement in the course" (University of Calgary).

4. Divide the case into parts

Break the students into groups and assign each group a different aspect of the study. Have them present their findings to the other groups. "Remind students that they do not have all the information they need to solve the case but based on the information available, they can make recommendations and come to preliminary decisions," something they will have to be able to do in real life business situations (Daly, 2002).

5. Message boards

Have the students continue the discussion on a message board within Blackboard, on a class blog, or using Twitter. This will give them room to reflect on their positions, and allow you to track their discussions over time (Pyatt, 2006).

Evaluation Each time you include a new case in a course, it's important to assess what the students have learned, and if there are ways to make it better. If you're new to teaching case studies or if you want to switch up your method, only try one or two new techniques at a time, then evaluate again (Garvin, 2004).

It can be difficult to see the success or failures of case method right away, but there are some ways to track if a particular case is having positive outcomes. During the course, judge if the students are making substantive headway into the material without having to be led by the hand.

Are they engaged with the issues and enthusiastic about the discussion? In subsequent classes, assignments, and exams, are they applying what they learned in the original discussion?

Having students complete assignments based on the case study will not only engage them with the material, but will help you determine their progress. Potential assignments include a summary of the issues, a position paper, a concept map, a reflection paper, or a research paper exploring further aspects of the case (University of Calgary).

Based on student responses, you can judge if the case needs to be “developed further, or whether more background information can or should be provided” in the future (Stanford University).

БАҲОЛАШ МЕЗОНИ

	Баҳолаш мезони	Максимал балл	Изоҳ
	Портфолио яратиш - 1балл Кейс тузиш - 1,5 балл	2.5	Интеграллашган тил кўникмаларининг ҳар бири бўйича аниқ топшириқлар бажарилади ва баҳоланади

III. НАЗАРИЙ МАШҒУЛОТЛАР МАЗМУНИ

Мавзу 1: Таржимашунослик ва унинг предмети

Режа

1. Таржима ва унинг таърифи
2. Таржиманинг таърифи бўйича олимлар баҳси
3. Таржимада адекватлик ва эквивалентлик муаммолари
4. Таржимашунослик терминлари

Таржима термининг таърифи. Унинг чет эл олимлари ва ўзбек, рус таржимонларининг унга берган таърифлари. Нью Марк, Катфорд ва рус олимлари Бархударов, Швейцар, Федоров ва ўзбек олимлари Ғ. Саломов, Н. Комилов, Амир Файзулло, И. Ғафуров ва бошқаларнинг таржима ҳақидаги баҳс ва мунозаралари. Таржима адекватлиги ва эквивалентлик муаммолари, фарқлари . Таржимашуносликнинг мақсад ва вазифалари. Хозирги пайтдаги энг долзарб муаммолари ва уларнинг ҳал этиш муаммолари

Мавзу 2: Таржимашунослик ва маданият

Режа

- 1.Таржима ва маданият ўртасидаги алоқа
- 2.Таржимада маданиятнинг акс этиши
3. Маданий сўз ва ибораларнинг таржимада берилиши
- 4.Дунё манзарасининг тилда акси ва унинг таржимада берилиши

Маданият термини ва унинг асосий қисмлари. Маданиятнинг тилга таъсири. Таржима ва маданият ўртасидаги алоқалар ва таржимада маданиятнинг акс этиши. Маданий сўзларнинг таржима қилиш усуллари. Инглиз ва ўзбек тилларига таржима қилишда маданият халқларнинг урф одатлари, яшаш тарзи, тарихи, дини ва бошқаларнинг таржимада берилиши, таржима қилиш усуллари. Олимларнинг таржима ва маданиятнинг ўзаро алоқасига бўлган олимларнинг муносабатлари .Дунё манзарасининг тилда ва таржимадаги акси

Мавзу 3: Таржиманинг лексик муаммолари

Режа

1. Лексик эквивалентлик ва унинг таржимадаги турлари
- 2.Эквивалентсиз сўзлар ва уларнинг таржима муаммолари
3. Таржимада лексик семантик алмашинув муаммолари

Таржиманинг эквивалентлиги тушунчаси. Эквивалентлик категориясимоҳиятини тушуниб олишга бўлган дастлабки уринишлар. Мамлакатимиз назарийчиларининг муаммоларини ҳал этишга қўшган хиссалари.

Испания ва Лотин Америка олимларининг асарларида эквивалентлик категориялари муаммоси. Эквивалентлик категориясининг тузилиши, унинг иерархик хусусияти ва унинг таржима стратегияси учун аҳамияти. «Эквивалентлик» ва «айнан бир хиллик» тушунчаларининг ўзаро нисбати.

Мавзу 4: Таржиманинг грамматик муаммолари

Режа

- 1 . Грамматик мослашув ва унинг таржимадаги турлари
2. Таржимада синтактик алмашинув ходисаси
- 3.Таржимада грамматик қийинчиликлар

Таржимада тилларнинг грамматик хусусият ва категорияларининг мослашиш турлари. Тулиқ мос келиши, бироз мос келмаслиги ва мос келмаслиги. Таржимада синтактик алмашинув. Инглиз ва ўзбек тилларидаги синтактик конструкцияларнинг берилиши. Грамматик транспозиция. Таржимада олимларнинг грамматик birlikлар, сўз туркумларининг берилишидаги муаммоларни ҳал этишдаги олимларнинг бахслари . тилларда грамматик категориялар йўқ бўлганда уларни таржима қилиш усуллари

Мавзу 5.Таржиманинг фразеологик муаммолари

Режа

- 1.Фразеологик бирикмалар ва уларнинг олимлар орасидаги бахси
- 2.Фразеологик бирикмаларни таржима қилиш муаммолари
- 3.Таржимада мақоллар ва маталларнинг берилиши

Фразеологик бирикмаларнинг таржима қилиш муаммолари. Фразеологик birlikларнинг турлари ва уларнинг таржимада берилиш ёлари. Фразеологик birlikларнинг ингизил ва ўзбек тилларига таржима қилишда тўлиқ, тўлиқ эмас ва москелишнинг ёқлиги. Мақоллар ва маталларнинг таржимаси идиомаларнинг таржима қилиш йўллари. Фразеологик birlikлардаги миллий, маданий хусусиятларнинг таржимада берилиши. Олимларнинг фразеологик birlikларнинг таржима муомоларига билдирган муносабатлари ва фикр мулоҳазалари

Мавзу 6 Таржиманинг стилистик муаммолари

Режа

1. Стилистик воситалар ва уларнинг таржимада берилиши
2. Таржимада эмоционал экспрессивликнинг ифодалашдаги усуллар
3. Метафора ва унинг таржима муаммолари
4. Таржиманинг прагматик аспекти

Стилистик воситалар ва уларнинг таржимада берилиши. Метафоранинг таржима қилиш ёллари. Таржиманинг стилистик ва прагматик аспекти. Стилистик таъсирини стилистик воситалар орқали берилиши. Концептуал метафора ва унинг таржимада берилиши. Авторнинг услуби ва унинг таржимада берилиши. Стилистик воситаларнинг бадиий адабиётлардаги таржималарини таҳлили. Таржимада стилистик воситалар орқали миллий-маданий хусусиятни берилиш ёллари.

Мавзу 7. Таржима методлари

Режа

- 1.Таржима методлари ва уларнинг турлари
- 2.Сўзма сўз таржима ва унинг хусусиятлари
- 3.Микро ревью ва компрессия ходисаси

4.Калька ва транслитирация методлари

Замонавий таржима методлари ва уларнинг таржимада қўллаш ёллари. Транскрипция, транслитерация. Антонамик таржима. Таржима инварианти. Таржима қилиш техникаси. Таржимада фикрларни сегментлаш. Компрессия ва унинг таржимада қўланилиши. Эслатма ёзувлар. Ҳотирада сақлаш методлари. Микроревью. Таржима диктанти. Калька ва унинг таржимадаги ахамияти. Тасвирий таржима.

Мавзу 8. Таржимада трансформация ходисаси

Режа

- 1.Таржимада лексик трансформация
2. таржимада грамматик трансформациялар турлари
3. Таржимада стилистик трансформациялар

Таржима трансформациялари. Тилшуносликда трансформация тушунчаси, унинг таржимон фаолиятида қўлланиши. Лексик трансформациялар. Грамматик трансформациялар. Фразеологик ва стилистик трансформациялар
Асосий тил (АТ) доирасидаги трансформациялар, уларнинг сабаблари ва олдиндан тахмин қилиниши мумкинлиги. . Таржимада трансформацияларнинг турлари. Субституция, тушуриб қолдириш ва қўшиш.

Мавзу 9. Таржима турларидаги муаммолар

Режа

- 1.Таржиманинг турлари муаммоси
2. Кетма кет таржима қилиш муаммолари
- 3.Синхрон таржима қилиш муаммолари
- 4.Визуал ва ёзма таржима муаммолари

Олимларнинг таржима турларига бўлган фикр мулохазалари. Оғзаки ва ёзма таржима. Визуал таржима ва унинг муаммолари. Кетма-кет таржима ва унинг муаммолари. Синхрон таржима ва унинг муаммолари. Синхрон таржима, кетма-кет таржималарнинг келиб чиқиш тарихи. Бадий таржима ва унинг хусусиятлари. Оғзаки ва ёзма таржималарнинг талаблари. Инглиз тилидан ўзбек тилига, ўзбек тилидан инглиз тилига оғзаки ва ёзма таржима қилиш муаммолари

Мавзу 10: Таржима мактаблари

Режа

- 1.Боғдод таржима мактаби
- 2.Толидо испан таржима мактаби
- 3.Хоразм таржима мактаби

4. Тошкент таржима мактаби

Буюк жаҳон таржима мактаблари. Боғдод ва Толидо таржима мактаблари ва уларнинг фаолиятлари. Марказий осийдаги таржима мактаблари. Жаҳон, Ўзбек ва Рус машҳур таржимонлар фаолияти ва уларнинг жаҳон таржимашунослик фанига қўшган ҳиссалари. Хоразм ва Тошкент таржима мактаблари ва уларнинг таржимашунослик фаолиятлари. Замонавий ўзбек таржимонларининг таржимашуносликка бўлган илмий қарашлари.

МУСТАҚИЛ ТАЪЛИМ МАВЗУЛАРИ

Мустақил ишни ташкил этишнинг шакли ва мазмуни

Тингловчи мустақил ишни муайян модулни хусусиятларини ҳисобга олган ҳолда қуйидаги шакллардан фойдаланиб тайёрлаши тавсия этилади:

- меъёрий ҳужжатлардан, ўқув ва илмий адабиётлардан фойдаланиш асосида модул мавзуларини ўрганиш;
- тарқатма материаллар бўйича маърузалар қисмини ўзлаштириш;
- автоматлаштирилган ўргатувчи ва назорат қилувчи дастурлар билан ишлаш;
- махсус адабиётлар бўйича модул бўлимлари ёки мавзулари устида ишлаш;
- тингловчининг касбий фаолияти билан боғлиқ бўлган модул бўлимлари ва мавзуларни чуқур ўрганиш.

LECTURE I. The subject matter of translation

Plan:

1. Translation and its definition
2. Scientists' view on the definition of the translation
3. The problems of adequacy and equivalence in translation
4. Terms of translatology

Key words: translation, theory, definition, context, correspondence, equivalence, word, meaning, process.

The theory of translation is subdivided into general theory, dealing with the general characteristics of translation, regardless of its type, and special branches, concerned with a theoretical description and analyses of the various types of translation, such as the translation of fiction poetry, technical and scientific literature, official documents, etc.

The general theory of translation has a clearly defined subject matter; the process of translating in its entirety, including its results with due regard for all the factors affecting it. Each special branch depends and specifies the general theory

for it is the job of the general theory to reflect what is common to all types and varieties.

The process of educational translation presents 4 stages:

1. First of all the text should be thoroughly understood. It means that the student should be acquainted with the whole book, should have some knowledge of the history of literature and mode of life of the people from whose language the translation is being done.
2. The student should realize the stylistic functions of lexical and grammar and phonetic phenomena which are used to express the content of the text.
3. Then the work on the choice of corresponding means of expression in the native language should be done.
4. The last stage is a work on the Russian and Uzbek text.

The choice of the word is one of the most difficult problems of translation, which is closely connected with the following problems.

Any grammatical phenomena or stylistic peculiarities do not always coincide with those of the foreign language as well as the meaning of the separate words, which are lexical equivalents. The main meaning of the English word “table” coincides with that of the Russian language. But the Russian “стол” has one additional meaning: “питание”, “пансион” means while in English we have the special words to express the idea: “board”, “room and board”. At same time English “table” has the additional meaning to “таблица”.

table	стол	board
таблица	питание	room and board
	пансион	

INDEPENDENT AND CONNECTED MEANING OF THE WORD.

The logical meaning of the word may be both independent and connected with other words. The latter can be understood in the given combination of words. A color bar – цветной (ярко окрашенный) барьер was seen in the distance. There exist a color bar (расовая дискриминация) in the South Africa.

THE MEANING OF THE WORD AND ITS USE

The meaning of the word shouldn't be mixed with its use. Sometimes even a monosemantic word can be combined with a lot of words and is rendered in Russian by different words:

A young man	молодой человек
A young child	маленький ребенок
Young in a crime	неопытный преступник
The night is young	началась ночь

Department of justice	министерство юстиции
Ministry of defense	министерство обороны
Board of trade	министерство торговли
Admiralty	морское министерство
The First Lord of Admiralty	военно-морской министр
Chancellor	министр финансов
War office	военное министерство
A bad headache	сильная головная боль
A bad mistake	грубая ошибка
A bad weather	плохая погода
A bad debt	невозвращенный долг
A bad accident	тяжелый (несчастный) случай
A bad wound	тяжелая рана

CONTEXT

The word in the sentence may acquire so-called contextual meaning. It may be not constant, as a rule we can't find the contextual meaning of the word in the dictionary. But it always has something in common with the main meaning of the word.

“In the atomic war common and children will be first hostage”. The dictionary gives only one meaning of the given word – “золотник”, but in the given sentence the acquires a new meaning: “жертва”. It is a great difficulty to find out the contextual meaning of the word as the dictionary only gives hints how to search for the necessary word in our native town language.

The majority of the words are known to be polysemantic and the context becomes especially important while translating polysemantic words, as translating in different languages is quite different.

Besides finding the exact meaning of the word the student should be able to choose the necessary word from corresponding number of synonyms in the native language.

- “She was brave about it”.

“Brave” means “храбрый”, “смелый”, “благородный”, “прекрасный” sentence and other words can be used in translating the given sentence and other words should be given preference too: “отважный”, “мужественный”.

The English language is very rich in synonyms. Synonyms pairs are very characteristic of the English language. They are more emphatic.

- The week and humble Jewo. (“The Path of Thunder” page 80)

A lot of words may acquire emotive meaning and the same word in different sentences may be rendered by different words.

- China is a large country (страна)

- We are ready to die for our country (родина).

While translating one should take into consideration on that in different languages the word, which are lexical equivalents may arouse quite different associations.

For Russians “зима” means snow and frost, for Englishmen – fog and cold wind.

“Она ходит павой перед ним” – Дело Артамоновых.

For Russians “пава” arouses the idea of something beautiful, stately, majestic, proud (а сама – то величава, выступает будто павы – ПУШКИН).

For Englishmen “peahen” has nothing in common with these associations. That’s why it’s quite correct to translate the sentence as follows:

- “She poses proudly before him (to pose - позировать)”.

Translation is the process, determined by quite a number of factors. In addition to conveying the semantic information, contained in the text, the denotational meanings and emotive-stylistic connotations, the translator has to take into account the author’s communicative intent the type of an audience for which the message is intended socio-psychological characteristics and back-ground of knowledge.

A process governed by so many variables cannot have a single outcome. What is more, the synonymic and paraphrasing potential of language is so high that there may be several ways of describing the same extra linguistic situation, and even though they be not quite identical, the differences may be neutralized by the context. It should also be remembered that the translator’s decision may be very depend on the receptor/ of the translation of realia, for the specialists and for the laymen/ and the purpose of translation.

National or local coloring one of the main features of national peculiarities in literature. Here belong the following elements:

1. The word denoting peculiar to the social and material life of the Nation
2. Proper names, geographical denominations, names of streets, big shops, theatres.
3. The way of greetings, formulas of politeness (hello, sir)
2. Linear measures, liquid measures, day measures (мера сыпучих тел)

The translation of realia usually presents some difficulties. It’s necessary to have a thorough knowledge of the life of the nation to avoid ridiculous mistakes. Here are some ways of translating the words of local coloring: by translator (cab – кеб, sir – сир). It helps to preserve foreign coloring in the translation, but the word translated should be clear to the reader. Otherwise, the disruptive translation is desirable.

Question-tasks

1. Is there any difference in the aim of educational and professional translation?
2. What does the term “faithfulness of translation” mean?
3. What meaning is important in translation, dictionary or contextual? Why?
4. Say a few words about the international and pseudointernational words?
5. What is the main problem in translating neologisms?
6. What can you say about the role of antonyms translation?

Recommended literature:

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LECTURE II. TRANSLATION AND CULTURE

Plan:

- 1.Relation between translation and culture
- 2.Reflection of culture in translation
3. Expressing words and phraseological units in translation
- 4.Reflection of world-view in language and its expression in translation

Key words: translation, culture, view, communication, tagliatte, flora and fauna, plateau, the gap mentally, tachisme, metaphore.

The reflection of culture and its influence on the language was first proposed by an American linguist and anthropologist Edward Sapir (1884–1939), and his student Benjamin Whorf (1897–1941). The **Sapir–Whorf hypothesis** stated that “the way we think and view the world is determined by our language. Instances of cultural language differences are evidenced in that some languages have specific words for concepts whereas other languages use several words to represent a specific concept. For example, the Arabic language includes many specific words for designating a certain type of horse or camel. To make such distinctions in English, where specific words do not exist, adjectives would be used preceding the concept label, such as *quarter horse* or *dray horse*”.¹

At present the man is becoming involved in world culture. The educational system has the task to train the students to cultural, professional and individual communication with the representatives with other social structure, social traditions and language culture. Therefore one of the main tasks of the educational program of teaching of foreign languages is introducing the students to foreign culture.

Language can be learned as means of communication only when the learners become aware of the world of the language. Background knowledge of the new culture often helps learners to understand better what is heard or read in the foreign language.

One of the most difficult problems in translating is found in differences between cultures. The people of a given culture look at things from their own perspective. In consecutive translation two cultures collided and we come across

¹ С. Г. Тер-Минасова. Язык и межкультурная коммуникация. Издательство Московского университета. – 2008. ;Э. Сепир. Коммуникация . Избранные труды по языкознанию и культурологии. М., 1993 с. 211.

the influence of cultures with each other. Therefore it is necessary for the future interpreters to know the history, customs, traditions, culture, way of life of the people who speak the language.

Many words which look like equivalents do not correspond each other. They have special connotations. For example, the word *sheep* has a very negative connotations in the Russian language (Ты – баран - you are a very dirty person) but in the Uzbek language *sheep* has a very positive connotation. (У қўйдайд ювош – he is very calm like a sheep). In the American culture this word is neutral in most of its uses *one who follows without thinking*. This difference is based upon cultural variations and the part that sheep plays in the society. So, *he is a sheep* into a second language could lead to a very wrong meaning

The culture is often reflected in the figurative usages of words. For example. In Uzbekistan we use *cotton* in a figurative sense (У пахтадайд юмшоқ) but this would never be used figuratively in English because *cotton* is not grown there.

In idioms we can see cultural meanings too. For example, in English the idiom *kick the bucket* has the same meaning as *die*. But it shows a certain lack of respect. *Hit the sack* means *to go to bed* but it is more informal.

Not all metaphors and similes are easily understood. If they are translated word for word into a second language, they will be often completely misunderstood. There are a number of reasons why metaphors are hard to understand and cannot be translated word for word.

First of all the image used in the metaphor or may be unknown in the receptor language. For example, a simile based on *snow* would be meaningless to people who live in some parts of the country where snow is unknown in English: *I washed my clothes white as snow*. In a language in the south: *I washed my clothes white as seashells or as bone*. In Uzbek: *Онноқ пахтадек қилиб кир ювдим*. The sentence *he is a pig* does not include the point of similarity. In some cultures a reference to pigs would be given the idea of dirty, but in other cultures it means *one who is a glutton* and in other culture it means *someone who doesn't listen to people*. In Uzbek it is used in the meaning of *fat* (*У семуз*).

When the point of similarity is not stated it is often hard to interpret. For example: *He is an ox* has various meanings. One could think of the characteristics of an ox as *strong, huge or unintelligent*. This makes it very difficult to translate it. For example: *John is a rock* may mean differently in different cultures: *he is still, he can't talk, he is always there, he is very strong* or *He is a sheep* has various meanings from one cultures to another: *long haired man, a drunkard, a person who doesn't answer back, one who just follows without thinking, a young fellow waiting for girls to follow him one who is very calm*.

If the similarity is not made clear the translator must give careful consideration whenever a metaphor is found in the source text. In intercultural communication it is necessary to take into the consideration the peculiarities of national characteristic features of the communicants, the specific emotional, national properties of thoughts.

The translator must know the cultural conflicts in finding equivalents. For example:

In English: *When in Rome do as Romans do* - in Uzbek: *Кимнинг аравасига мингсанг, ўшани қўшигини айт* – In Russian: *В чужой монастырь со своими уставами не ходят; Rome was not built in a day- Ёқут билан вақт топилмас, вақт билан ёқут топилмас – Не сразу Москва строилась ; Jack shall have Jill, all shall be well- Ер молсиз бўлмас, йигит ёрсиз –Всякий будь со своей милой.*

In English and Uzbek *green eyes* have negative connotation but in Russian it is used in positive connotation. Britain is an island surrounded by water therefore in English there are a lot of water, fish, and marine-related idioms. Such as *weak as water (fragile), drink like a fish (booze), to miss the boat (missed opportunities), all at sea (a loss) etc.*

Though emotion is a universal semantic component, in every language it has cultural properties. For example: there are more diminutive and caress, endear suffixes in Russian than in Uzbek and English . For example: «Зёрнышко мое ,дочушка!-приглушенно звенела мать. - Цветочек мой, не уходи, Танюшка! Глянь, моя красотишка, открой глазки. Опомнись же! Голюшка мая чёрноглазая...за что же, господи?» (М.А. Шолохов «Тихий Дон»,76 стр.).

In English: “ *My little one, my little daughter, she groaned,- my flower, don’t go away, Tanya. Look, my pretty one, open your little eyes, come back, my dark-eyed darling! Why, oh lord?*” (М. А. Sholohov “The peaceful Don”, p.76).

In Uzbek: “*менинг жасжжигинам, менинг қизгинам, деб у йиглади. Менинг гулим, кетма, Таня. Менга қара, гўзалим, жасжжи кўзингни оч, қайт менинг қора кузли қадирдоним! Нима учун, Э Худо!*”

We have already stressed the fact that different languages have different concentrations of vocabulary depending on the culture, geographical location, and the worldview of the people. Because of the different geographical situation, in one language there may be a great concentration of vocabulary that has to do with agriculture, in another a great concentration of vocabulary that has to do with fishing.

It is better to do the following exercises in order to translate accurately. **For example:**

- A. Find all colour words you know in Uzbek and Russian and compare them with English colours; compare the semantic structure of colour words in English and your native tongue.
- B. Find all the words for the set *ways to carry* in Uzbek and in Russian and compare them with English ones. Define what components of meaning distinguish them from one another;
- C. Find all the words for the set *manner in which liquid moves* in Uzbek and Russian and compare them with the English set *drip, leak, spray, splash, pour, flow, gush, squirt*. Define what components of meaning distinguish them from one another;
- D. Find all the meanings of the verbs *to go* and *to come* in English and search for the equivalents in Uzbek and Russian.

Cultural words may be translated by the following ways:

1. By means of modification: *У олча емоқда*- he is eating a fruit called *olcha*; *хаушар*- voluntary and joint public work called *khashar*;

У сумалак емоқда- he is eating the main dish of the feast called *sumalyak*

2. By means of description of form or function: the *queen* of the UK came to India- *the woman who ruled the UK* came to India; *Келин саломга кўпчилик келишди*- many guests came to the *bride 's greeting*;

3. By means of descriptive translation: *Рамазон хаитда Ўзбекистонликлар ишга бормадилар , дам оладилар.*-the people of Uzbekistan do not go to work and have a rest in *Ramazan-Khait which is a holiday of moral purification and spiritual revival*; *никоҳда келин ва кўёв қатнашди*- the bride and the bride-groom participated in *nikah which is a religious wedding ceremony*; *опытный ошпаз высоко ценится, ведь не так-то просто приготовить в одном казане плов на 100-200 человек*- an experienced *oshpas*(a man who prepares national meal) is appreciated because to prepare *pilav*(a national dish) for 100-200 people in one *kasan*(a national crockery which is used for preparing national meals)is not a simple work.

4. By means of comparison: *Ўзбекистонда мусичалар яшайди*- *Musichas, birds like doves* live in Uzbekistan; *Мен гуммани пишираоламан*- *I can prepare gumma like patty in England*. Translation problems of cultural words demand further scientific investigation.

Thus, the study of cultural influence in consecutive translation must be the main tasks of the consecutive interpreters.

Question-tasks:

1. What is culture?
2. What do you understand by relation between culture and translation?
3. What is cultural word?
4. How can be translated cultural words?
5. What is descriptive translation?

Recommended literature:

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LECTURE III. Lexical problems of translation

Plan:

1. Lexical equivalence and its types in translation
2. Non-equivalent words and their problems in translation
3. The problems of lexical-semantic exchanges in translation

Key words: language, lexicon, equivalence, loan word, cultural substitute, generic word, component, correspondence.

One of the most difficult problems is how to find lexical equivalents for objects and events which are not known in receptor culture. A translator has to consider not only the two languages but also the two cultures. Because of the difference in culture there will be some concepts in the source language which do not have lexical equivalents in the receptor language this may be because of difference of geography of customs, of beliefs, of worldview and others.

There are 3 basic ways in which a translator can find an equivalent expression in the receptor language: 1) a generic word with a descriptive phrase, 2) a loan word, 3) cultural substitute.

The distinction of the thing or event or form and its function is very important in looking for lexical equivalents.

Ex: "pencil" has the form of being long, pointed at one end, made of wood with graphite in the middle and usually having an eraser at one end. But the function of the "pencil" is to write.

In describing the form of the "dog" we would talk about its size, shape, color, location of eyes, ears etc.

The functions of a dog in some cultures would be hunting and guarding. In other cultures, the function might be simply a pet to keep one company.

The meaning components of a word may be since in a description phrase. Ex: "island" might be translated "land surrounded by water". In Philippines, the natural expression for "island" is "small place in the sea".

The phrase they weighed anchor might be translated into one of the languages as "they lifted the heavy iron weights they used to keep the boat still" so the translator should study the context to see whether the form or the function of the lexical item is the forms in the passage. The form may be the same but the function may be different. Ex: "bread" in one culture may be translated as "the main food" but in other culture as a food for parties or dessert.

Equivalents may be modified by a generic word (Ex: animal, dog, wolf, cat etc.).

Equivalence may be modified by a comparison. Ex: "rubber" - thing like an oar; wolf - animal like a piece of dog.

Equivalence may be modified by a loan word.

A loan word refers to a word which is from another language and is unknown to most of the speakers of the receptor language. Loan words are commonly used for the names of people, places, geographical areas.

John may be translated as "a man named John."

Equivalents may be modified by a classifier.

Ex: dove-a bird called dove

lion -animal called lion

amazon- river called amazon

equivalence may be modified with a description of form, function or birth.

Priest- the person who deals with that given to Svel

anchors- irons called anchors tied ropes so the boat could not go any further,

Equivalence may be by cultural substitute.

If the story is about someone who was eating banana.

It would be much better to say that he was eating a fruit called banana.

It would be inappropriate to say that he was eating an orange.

Some cultural substitutes which have been used in translation :

lamp- bamboo torch

corner stone- main pole(of house)

recline at table - sit down to eat

foxes- buch rats

fox - hyena.

Almost any text which one might wish to translate will have some key words. Key words are words which are used over in the text and are crucial to the theme or topic under discussion. Key words are most often words which represent an essential or basic concept of the text . The translator should note the key words and give special attention to finding adequate lexical equivalents before beginning. There will be a number of terms used repeatedly in the source text for which lexical equivalences should be determined before beginning the translation the whole. If the words are not translated in such a way as to communicate the meaning clearly, the point of the whole text may be lost. Ex:church- used by christians; mosque-used by Muslims synangoque-used by Tems.

We must distinguish generic and specific words.The same meaning components may occur in several lexical items of a language.

Ex: the meaning “sheep” is also found in the words lamt, ram, ewe. These is true because the word sheep is generic word which includes the specific words rem, ewe and lamb.

		sleep	house	chicken	dog	deer
	male	Ram	stallion	woster	dog	buck
adult	female	Ewe	mare	hen	bitch	dol
young		lamb	colt	chick	puppy	fawn

Animal

sheep

horse

chicken

dog

ram ewe lamb

stallion mare colt

woster hen chick

dog bitch puppy

Equivalence modified with features of form.

treasure- lots of valuable things

sea - flat water

wine - fermented grape juice

flour - ground dry grain.

Equivalence modified a statement of function.

centurion - man that commands

ship - that with which we can walk on water

It should be remembered that languages differ:

1) as to the number and selection of meaning components combined in word.

2) as to the semantic interrelations that may exist between words.

The translator should not expect concepts to be as they are in the source language -text being translated since the lexical structures of the two languages are different, the way the concepts are expressed will be different.

Many words in any text are semantically complex. It will be expected that many times a single word will be translated by several words that is a descriptive phrase in the target language. Ex: "glutton" in English might need to be translated "one who eats too much."

Finding equivalent translations for many terms is often difficult. For example "nickel" is "a can worth five cents."

Sometimes it is possible to give the equivalent in an amount in the other system. Ex: "five dollars" could be translated as one hundred pesos if those amounts were equivalent.

Antonymic translation is the way of finding equivalent and is transformation of the affirmative construction into negative or vice versa.

Ann didn't say anything. Аня промолчала .

I am not kidding.

Я вам серьезно говорю.

They gave me the wrong book and I didn't notice it till I got back to my room.

Я ровно дома заметел что мне дали не ту книгу.

I didn't think of it till we went half way through the park.

Вспомнил я об этом когда мы уже проехали почти весь парк .

Keep the child out of the sun.

Не держите ребенка на солнце .

Keep off the grass.

Не ходи по траве.

While translating one should remember he may use the words not included in the dictionary because it's impossible to include in the dictionary all the correct meanings of the word, which it may acquire in the context.

"He was developing grammatical nerves" - У него развивалось грамматическое чутьё.

We can find a lot of meanings of the word "nerves" ,"нервы, сила, мужество, хладнокровье, дерзость, нахальство" but in our text it is rendered as "чутьё".

The student are to make out that thoughts, reflection should be translated not by separate words. So it's quite possible and natural either to introduce some words and even:

- I lit my candle at the watchman`s/ Dickens/ - Я зажег свою свечу от фонаря ночного сторожа.

Sentences or omit them if one can manage without them.

Thous words which have similar form and meaning in different languages are called international words.

Some of them complatly coincide in their meaning/ such as football, diplomacy, artillery/ some of them partially.

They may be different in their stylistic coloring e.g. “businessman”, “cosmopolitan” are neutral in Russian they have negative meaning. Some of them have entirely different meaning:

compositor-наборщик

conductor - дережер,кондуктор

These words are called pseudointernational words:

решительный- dramatic

pathetic - 1) трогательный

2) политический

3) наука и техника- science and technology

The English language is very rich in neologisms- the word have been created recently and perhaps will not live in the language for a long time . It is very seldom that we find equivalent for the translation of neologisms and for the most part we use descriptive translation and word- for- word translation / people of good will, top level talks.

Levels of equivalence and concept of adequate translation

Levels of equivalence: This problem was briefly discussed in the previous lecture in connection with the distinction between semantic and programmatic equivalence.

In the theory of translation, for instance: V.G.Gark and I.N.Levin distinguish the following types of equivalents: formal semantic and situational. Formal equivalence may be illustrated by speech cases as: The sun disappeared behind a cloud - солнце скрылось за тучей.

Here we find similarity of words and forms in addition to the similarity. The differance in the plain of expression are in fact, those determined by overall structural differences between Russian and English.

The use of articles in English, the use of perfective aspect, gender, forms, etc., in Russian.

Semantic equivalence - exists when the same meaning are expressed in two languages in a way.

Example:-Troops were airlifted to the battlefield-войска были переброшены по воздуху на поле.

The English word “airfield” contains the same meaning as the Russian phrase-перебросить по воздуху.Although different linguistic devices are used in Russian and in English/ a word group and a compound word / the sum of semantic components is the same situation equivalence is established between that both linguistic devices but, nevertheless , describe the same extralinguistic situation : to

let someone pass- уступить дорогу. It should be noted that formal equivalence alone insufficient . In fakt the above examples pertain to two types of semantic equivalence.

Each word effects the meaning of the object it designates . Not unfrequently languages “select” different properties and signs to describe the same denotations. The way, each language creates it`s own “picture of the word” is known as “various principles of dividing reality into parts”. Despite the difference of signs, both language reflect one and the same phenomenon adequately and to the same extent , which must be taken into account when translating words of this kinds , as equivalence is not identical to having the same meaning /e.g. compare: hot milk skin on it - каймок тутган иссик сут - горячее молоко с пенкой./

The differences of semantic content of the equivalent words in two languages. These words can be divided into three sub - groups:

a) words with a differentiated / undifferentiated/ meaning: e.g. in English: to swim / of a human being /, to sail /, of a ship/, to float/, of an inanimante object;/in Uzbek : сузмок /кема хакида/,сузмок/кема хакида/ сув юзида калкиб юрмок/предмет тугрисиди;/in Russian: плавать, плыть.

b) words with a “broad” sense; verbs of state / to be / , perception and brainwork / to see , to understand /, verbs of action and speech / to go, to stay /, partially desemantized words / thing , case /.

c) “adverbial verbs” with a composite structure, which have a semantic content, exressing action and nature at the same time: e.g. The train whistled out of the station . -Поезд хуштак чалиб станциядан жунаб кетди.-Дав свисток,поезд отошел от станции.

Most difficulties are encountered when translating the so called pseudo - international words i.e. words which are similar in both languages, but differ in meaning or use. The regular correspondence of such words , in spelling and sometimes in articulation / in compliance with the regularities of each language. Coupled with the structure of word-building in both languages may lead to a false indentification / e.g. English moment , in Uzbek - лахза; in Russian - момент, важность, значительность/.

Each language has its own typical rules of combinability. The latter is limited by the system of the language. A language has generally established traditional combinations which do not concur with corresponding ones in another language .

Adjectives offer considerable difficulties in the process of translation, that is explained by the specific ability of English adjectives to combine. It does not always coincide with their combinability in Uzbek or Russian languages on account of differences in their semantic structure and valence.Frequently one and the same adjective in English combines with a number of nouns , while in Uzbek and in Russian different adjectives are used in combinations of this kind . For this reason it is not easy to translate English adjectives which are more capable of combining than their Uzbek and Russian equivalents / A bad headache , a bad mistake... /каттик бош огриги , купол хато...; сильная головная боль , грубая ошибка ./

A specific feature of the combinability of English nouns is that some of them can function as the subject of sentence, indicating one who acts, though they do not belong to a lexico-semantic category *Nomina Agentis*. This tends to the “predicate - adverbial modifier” construction being replaced by that of the “subject - predicate”.

- The strike closed most of the school in New - York.

- Иш ташлаш натижасида Нью-Йоркдаги мактабларнинг купчилиги ёпилди.

- В результате забастовки большинство школ Нью-Йорка было закрыто.

Of no less significance is the habitual use of a word, which is bound up with the history of the language and the formation and the development of its lexical system. This gave shapes to clichés peculiar to each language, which are used for describing particular situation/ e.g. in English “Wet point”, in Uzbek “Эҳтиёт булинг, буялган”, in Russian “Осторожно, окрашено”.

Types of lexical transformations

In order to equivalence, despite the differences in formal and semantic system of two languages, the translator is obliged to do various linguistic transformation. Their aims are to ensure that the text imparts all the knowledge inferred in the original text, the rules of the language it is translated into the following 3 elementary types are seemed most suitable for describing all kinds of lexical transformations:

1. Lexical substitution;

2. supplementation;

3. omissions/dropping/.

1. Lexical substitution.

1) In substitutions of lexical units words and stable word combinations are replaced by others which are not their equivalents. More often 3 cases are met with:

a) A concret definition - replacing a word with a broad sense by one of a narrower meaning: He is at school- Он учиться в школе; У мактабда укииди. He is in the army - Он служит в армии; У армияда хизмат килади.

b) Generalization - replacing a word's narrow meaning by one with a broad sense: A Navai blanket - жун адёл; индийское одеяло.

c) An integral transformation: How do you do - Салом; Здравствуйте.

2. Antonymous translation is a complex lexico-grammatical substitution of a positive construction for the negative one / and vice-versa/, which is coupled with a replacement of a word by its antonym when translated / keep off grass - Маиса устидан юрманг - Не ходите по траве/.

3. Compensation is used when certain elements in the original text cannot be expressed in terms of the language it is translated into. In cases of this kind the same information is communication by other or another place to as to make up the semantic deficiency.

Question-tasks:

1. What is integral transformation?
2. Can you define the antonymous translation?
3. Can you explain what is generalization?
4. What are types of lexical transformations?

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IV. АМАЛИЙ МАШҒУЛОТЛАР МАЗМУНИ

Seminar 1. Grammatical problems of translation

Plan:

1. Grammatical correspondence and its types in translation
2. Syntactic exchange process in translation
3. Grammatical problems in translation

Key words: morphology, agglutinative, grammatical inflections, correspondence, subject, predicate, transposition.

Every language has a specific system which differs from that of any others. This is all the more so with respect to English, Uzbek and Russian, whose

grammatical systems are typologically and genetically heterogeneous. English and Russian belong to the Germanic and Slavonic groups respectively in the Indo-European family of language. The Uzbek language patronize to the Turkish group of the Altaic family. Concerning the morphological type both English and Russian are inflected, through the former is notable for its synthetic character in the main, Uzbek is an agglutinative language.

As to grammar the principle means of expression in languages possessing in analytical character / English / is the order of words and use of function words / though all the four basic grammatical means- grammatical inflections, function words, word order and intonation pattern are found in any languages./ The other two means are of secondary importance.

The grammatical inflections are the principal means used in such languages as Russian and Uzbek, though the rest of grammatical inflections.

The comparison of the following examples will help to illustrate the difference between the language considered:

The hunter killed the wolf

Овчи бурини улдирди

ОХОТНИК УБИЛ ВОЛКА.

This means that the subject /S/ is placed in the first position / V / - in the second position. If the predicate is expressed by a transitive verb when in the third position we find the object / O / that is:

S – V tr – O

Any violation of the order of the word brings about a change or distortion of the meaning. The corresponding Russian sentence adheres to the pattern S – V tr – O. But it permits the transposition of the word i.e.

ОХОТНИК УБИЛ ВОЛКА

Волка убил охотник

These patterns are not equivalent. The first allows transposition of words, which leads to stylistic marking / characteristic of poetry /. Besides, the ending “NI” expresses an additional meaning of definiteness. The second pattern doesn't tolerate transposition of words.

The principal types of grammatical correspondences between two languages are as follows:

- b. complete correspondence
- c. partial correspondence
- d. the absence of correspondence.

Complete morphological correspondence

Complete morphological correspondence is observed when in the languages considered there are identical, grammatical categories with identical particular meanings.

In all the three languages there are identical, grammatical categories with identical particular meanings.

In all the three languages there is a grammatical category of number. Both the general categorical and particular meaning are alike:

Number

Singular Plural

Such correspondence may be called complete

Partial morphological correspondence

Partial morphological correspondence is observed when in the languages examined there are grammatical categories ways identical categorial meaning but with some differences in the particular meaning .

In the languages considered there is a grammatical category of case in nouns. Though the categorial meaning is identical in all three languages the particular meanings are different both from the point of view of their number and the meanings they express. English has 2 particular meanings while Uzbek and Russian have 6. Though latter two languages have the same quantity of particular cases , their meanings do not coincide.

The differences in the case system or in any other grammatical categories are usually expressed by other means in languages.

Absence of morphological correspondence

Absence of morphological correspondence is observed when there are corresponding grammatical categories in the language examined . As for instance in Uzbek there is a grammatical categories of possessiveness , which shows the affixation of things to one of the three grammatical persons , e. g . :

Uzbek

Китоб – им

Китоб –инг

Китоб – и

This grammatical category is neither found in English nor in Russian. These languages use pronouns for this purpose.

English

Russian

My book

МОЯ КНИГА

Your book

ТВОЯ КНИГА

His / her book

его / её книга.

In English we use certain grammatical means to express a definite and indefinite meanings, that is articles . But there are no equivalent grammatical means in Uzbek and Russian. They use lexical or syntactic means to express those meanings . / see substitution /

Complete syntactic correspondence.

By complete syntactic correspondence is understood the conformity in structure and sequence of words in word – combinations and sentences .

Complete syntactic correspondence is rarely to be found in the languages examined here . However , the pattern adj+ noun is used in word – combination: red flags – кизил байроқлар , красные знамена . The same may be said of sentences in cases when the predicate of the simple sentences is expressed by an intransitive verb : he laughed – у кулди, он смеялся.

Partial syntactic correspondence

By partial syntactic correspondence in word – combinations is understood the conformity in meaning but discrepancy in the structure of phase.

Partial syntactic correspondence in word – combinations are found in this following patterns.

1. Attributes formed by the collocation of words.

Owing to the fact that English is poor in grammatical inflections , attributes are widely formed by means of more collocation of words in accordance with the pattern N (1) + (2) which expressed the following type of relations .

Attributive		
English	Uzbek	Russian
Class- tube	шиша - найча	стеклянная трубочка
N (1)+ N (2)	N (1)+ N (2)	ADJ + N

In the example English and Uzbek translation is unmarked while Russian is marked.

Possessive		
English	Uzbek	Russian
House – plan	а) уй плани	план дома
N (1) + N (2)	б) уйнинг плани	N (1) + N

(2)(a)

N (1 нинг) + N (2) (n)

The Uzbek and Russian versions are marked , while English is unmarked. Besides , in Russian the transposition is observed.

As it is seen in the examples cited , languages differ as to the way they express these relations , though they maintain identical relations between the components of word – combinations.

1. word – combination whose first component is expressed by a numeral .

One book	Битта китоб	Одна книга
Two books	иккита китоб	две книга
Three books	учта китоб	три книги
Four books	тўртта китоб	четыре книги

The order of words in these combinations is the same in all the three languages, though the manner of expressing plurality differs in the second components.

Compare :

English	Uzbek	Russian
Num + N (pl)	Num + N sing	from two to five
Num + N (sin) rod. P		
From five on		
Num + N (pl)rod. P		

2. As is seen in English and Russian the second components are grammatically marked , though the markers do not coincide.

In Uzbek it is unmarked.

3. Partial syntactic correspondence is also observed in complete polycomponent prepositive attributes with inner predication as in the following examples:

This is to be or not to be a struggle – Хаёт мамот кураши , борьба не на жизнь а на смерть

Go – to – hell voice – Дагал овоз, грубый голос

By partial syntactic correspondence in sentences is understood the divergence in the order of the words, omission or partial substitute of parts of sentences:

It is forbidden to smoke here – бу ерда чекиш ман қилинган, курить здесь запрещено.

With that blue out his candle – у шамни ўчирди, он задул свечи (P. Stivenson)

Absence syntactic correspondence

By absence of syntactic correspondence we mean lack of certain syntactic construction in the target languages, which were used in the Source language. In English this concerns syntactic construction with non-finite forms of the verb, which compose the extended part of a sentence with an incomplete or secondary predications.

The semantic function of predicative construction can be formulated as intercommunication and inter conditionality of actions or states with different subjects. These constructions have no formal grammatical connection with the main parts of sentences though there is always a conformity between them. The degree of attendance of action or condition in predicative construction determines the choice of complex, compound or simple in translation. Compare:

I heard the door open... - Эшик очилганини эшитдим, Я улышал как открылась дверь.

In the English sentences the predicative construction which functions as an object is composed of a noun in the common case and an infinitive. In Uzbek this construction corresponds to the word – combination “эшик очилганини” which carries.

Out the same function, though there is neither structural in morphological conformity: it is a word combination expressed by a noun and participle.

The translation experience shows that you can't give a word- for word translation. There are 4-5 grammatical translation:

1. Transpositions
4. Replacements
3. Additions
5. Omissions.

Translations are connected with functional sentence perspectives. Transposition is a change in the order of linguistic elements such as words clauses & is connected with “functional sentence perspectives” which is the division of the messages into main parts:

1. The theme
2. The theme

In English where the theme is marked different by it is placed at the beginning & the theme at the end.

Within a complex sentence a similar tendency is observed.

Replacement are the most common type of grammatic transposition & they effect all types of linguistic unites.

The subdivision of replacement:

- 1) the replacement of the word forms struggles
- 2) replacement of parks of speech is specially typical as to replacement of English nouns derived from the verbs & demoting actions.

Subject f the English sentence is often replaced in Russian by corresponding secondary part such as object, adverbial modifier of time.

Types of grammatical transformation

In order to attain the fullest information from one language into another one is obliged to resort numerous inter linguistic lexical and grammatical transformations.

Grammatical transformation are as follows;

1. Substitution;
2. Transposition;
3. Omission;
4. supplementation.

The cited types of elementary transformations as such are rarely used in the process of translating. Usually they combine with each other, assuming the nature of “complex” interlinguistic transformations.

1. SUBSTITUTION

By substitution we understand the substitution of one part of speech by another or one form of a word by another. Consequently, there are two kinds of substitutions constituting a grammatical type of transformations; substitution of parts of speech and the grammatical form of a word. Transformation by substitution may be necessitated by several reasons: the absence of one or an other grammatical form or construction in the target language; lack of coincidence in the use of corresponding form and construction as well as lexical reasons- different combinability and use of words, lack of a part of speech with the same meaning.

An example of the substitution of a word- form may be the interpretation of the meaning of the grammatical category of postriority of the English verb, which is presented in two particular meanings: absolute posterity / he says he will come / and relative posterity / he said he would come /.Uzbek and Russian verbs do not possess word form of this kind and communicate their meaning with use of other grammatical means: у келишини айтаяпти.

Он говорит, что придет.

У келишини айтди . Он сказал , что придет.

In Uzbek the meaning of this category is expressed by a substantives participle ending in- jak or by the infinitive ending in – (i) sh; in Russian the future tense form of a verb is used .

There are two types of substitution of parts of speech; obligatory and nonobligatory. the obligatory substitution is observed when in the target language there are no part of speech corresponding to that used in the source language e.g. the English articles and may be used for emphasis. In cases of the kind it is necessary to substitute them with functionally – adequate means of expressions in Uzbek and Russian.

E.g. When we were in Majorca, there was a Mr. Leech there and she was telling us most wonderful things about you.(A. Christie).

Биз Малоркада бўлганимиздаб, у ерда қандайдир миссис Лич бор эди. У бизга сиз тўғрингизда жуда кўп қизиқарли нарсаларни айтиб берди.

Когда мы были в Малорке, там были некая миссис Лич, которая рассказывала очень много интересного о Вас.

In Uzbek and Russian an indefinite pronoun is used for translating the indefinite article.

Non obligatory substitution is a substitution undertaken by the needs or demands of the context:

The climb had been easier than he expected.

Кўтарилиш у кутгандан осонроқ бўлди.

Паднятса оказалось легче, чем он ожидал.

A noun in the English sentence is substitute by infinitives in the Uzbek and Russian languages.

Omission.

As a type of grammatical transformation – omission is necessitated by grammatical redundancy of certain forms in two languages.

He raised his hand.

У кулини кўтарди.

Он поднял руку.

2. Addition, as a type of grammatical transformation can be met with in cases of formal inexpressiveness of grammatical or semantic components in the language of the original text.

Also, there was an awkward hesitancy at times, as he essayed the new words he had learnt.

Баъзида у яқиндагина ўрганган янги сўзларни талаффуз қилишди хозирланиб, тўхтаб қоларди.

Иногда он запинался, готовясь произнести слова, которые он только недавно выучил.

The meaning of the verbal form is expressed in Russian by the words “только недавно”, and in Uzbek by the adverb “яқиндагина”.

It must be emphasized that the division into lexical and grammatical transformations is, to a great extent, approximate and conditional. In some

cases a transformation can be interpreted as one another type of elementary transformation. In practice the cited types of lexical and grammatical transformation are seldom met with in "pure form". Frequently they combine to form complex transformations.

Function varies to still greater extent. Take for instance such category as gender Russian distinguished 3 genders:

Masculine, feminine & neutral Which are formally expressed in the following ways:

- by the inflexional forms of the noun itself .
- by means of pronominal substitution.

In English the same 3 genders are also distinguished. However, the only formal way to express this distinction through pronominal substitution, there being no such things as agreement in gender or difference in inflexional endings. In Uzbek pronominal substitution doesn't exist.

The translation task is:

1. To find the correct meaning to this or that form.
2. To find an appropriate form in the Target language for this expression of the same meaning. On the whole this choice of grammatical equivalent in the Target language determined by the following factors:
 1. The meaning inherent in the grammatical form itself.

Ex: lives

Lived

2. The lexical character of the word or word group used in this or that form.
Ex: thus the use of the plural form in Russian is impossible with certain nouns while possible with others:

Ex: workers of all industries

Other philosophies

Questions:

1. What are the grammatical problems?
2. What is the subject- predicate?
3. What is the syntactic correspondence?
4. What is the syntactic correspondence?
5. What are the main types of grammatical transformations?
6. What are the two main parts of the division of the messages in translation?
7. What is transposition understood ?
8. What is the difference between omission and addition?
9. What is the translation task?

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Seminar 2. Phraseological problems of translation.

Plan:

1. Phraseological units and discussions by scientists on them
2. Translation problems of phraseological units
3. Translating proverbs and sayings

Key words: phraseological units, expressive components, idioms, translation, complete conformities, partial conformities, absence of conformities.

Translating a phraseological unit is not an easy matter as it depends on several factors: different combinability of words, homonymy, synonymy, polisemy of phraseological units. It is necessary to take into account the context. Besides a large number of phraseological units have a stylistic expressive component in meaning which has a specific national feature. It should be pointed out that it is necessary to get acquainted with the main principles of the general theory of phraseology.

The following types of phraseological units may be observed phrasemes and idioms, a unit of constant context consisting of a dependent and a constant indicates may be called a phraseme. An idiom as a unit of constant context, which is characterized by an integral meaning of the whole and by weekend meanings of the components and in which the dependent and the indicating elements are identical and equal to the whole lexical structure of the phrase.

Any type of phraseological unit can be presented as a definite micro system. In the process of translating phraseological units functional adequate linguistic units are selected by comparing two specific linguistic principles. These principles reveal elements of likeness and distinction. Certain parts of these systems may correspond in form and content. The main types of phraseological conformities are as follows:

1. Complete conformities.
2. Partial conformities.
3. Absence of conformities.

Complete conformities of form and content in phraseological units is seldomly met. For e.g.: black frost is a phraseme, it is translated into Uzbek – *копа совук*, to bring oil to fire – it is an idiom, it may be translated into Uzbek – *алангага ёғ куймок*.

So we see complete coincidence of form and content in phraseological units is very rare. Phraseological units are functionally and semantically inseparable units. They may be non-motivated stable units. According to the motivation academician Vinogradov V.V. classified phraseological units into 3 groups:

1. Phraseological fusions. Such phraseological units are completely non-motivated. For e.g.: to get one's goat – бирор кишини хафа килмок
2. Phraseological unities. These phraseological units are partially motivated. For e.g.: to show one's teeth – кулмок
3. Phraseological collocations. These phraseological units are structurally inseparable and stable units. For e.g.: to take care of – гамхурлик килмок.

Partial conformities of phraseological units in two languages assume lexical, grammatical and lexico-grammatical differences with identity of meaning and style, i.e. they are figuratively close, but differ in lexical composition, morphologic number and syntactic arrangement of the order of words. One may find:

- 1) Partial lexic conformities by lexic parameters: to get out of bed on the wrong foot, it is an idiom, may be translated as чап ёни билан турмок
- 2) Partial conformities by the grammatical parameters: to fish in troubled waters, it is an idiom, may be translated as лойка сувда балик тутмок.

Absence of conformities. Many English phraseological units have no phraseological conformities in Uzbek and Russian. In the first instance this concerns phraseological units based on realize. When translating units of this kind it is advisable to use the following types of translation:

- a) Verbatim word for word translation.
- b) Translation by analogy.
- c) Descriptive translation.

A verbatim translation is possible when the way of thinking does not bear a specific national feature. For e.g.: the arms race, it is a phrase me, the translation is куролланиш пойгаси.

Translating by analogy, this way of translating is resorted to when the phraseological unit has a specific national realize. For e.g.: to pull somebody's leg, it is an idiom, the translation is мазах килмок.

Descriptive translation i.e. translating phrase logical units by a free combination of words is possible when the phrase logical unit has a particular national feature and has no analogue in the language it is to be translated into. For e.g.: to enter the House, it is a phraseme, the translation is Парламент аъзоси булмок.

Translating a phrase logical unit is not an easy matter as it depend on several factors : different combinability of words , homonymy , polysemy , synonymy of phrase logical units and presence of falsely identical units , which makes it necessary to take into account of the context . Besides , a large number of phraseological units have a specific national feature . The afore- cited determines the necessary to get acquainted with the main principles of the general theory of phraseology . The following types of phraesological units may be observed : phrasemes and idioms . A unit of constant context consists of a dependent and a constant indicators may be called a phraseme . An idiom is a unit of constant context which is characterized by an antegral meaning of the whole and by weakened meanings of the components , and in which the dependent and the indicating lelements are identical and equal to the whole lexical structure of the phrase . Any type of phrase . Any type of phraseological unit can be presented as a definite micro- system . In the process of translating of phraseological units

functional adequate linguistic units are selected / by comparing two specific linguistic principles . These principles reveal elements of likeness and distinction. Certain parts of these systems may correspond in form and content (completely or partially) or have no adequacy.

The types of phraseological conformities are as follows :

1. Complete conformities
2. Partial conformities
3. Absence of conformities.

1. Complete conformities. Complete coincidence of form and content in phraseological units is rarely met with.

2. Black frost / phraseme /

-кора совук

-сильный мороз .

3. To bring oil to fire / idiom /

- алангага ег куймок

-подлить масло в огонь .

4. To lose one`s head / idiom /

- гангиб колмок

-потерять голову .

II. Partial conformities. Partial conformities of phraseological units in two language assume lexical , grammatical and lexico- grammatical differences with identity of meaning and style , i.e..they are figuratively close but differ in lexical composition , morphologic number and syntactic arrangement of the order of words . One may find:

1) Partial lexical conformities by lexic parameters / lexical composition /.

a) – To get out of bed on the wrong foot / idiom /

- Чап ёни билан турмок

- Ветать с левой ноги.

b) – To have one`s heat in one`s boots / idiom/

- Юраги оркасига кетмок

- Душа в пятку ушла .

c) - To lose one`s temper / phraseme /

- Сабри чидамок

- Выйти из себя , потерять терпение

d) - To dance to somebody`s pipe / idiom /

–Бировнинг ногорасига уйнамок

- Играть под чью – либо дудочку

2) Partial conformities by grammatical parameters

3) Differing as to morphological arrangement / number /

a. To fish in troubled waters ./idiom./

- лойка сувда балик тутмок

- ловить рыбу в мутной воде

b. From head to foot / idiom /

- бошдан оёгигача
- ловить рыбу в мутной воде
- c. To agree like cats and dogs / phraseme/
- ит мушукдек яшамок
- жить как кошка с собакой
- d. To keep one`s head / idiom /
- узини йукатмаслик
- не потерять голову.
- 4) Differing as to syntactical arrangement.
- a. Strike while the iron is hot .
- темирни кизигида бос
- куй железо пока горячо
- b. Egyptian darkness .
- коп –коронги зимистон ./ гордек коронги/
- тьма египетская
- c. Armed to teeth
- тиш-тирногигача куролланган
- вооружённый до зубов
- d. All is not gold that glitters
- барча ялтираган нарса олтин эмас
- не всё золото что блестит.

Absence of conformities

Many English phraseological units have no phraseological conformities in Uzbek and Russian . In the first instance this concerns phraseological units based on realia. When translating units of this kind it is advisable to use the following types of translation :

- A. A verbatim word for word translation
- B. Translation by analogy
- C. Descriptive translation .

A. Verbatim translation is possible when the way of thinking / in the phraseological unit / does not bear a specific national feature .

1. To call things by their true names / idioms/

- хар нарсани уз номи билан атамок
- называть все вещи своими именами .

2. The arms race / phraseme/

- куролланиш пойгаси
- гонка вооружений

3. Cold war / idioms /

- совук уруш
- холодная война

B. Translating by analogy this way of translating is resorted to when the phraseological unit has a specific national realia.

1. “Dick” side the dwarf , thrashing his head in at the door – “my pet , my pupil , the apple of my eye hey ”.Ch. Dickens “The Old Curiosity Shop” ch 1/ idiom // .

- “Дик , - воскликнулкарлик., просовывая голову в дверь , - мой любимец, мой ученик, свет моих ночей ”

- 2.To pull somebody`s leg / idiom /

- мазах килмок
- одурачить кого – либо .

C. Descriptive translation i.e_ translating phraseological units by a free combination of words is possible when the phraseological units has a particular national feature and has no analogy in the language it is to be translated into.

1. To enter the house / phraseme

парламент аъзоси булмок
стать членом парламента

- 2.To cross the flour of the house / idiom /

бир партиядан бошка партияга утиб кетмок
перейти с одной партии в другую

Question-tasks

1. What are the phraseological problem of translation ?
2. What are the complete conformities ?
- 3 What are the partial conformities ?
4. What are the absence conformities

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Seminars 2-3. Stylistic problems of translation

Plan:

1. Stylistic devices and their expression in translation
2. Ways of expression of emotional expressiveness in translation
3. Metaphore and its translation problems
4. Pragmatic aspects of translation

Key words: stylistics, stylistic devices, comparison, metaphore, smiles,figurative, isolated, particular, personification, trundingly.

Metaphors and similes are found in many languages. They are comparison

He ran like the wind. The moon is like blood. Benjamin is like a wolf.

In English a simile has the words “like” and “as”. Metaphors don’t have the word “like” or “as”. The comparison is always that of some likeness. We find the similarity of two objects in metaphors.

the child is a greedy little pig

he is an ox

he is a rock

These could just as well be said as similes:

that child is like a greedy little pig

he is like an ox

he is like a rock

Metaphors and similes represent two propositions in the semantic structure. A proposition consists of a topic and the comment about that topic.

“John is tall” consists of the topic “John” and the comment “is tall.”

The comparison comes in the comment part of the propositions.

John is as tall as a bean pole.

The topic of the first proposition is compared to the topic of the second.

1. John is tall 2. a bean pole is tall.

The sentence “that animal is a tiger” is not metaphorical, but the sentence “John is a tiger” is a metaphor. John is being compared to a “tiger” because of some point of similarity.

Metaphors are divided into “dead metaphors” and “live metaphors”.

“dead metaphors” are those which are a part of the idiomatic constructions of the lexicon of the language. An idiom is a dead metaphor.

Run into debt; foot of the stairs; the head of the state.

They are dead metaphors because native speakers who use them do not think about comparison. But think directly of the meaning of the idiom. They are understood directly without giving attention to the primary sense of each of the words.

Live metaphors are constructed on the spot by the author or speaker to teach or illustrate. A live metaphor is understood only after paying special attention to the comparison which is being made. It is easy for a native speaker to recognize the difference between “live” and “dead” metaphors in his language.

For one who is translating it is important to make distinction since idioms will be translated directly without any attempt to keep the metaphorical content of the idiom. However, live metaphors are treated differently in the translation process.

Not all metaphors and similes are easily understood. If they are translated literally, word-for-word into a second language they often will be misunderstood. There are a number of reasons why metaphors are hard to understand and cannot be translated literally. First of all, the image used in the metaphor or simile maybe unknown in the receptor language.

a simile based on “snow” would be meaningless to people who live in some parts of the country where snow is unknown.

In English: I washed my clothes white as snow;

In a language in the South: I washed my clothes as seashells or as bone.

In Uzbek: *Oppoq paxtadek qilib kir yuvdim.*

Sometimes it is a point of similarity that is implicit and hard to identify.

The sentence “he is a pig” doesn’t include the point of similarity. In some cultures a reference to pigs would be given the idea of “dirty”. But in other cultures it might mean one who is glutton and in other culture it might mean someone who doesn’t listen to people.

When the point of similarity is not stated it is often hard to interpret the metaphor.

“He is an ox” could have various meanings.

One could think of the characteristics of an ox as “strong”, “huge” or “unintelligent”. This makes it very different to interpret the metaphor in order to translate it.

John is a rock, may mean differently in different cultures:

1. he’s still
2. he can’t talk
3. he’s always there
4. he’s very strong

He is a sheep, have different meaning from one culture to another :

1. long haired man
2. a drunkard
3. a person who doesn’t answer back
4. one who just follows without thinking
5. a young fellow waiting for girls to follow him
6. one who is very calm

translating “he is a sheep” into a second language could lead to a very wrong meaning if the point of similarity is not made clear.

The translator must give careful consideration whenever a metaphor is found in the source text. The first step towards adequate translation of a metaphor is to determine whether the comparison is a live metaphor or simile or whether it is simply a dead figure. If the words which are figurative are simply an idiom, i.e. a dead metaphor, then the meaning can be translated directly, i.e. nonfiguratively.

If the comparison is a “live” metaphor, then the first task of the translator is to analyse the metaphor carefully. It can be very helpful to write down .

The aim of the translator is to avoid wrong zero meaning.

In the sentence “the rod is a snake”

“snake” means smth like “crooked”. If the “snake” means something like “crooked”. If the snake has this metaphorical meaning in the receptor language there would not be a problem in a rather literal translation. In some languages it would be much clearer if the metaphor was changed to a simile and the sentence was the road is like a snake it may be that the comparative is correctly understood in the receptor language in this form if not, it can be spelled out more carefully in a form such as “the road is as crooked as a snake”. Similes are more easily understood than metaphors in most language.

It may be that the translator will want to substitute a different metaphor in the receptor language one that carries the same meaning as the source language.

Ex. There was a storm in parliament. It might be good in some languages to change the metaphor from “storm” to “fire” and the translation would read the parliament was on fire last night. If this is the metaphor which will be most clearly understood and indicate that there was “juice debate in parliament”. As long as the nonfigurative meaning of the metaphor is not lost or distorted, a metaphor from the receptor language will be substituted.

There will be sometimes when the translator will simply need to ignore the image in the source text. This is, he will simply translate the meaning directly without using a metaphor. The source text “there was a storm in the national parliament last night” might simply be translated directly “there was a lot of argument and debate in the national parliament last night” or the sentence “he was a pig” might simply be translated “he is a messy person.”

In summary, there are five ways that metaphors may be

1. The metaphor may be kept if the receptor language permits (that is, if it sounds and is understood correctly by the readers)
2. A metaphor may be translated as a simile (adding “like or as”)
3. A metaphor of the receptor language which has the same meaning may be substituted.
4. The metaphor may be kept and the meaning explained (that is, the topic and or point similar may be added).
5. The meaning of the metaphor may be translated without keeping the metaphor images comparing with the above list, the metaphor “no man is an island”
 1. No man is an island.
 2. No man is like an island.
 3. No man is a mountain peak.
 4. No man is an island. An island is by itself, but no person is isolated from others.
 5. No man is isolated from all other people.

Seminars 4-5. The translation of metaphors

Plan:

- 1. The translation of metaphor.**
- 2. Stock or standard metaphors**

The most important particular problem is the translation of metaphors. By metaphor any figurative expression: The transferred sense of a physical word; the personification of an abstraction; the application of a word or collocation to what it does not literally denote, i.e. to describe one thing in terms of another. All polysemous words (a ‘heavy’ heart) and most English phrasal verbs (‘put off’, ‘dissuade’, ‘troubles’ etc) are potentially most metaphorical.

Metaphors may be ‘single’ - viz, one word - or ‘extended’ (a collocation, an idiom, a sentence, a proverb, an allegory, a complete imaginative text.) So much for the substance. The purpose of metaphor is basically twofold: its referential purpose is to describe a mental process or state, a concept, a person,

an object, a quality or an action more comprehensively and concisely than is possible in literal or physical language; its pragmatic purpose, which is semantios, is to appeal to the senses, to interest, to clarify 'grafically', to please, to delight, to surprise. The first purpose is cognitive, the second aesthetic. In a good metafor, the two purposes fuse like (and are paralled with) content and form; the referential purpose is likely dominate in a textbook, the aesthetic often reinforced by sound- effect in an advertisement, popular jounalism, an art-for-art's sake work or a pop song; "Those stars make towers on vowels" (Saxophone song ' , Kate Bush . Metaphor, both purposes, always involves illusion ; like a lie where you are pretending to be someone you're not, a metaphor is a kind of deception, often used to conceal an intention 'Cruise trundingly amicably in the lanes' -The Economist).

Metaphor incidentally demonstrates a resemblance, a common semantic area between two or more or less similar things - the image and the project. This is seen first as a process not, as is often stated, as a function. The consequence of a surprising metaphor (a 'papery' cheek?- thin, white, flimsy, frail, fuble, cowordiy?) may be the recognition of a resemblance, but that is not its purpose.

The translation of metaphor.

One of the problems in understanding and translating an original or adaptea and, to a lesser extent, a stock metaphor is to decide howmuch space to allot to the criss- crossed area is: a) positive or negative ; b) connotative or denotative . Thus in the sentence : "Bissinger" . A TV "portrait" featuring a Matternich of today ?, it is not clear whether "Metternich" refers to : a) Metternich `s career as a European statesman; b) his craftiness(negative) ; c) his shrewdness (positive); d) less likely , his autocratic nature. This may be clarified in the subsequent sentences.

Metaphor: the figurative word used, which may be one word, or `extended` over any stretch of language from a collocation to the whole text.

Metonymy a one-word image which replaces the `object`. It may be a cliché metaphoe (`crown` as monarchy), recently standardised (`juggernaut`) or original (`sink` as hold-al receptacle). Metonym includes synecdoche (i.e., part for whole for part) e.g.: `bottom` (boat) or `army` (one soldier). Many technical terms such as orbre, tour, metier, elements, pile, chien are metonyms.

Symbol: a type of cultural metonymy where are material object represents a concept- thus `grapes` as fertility or sacrifice.

Usually cultural metaphors are harder to translate than universal or personal metaphors. Language is not primarily as a deposite expressing a culture but as a medium for expressing universals and personality as well.

Whenever you meet a sentence that is grammatical but does not appear to make sense, you have to test its apparently nonsensical element for a possible metaphorical meaning, even if the writing is faulty, since it is unlikely that anyone, in an otherwise sensible text, is suddenly going to write deliberate nonsense. If it is an authoritative or expressive text, you translate `In the afternoons, the rain always Kills the window-panes`, and perhaps leave interpretation for a footnote. But if it is an anonymous text, you must make an attempt: `In the afternoons, the rain darkens

/muffles/ blocks the light from the window-panes` . You cannot avoid this, you make to have sense of everithing. Usually, only the more common words have connotations but, at a pinch, any word can be a metaphor, and its sense has to be teased out by matching its primary maening against its linguistic, situational and cultural contexts.

Stock or standard metaphors

It is defined a stock metaphor as an established metaphor which in an informal context in an efficient and concise method of convering a physical and/or mental situation both referentially and pragmatically a stock metaphor has a certain emotional warmth- and which is not deadened by overuse.

Stock metaphors are sometimes tricky to translate , since their their apparent equivalents may be out of dote attected or used by a different social cless or age group. You should not use a stock metaphor that does not come naturally you.

The first and the most satisfying procedure for translaing a stock metaphor is to reproduce the same image in the and register, eg: ‘Keep the pot boiling’ , “carn a living ”, ‘Keep something going’. This is rare for extended metaphors (but probably more common for English- German than English-French), more common for single ‘universal’ metaphors, sauch as ‘wooden face’, ‘rise’, ‘drop in prices’. For instance, the metaphor ‘in store’ can be translated as “an reserve” in mary but not all collocations.

But a more common procedure for translating stock metaphors is to replace the S and image with another established T and image, if one exists that is equally frequent within the register.

Such one-word metaphors a rare.

Extended stock metaphor, often change their images, particularly when they are embedded in proverbs, which are often cultural, e.g. ‘that upset the applectart’.

This example is characteristic of translated stock metaphors, in that the equivalence is far from accurate: The English denotes an upset balance or harmony and is between informal and colloquial, has the stronger emotional impact.

A stock metaphor can only be translated exactly ib the image is transferred within a correspondingly acceptable and established collocation.

When we translate there is dways the danger of pursuing a particular too far, accreting superfluous meaning, and so the whole thing set out of balance.

Everything is possible, when the reproduction of the sound effects, but at the cost of economy.

The same caveat applies to the third and obvious translation procedure for stock metaphors, reducing to sense or literal language: not only will components of sense be missing or added , but the emotive or pragmatic impaet will be impaired or lost. Thus the metaphor: ‘I can read him like a book’ has an immediacy which is lacking wen in ‘I can read him as in a book’, which weakens haef the metaphor into a simile; English metaphor is standard, it still has the surprising element of a good metaphor, the French version is prosaic in comparison.

Question-tasks:

1. What stylistic devices do you know?
2. What is metaphore?
3. How do we use simile in literary texts?
4. What are stock and standart metaphors?
5. What is the role of expressiveness of stylistic devices in translation?

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2. Л.С. Бархударов "Язык и перевод" Москва - 1953 год.
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Seminars 7-8. Translation methods

Plan:

1. Translation methods and their types
2. Word by word translation and its peculiarities
3. Phenomena of Micro review and compression
4. Methods of calque and transliteration

Key words: methods, methods of translation, simultaneous translation, interpretation, sight translation, memory tests, micro review, reading aloud, chunking, utilized.

Simultaneous interpetation. We must put into practice certain components of human information processing:

- 1) listening and recall;
- 2) shadowing
- 3) dual-task training or parallel processing
- 4) paraphrasing
- 5) closing

- 6) sight translating
- 7) sight interpreting
- 8) lagging
- 9) anticipating
- 10) names

Clozer. Consists of deleting words , say every 10th word and asking to fill in the blanks . This skills is the cepsity anticipate elements in sequence . Cloze method may be used and carried out in mothertongue or in English . It is customers if you sentences be left at the beginning and at the end of the passage to provide a context.

The passeg of the text was recorded in English by a native speaker. The students were instructed to listen to the text and write down as quicly s possible the missing words signalled by a tone .

The cloze test is carried out in the student`s A- language first and then in their B language .

ex: Wednesday is a busy day for the Tati discount --- (store) on the Rue de Rennes in Paris .

Sight translation / sight interpretation .

Sight translation involves the transposition of a text written in one language into a text delivered orally in another language . A more stressful exercise whould be to eliminate the preparation time and ask the student even having read the text . This is often done in court interpretation situation where documents are handed to the interpreter .

Shadowing: it is a word repetition in the same language , parrot style, of a message presented through headknowes:

- Listening and speaking simultaneously is an acquired skill , interpreters are not born with.

- Psychologists (ex Norman 1976) distiuguish between two types of shadowing a) phonemic shadowing : it involves repeating each sound exactly as it is heard , without waiting for a complete meaning unit , or even an entyive word .

1) Phrase shadowing : it involves repeating the speech waiting for a meaning unit before phase shadowing .

- studies have shownen that one cannot shadow what one does not understand .

In put rates is from 90 to 140 words for minute , sometimes noise can also be added for immediate translation before the judge .

Sight interpretation is presented aurally to studants as well as visually. The studants are given five to ten minutes to prepare a written editorial type speech . The text may be read through headphones .

Memory tests. it is based on the assumption interpretors must remember and understand the information of the text, the meaning of the speech .

The text is presented to the students in their mother tongue who are asked to listen attentively without taking notes and recall as much as possible in the same language . Then the text is presented in their foreign language and they are instructed to recall in the same language then students are presented the same text in their foreign language and asked to recall as much as possible in their mother tongue.

Micro review -of the information or the text is very useful for the interpreter to keep in the memory the semantic base of the information of the speaker . Micro review must express the main meaning of the information .

Ex: Как передает корреспондент агенство Франс Пресс состоялись митинг протеста трудящихся , возмущенных действием колониалистов в Анголе, в результате которых было опечатано помещение средней школы и убиты несколько учителей.

Micro review .

Возмущение трудящихся действиями колониалистов в Анголе .

The interview .

The interview involves a) ascertain the student's ability in both working languages b) to assess their general knowledge and awareness of events throughout the world.

Problem is the recruitment and training of simultaneous interpreters have been the frequent subject of debate and research by many linguists.

This guide is interded primarily for the students who are trained in simultaneous interpreters.

The famous translators write that it is essential for successfully training the interpreters to do the following exercises based on:

1. Profound knowledge of active and passive languages and cultures.
2. Ability of grasp rapidly and convey the essential meaning of what is being said.
3. Ability to project information with confidence, coupled with a good voice.
4. Wide general knowledge and interests, and a willingness to acquire new information.
5. Ability to work as a part of team.

We think the following work will help to master the skills of simultaneous interpretation: Shadowing, Cloze, Sight translation, Memory tests and revealing the strong semantic points in the utterance.

Shadowing is a word for word repetition in the same language, parrot-style of a message presented through headphones. This exercise serves to train begining interpreters to speak and listen simultaneously in one language, in their mother tongue before attemping to interpret from a second language into the mother tongue. Studies have shown that one cannot shadow what was not understand.

Cloze is a method of testing which consists of deleting words from the sentence or text, say every 10th word and asking to fill in the blanks.

Sight translation- the translation of a text written in one language into another visually. It may be in the written form or orally.

Memory tests need to remember as well as understand the information conveyed by the text. A grasp of the informational structure of a piece of text is a comprehension in the case of simultaneous interpretation.

Revealing the strong semantic points in the utterance in simultaneous and consequent translation is to find words or word combinations which can reflect and give the main content of the sentence or utterance. The strong semantic points may help the translators or interpreters to fix in their memory the main content of the utterance and it

gives the opportunity for the interpreter to restore the main content of the information.

For example:

12 000 workers and employees of the San-Nazer industrial factory took part in the protest meeting against the decision of the local metallurgical factory administration about the discharge of 240 workers.

The strong semantic point of this utterance may be the following:

12 000 (workers) of San - Nazera are having meeting against (the) discharge of 240 workers.

Creation such kind of associative connections in the memory of a simultaneous translator will increase subjective probability of occurrence of nearer and following words.

The guide provides the material to exercise translation from English into Uzbek and Russian and from Uzbek Russian into English.

Questions:

1. What is sight translation?
2. What does sight translation provides?
3. What are the requirements to the sight translation?
4. What are the main rules for sight translation?
5. What are the main exercises for sight translation?

Recommended Literature

1. E.S. Aznaurova and other "Translation theory and practice" - Tashkent "Uqituvchi" - 1989 year.
2. Л.С. Бархударов "Язык и перевод" Москва - 1953 год.
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Seminar 9-10. Translation transformations: definition, causes, classification

Plan:

1. Lexical transformations in translation
2. Types of grammatical transformations in translation
3. Stylistic transformations in translation

Key words: transformation, Source Language, Target Language, semantic, pragmatic, synthegmatic, stylistic, grammatic, linguistic, function.

In the process of translation a SLT as a whole or its segments may undergo varied modifications that are known in the theory and practice of translation as translation transformations. The term ‘transformation’ is polysemantic and there are at least 6 meanings that are associated with this word in translation studies including intralinguistic translation [Нелюбин 2003]. The discussion of translation transformations below includes the following: definition, causes (determinants), levels and techniques of translation.

Translation transformations are defined by L.S. Barkhudarov as numerous and varied in their quality inter-lingual changes which are made to achieve adequacy in translation in spite of discrepancies in the formal and semantic systems of a SL and a TL [Бархударов 1975: 190].

A.D.Shveitser stresses that the term ‘transformation’ is used in translation theory metaphorically as in fact we mean special inter-lingual operations of transpresentation («перевыражение») of SL sense by means of TL [Швейцер 1988: 118]. In keeping with this understanding he connects the character of transformations with his model of the levels of equivalence which is based on three aspects of a linguistic sign: syntactic, semantic and pragmatic.

The **syntactic** level favours substitutions which retain the syntactic invariant despite various other replacements, e.g. *The sun disappeared behind a cloud.* – *Солнце скрылось за тучей.*

The **semantic** level admits of a variety of transformations including passivization, nominalization, replacement of a word by a word group, etc. E.g. *Ваша жена прекрасно готовит* – *Your wife is a superb cook.* In such cases the invariant is retained on two sublevels: (a) componential – retains the componential structure of an utterance (as in the example above) and (b) referential – retains the invariant of the referential sense of a SL utterance and a TL utterance (*У меня стоят часы* – *My watch has stopped*).

The **pragmatic** level regarded as a top level in the hierarchy of levels exists irrespective of the other two levels and allows a wide range of transformations

which cannot be described in terms of a single type (e.g. *Many happy returns of the day – С днём рождения*).

An understanding of translation transformations offered by V.S. Vinogradov connects it with two stages in a translator's work:

the first phase includes two types of perception of a message: *pre-translational* (a translator perceives a SL text after first (second, if necessary) reading, analyses its sense) and *translational* perception (immediate perception of concrete words, phrases, utterances at the moment of their translation);

the second phase connected with re-creation by means of TL of what has been perceived in a SL text is also divided into two phases: *transpresentation* and *artistic identification of translation* [Виноградов 2004].

The author discusses various transformations in both phases of the second stage and points out that changes are indispensable in translation as the translator does not look for a ready correspondence in a TL utterance for this or that unit of translation, but he transpresents («перевыражает») the sense of the phrase.

One more very important aspect is revealed in translation transformations by L.K. Latyshev who defines them as conscious deviations from objectively possible language parallelism in order to achieve communicative and functional equivalence of a SLT and a TLT [Латышев 2003]. This approach to translation transformations requires satisfying a strict principle of their motivatedness, that is the use of transformations in translation should always be due to some causes. In the author's opinion, causes of translation transformations include two major factors:

- (a) a SL text as a determinant of translation modifications and
- (b) a lingua-ethnic barrier as another important determinant.

Both these factors are so complex and comprise important facets that they deserve a careful consideration.

A SL text as a determinant of its transformations contains the following features:

- 1) textual *content* comprising denotative, significative connotations, the interpreter's level of content, intra-lingual content, structural content;
- 2) *functions* of a text including intellectual informative, emotive, aesthetic, nominative, voluntative, phatic.

A lingua-ethnic barrier includes linguistic (proper) and ethno-cultural factors:

- 1) *linguistic* factors comprise discrepancies between two language systems on various language levels, language norms, speech norm;

2) *ethno-cultural barrier* refers to pre-textual information stock of SL and TL speakers.

It is obvious that textual parameters of a SLT should be reproduced in translation as fully as possible which impels the translator to make varied modifications on the levels indicated above. As investigations show there are differences in the lingua-ethnic competence of a SL and a TL reader which may become too serious a barrier to ignore. The importance of the two factors is hard to overestimate especially now that modern views on translation activity regard it as a bi-lingual, bi-ethno-cultural process, as a dialogue of two mental worlds and two world-views.

In further discussion of translation transformations it is useful to keep apart related aspects of transformations: transformations as *modifications*/changes of a SL text made on various levels, transformations as certain *operations* made in particular conditions of activity and transformations as *translator's techniques* caused by certain translation difficulties and problems.

Levels of translation transformations, operations and techniques of translation

These aspects of translation refer to the 'nuts and bolts' of the translation craft and business, yet in translation studies scholars often use respective terms indiscriminately, especially often mixing levels of transformations and techniques of translation. Suffice it to mention that even well known classifications of textual modifications confuse *transformations* proper and *techniques* of translation. The term *operations* of translation is reserved by us to those cases when a translator makes use of ready dictionary correspondences to translate a given unit by merely replacing it.

Besides, there is one more aspect of translation transformations which is connected with the understanding of the mechanism of transformations. This problem initially linked with lexical transformations gave rise to a heated discussion that revealed its principal significance in understanding the nature of any transformations. In 1980 Ya.I. Retsker published in the journal "Tetradi perevodchika" his famous article «Что же такое лексические трансформации?» [Рецкер 1980] which brought to light this burning issue of translation practice. The author contrasted two diametrically opposite views on the understanding of lexical transformations expressed, on the one hand, by L.S.Barkhudarov [Бархударов 1975] and, on the other hand, by T.R.Levitskaya and A.M. Fiterman [Левицкая, Фитерман 1976]. L.S.Barkhudarov argues that lexical transformations should be understood as substitutions of some lexical units (words and stable word combinations) in a SLT by lexical units in TL which are not their dictionary equivalents, that is such units which taken outside the given context possess a different referential meaning. E.g. She had *said* that she was in bed and ill (W.

Thackeray, *Vanity Fair*) – Она писала, что она больна и лежит в постели (пер. М. Дьяконова).

The supporters of the other approach to lexical transformations believe that there are no absolute equivalents in any two languages and since translation itself is regarded as a kind of transformation which presupposes the retention of semantic invariant of a source text or textual elements content rather than its/their surface structure, i.e. the form of expressing this content, it is liable to change, cf. *school leavers* – выпускники, *instant coffee* – растворимый кофе.

In this debate Ya.I. Retsker backs up the first approach for which he gives several reasons:

firstly, such TL correspondences as given above are qualified as dictionary correspondences that do not result from any contextual modifications;

secondly, what the authors mean by a surface structure of a lexical unit is its inner form pointing at a particular feature of an object chosen to name it which very seldom coincides in different languages accounting for the differences in nomination techniques, and

finally, the use of translation transformations is a creative artistic process which lets a translator exceed the limitations of dictionary equivalents and offer something proper and adequate for a given situation.

In connection with the discussion of the nature and mechanism of lexical transformations it seems reasonable to apply the above given understanding to any other transformations including grammatical and stylistic. For example, when rendering English sentences with an active voice predicate it is not always best to retain it in translation, but use instead a passive voice construction as there may be other factors active in a given speech situation. The same goes for stylistic devices as there may be shifts in the choice of proper devices in place of ready formal correspondences to produce in a TLT a desirable stylistic effect. Such examples are discussed later in connection with respective types of transformations.

The first important problem arises in connection with classification of transformations made on different levels which is due to the difference of opinion on the notion of 'levels'. In many books on translation the authors single out transformations that correlate with language levels. One of the most popular classifications of transformations offered by prof. V.N. Komissarov takes into account the character of modifications and singles out lexical, grammatical and lexico-grammatical transformations [Комиссаров 1999a]. L.K. Latyshev and A.L. Semenov differentiate between two classes of transformations: structure-layer and content [Латышев, Семёнов 2003]. The former include categorial morphological, syntactical, stylistic and lexical changes, while the latter involving a change in the content representation of a situation include redistribution of semantic components, situational semantic transformations (instrument – instrumental use, event – perception of an event, measure – result, etc), explication of implicit content.

In the section devoted to methods of translation J.-P. Vinay and J. Darbelnet consider them on three levels: lexis, structural organization and message [Вине, Дарбельне 1978].

In their approach to this problem T.R. Levitskaya and A.M. Fiterman also use a language-level classification of transformations (lexical, grammatical and stylistic), though, as is obvious from the previous discussion, they treat transformations in a very broad sense embracing both lexical and grammatical equivalents [Левицкая, Фитерман 1976].

In a systematic way translation transformations were considered and classified by prof. Ya.I. Retsker in close connection with the theory of regular correspondences which distinguished between adequate substitutions (later named 'lexical transformations') and equivalent, variant and contextual correspondences [Рецкер 2004]. Transformations are classified by the author into lexical (comprising *differentiation, concretizing, generalization of meaning, sense development, antonymic translation, entire phrase modification, compensation for losses*), grammatical (*full* – with complete sentence restructuring and *partial* with partial restructuring) and stylistic (*expressive-emotional concretizing* due to the necessity to follow the principle of expressive-stylistic compatibility (in the terminology of V.G. Gak) and *expressive-pragmatic concretizing*).

In our classification of translation transformations from the point of view of the level on which they are made we proceed from the understanding of the object of translation which has been defined above as speech units, i.e. texts. Accordingly, a translator resorts to various modifications either of fragments (segments) of a text or a whole text. Transformations involving segments of a text may refer to the elements of the semantic, lexical, morphological, syntactical (with two sublevels – that of a phrase and that of a sentence) levels, whereas textual transformations are active on the level of a text as an entity. All the above mentioned levels of transformations with the exception of the semantic level may involve changes on two planes: content and form. Correspondingly, in real practice of translation various transformations overlap affecting various aspects of a speech unit: semantic, syntactic and pragmatic.

* * *

Below are given examples of *different-level transformations*, but for the sake of illustrations we point out only those which apply to a particular type:

a) *lexico-semantic*, А я вот сиди и *работай* на него как *каторжный*!... (Чехов. Юбилей) – So I have to sit here and *slave away for him* (пер. К. Кук).

Instead of using dictionary correspondences of the word *каторжный* (*convict, prisoner, felon, culprit, criminal*) the translator resorted to a number of transformations including *lexico-semantic*, replacing the word within the comparative word-group by the phrasal verb on the basis of several common semantic components: cf. (*работать как*) *каторжный* – человек, *сосланный на*

каторгу [*каторга – содержание заключённых в тюрьмах с особо суровым режимом и с привлечением к тяжёлому физическому труду*] (БТСРР) – *slave away – work continuously like a slave [a slave – someone who is legally owned by another person and works for them for no money]*.

) **Morphological**, ...а заглянешь в душу – *обыкновеннейший* крокодил (Чехов. Медведь) - ...yet gaze into her soul and what do you find – a *regular* hyena (C. Cook)

Since the English word *regular* is used as an intensifier there is no need to use it in the superlative degree.

c) **Syntactic I** (phrase level), *Сестра опять всю ночь не спала* (Чехов. Чайка) – *My sister had another sleepless night* (C. Cook).

Syntactic II (sentence level), *И бедняк может быть счастлив* (Чехов. Чайка) – *People can be poor and still be happy* (C. Cook).

d) **Textual level** (text as an entity), the title of the book by V. Grossman “Все течет...” and its translation transform “Forever Flowing” (Tr. Thomas P. Whitney) make sense only in the context of the entire book.

* * *

Techniques of translation relate to a translator’s concrete actions and particular ways of translation which bring about a certain modification or transformation of a SLT. L.S. Barkhudarov described his transformations in terms of four basic techniques: (a) restructuring (or transpositions), (b) substitutions, (c) additions and (d) omissions (or deletions) [Бархударов 1975]. In his opinion, all the major classifications of translator’s techniques boil down to those four.

A much broader classification of techniques of translation was advanced by J.-P. Vinay and J. Darbelnet [Вине, Дарбельне 1978] who singled out seven types:

- a) borrowing
- b) loan translation
- c) word-for-word translation
- d) transposition
- e) modulation
- f) equivalence
- g) adaptation.

The authors point out that the technical ways and means of translation are limited and can be exhaustively described in terms of those seven given above which are enumerated according to the degree of difficulties of translation. In the classification they refer the first three techniques of translation to direct (or literal)

translation thanks to structural or/and metalinguistic (notional) parallelism in the two languages. The remaining four techniques are associated by the authors with non-direct translation and are due to either structural or metalinguistic discrepancies or 'empty cells'.

It seems that such a broad approach to techniques of translation can hardly be justified as, for one thing, the first three types are in fact connected with the choice of the unit of translation rather than techniques, and, for another thing, the four phenomena 'modulation', 'adaptation', 'equivalence' and 'transposition' may be qualified as varieties of substitutions which are caused by different factors: modulation is due to the necessity of expressing a certain message in a usual way which is acceptable in TL (cf. *No vacancies – Номеров нет* (объявление в гостинице и т.п.)), adaptation is used to render a SL situation which does not exist in a TL community (cf. *greet one another with a holy kiss* (from the New Testament) is not translated into English word-for-word, but is adapted into *give one another a hearty handshake all around*, equivalence is used to render the same situation in a way that is typical of a TL, so it is always syntagmatic in its character, involves a message as a whole and refers to stable units and clichés including proverbs, sayings, phraseological units (cf. *Too many cooks spoil the broth – У семи нянек дитя без глазу*), while transposition is just another term to use alongside 'substitution'. Thus, the given classification confuses techniques of translation and their causes, techniques of translation and units /ways of translation, but at the same time it neglects some other important techniques which are active in the process of translation.

Thus, we can take for a basis L.S. Barkhudarov's classification and supplement it with one more type, namely entire message modification=integral modification ('целостное преобразование'). This system of techniques of translation comprising five types underlies various translation transformations on all the levels discussed above, used alone or in various combinations.

Classification of translation transformations according to techniques of translation

Transpositions covers all cases of restructuring, so naturally here refer transformations made on the syntactic level which result in changes in word order. They can be divided into two kinds depending on the nature of a unit undergoing restructuring, its size and syntactic functions:

· re-patterning on the level of a word-group,

· re-patterning on the level of a sentence.

Re-patterning I (on the level of a word-group or a phrase) is caused by differences in the structural patterns of correlated SL and TL word-groups and phrases. Quite often such changes are accompanied by morphological (part-of-speech) or syntactical substitutions, e.g.

Алёшка, *стуча зубами*, стал рассказывать про Тыртова (А. Толстой)

His teeth chattering, Alyosha began explaining about Tyrto (tr. by A. Miller)

The Russian verbal adverbial phrase is replaced by the English absolute construction (syntactical substitution) which makes a respective re-patterning obligatory.

Re-patterning II (on the level of a sentence) can be further subdivided into three sub-types:

a) changes in the word order within a sentence or a clause, e.g.

It was very tiring to stoop all the time (E. Blyton).

Идти всё время согнувшись было очень утомительно (пер. В. Исакович).

The restructuring of the English sentence is caused by the change in the sentence-type, the difference in their theme-rheme structure and is accompanied by other transformations (addition, morphological substitution).

There is no re-patterning of Russian sentences which are characterized by two features: 1) a verb-predicate is intransitive so there is no direct object in them and 2) a sentence begins with some adverbials (of manner, place), e.g. *Там, в этом краю, очень много озёр.* – *Up in that lake country were many, many lakes.*

b) changes in the order of clauses within a complex or a compound sentence, e.g.

Disposed as she then was to calculate upon that vague basis which allows the subtraction of one sum from another without any perceptible diminution, she was happy (Th. Dreiser).

Девушка была счастлива; она находилась в том настроении, которое позволяет вычитать одну сумму из другой без заметного ущерба для последней (пер. М.Волосова).

Re-patterning II is caused by the difference in the theme-rheme organization of the English and Russian sentences and is accompanied by a number of other transformations (syntactical, lexical and morphological substitutions, omission).

c) changes in the order of sentences, e.g.

Photographers came. The tragedy had interested the local press.
– *Трагедия заинтересовала местную прессу. Пришли фотографы.*

The main cause of the re-patterning here is the grammatical meaning of the Past Perfect form which expresses priority of the action denoted by it to an action in the Past Simple which in Russian has to be signaled by the order of respective sentences.

Substitutions unlike the previous technique underlie transformations made on various levels: lexical, stylistic, grammatical (morphological and syntactic).

Lexical substitutions include several subtypes depending on the character of changes in the lexical meaning of a SL unit:

1) **concretizing**— a SL word with an abstract, broad and general meaning is replaced by a TL word with a concrete, narrow and specific meaning, e.g.

After dinner I sat and waited for Pyle in my room over the rue Catinat (Gr. Greene).

После ужина я сидел у себя в комнате на улице Катина и дожидался Пайла (Е. Гольшева, Б. Изаков). The English word *dinner* has a broad meaning (*dinner – the main meal of the day, taken in the middle of the day or in the evening – LDCE*) which has to be concretized in translation into Russian where there are two words with more specific meanings (*обед – основной приём пищи, еда (обычно в середине дня)* и *ужин – вечерняя еда, последний приём пищи перед ночным сном – БТСРЯ*).

2) **generalization** – a SL word with a concrete, narrow, specific meaning changed for a TL word which has an abstract, broad, general meaning, e.g.

Отец умер ровно год назад, как раз в этот день, пятого мая, в твои именины (А. Чехов).

It's exactly a year ago today that Father died, the fifth of May – your birthday (K. Cook).

The Russian word is more specific in meaning since it reflects Christian habits and is different from the word group *день рождения* (*именины – у православных и католиков личный праздник кого-либо, приходящийся на день, в который церковь отмечает память одноимённого святого – БТСРЯ*), while the English word *birthday* is *day that is an exact number of years after the day when you were born* (LDCE).

3) **sense development** – a SL word is replaced by a TL word the meanings of which denote notions connected with each other through cause-result links. Since such links are usually connected with an action there may be basically 6 varieties of such transformations:

result – cause

result – action

action – result

action – cause

cause – result

cause – action

e.g. *When I opened my eyes she had lit the lamp* (Gr. Greene) (action).

Когда я открыл глаза, лампа была зажжена (K. Cook) (resultant state)

4) **antonymic translation** – a SL word is translated by its TL antonym which as a rule brings about changes in the grammatical structure of a sentence, namely an affirmative sentence often becomes negative and vice versa a negative sentence may turn into an affirmative one,

e.g. *“He will not be long”, she said as though I needed comfort for his absence* (Gr. Greene)

Теперь он скоро придёт, -- сказала она, будто я нуждался в утешении (K. Cook).

Compensation – the replacement of a SL word which has no ready correspondence by a TL unit with an approximate / close meaning or an acceptable way of referring to an object named. Compensation can be of two types:

1) **semantic** compensation which is used as a means to compensate for sense losses especially while translating culture-bound and nationally specific units and thus render the intended meaning in an acceptable form for the target reader, e.g. *five-and-ten-cent store trade* (Warren) – *дешёвые магазины* (В.А. Кухаренко); *from soup to nuts and a Corona Corona* (Warren) – *полный обед – от супа до десерта и дорогой сигары* (В.А.Кухаренко).

2) **stylistic** compensation which can be local and non-local and is employed to compensate for stylistic losses that may be due to differences in stylistic reference of correlated units. Compare English correspondences used to translate Russian young people’s slang, *буча (драка) – a scrap, a brawl; пятихатник – 500 roubles, каша (вещевой рынок) – flea market.*

In cases of non-local compensation a translator fails to find a proper correspondence for a certain stylistically marked unit in a SL text, so he tries to restore the intended effect elsewhere. As a result, the overall impression of a text is believed to be balanced.

Grammatical substitutions refer to various changes of grammatical (morphological) forms and syntactic structures that include several kinds of modifications:

1) part-of-speech characteristics, e.g.

Когда дочь переехала к родителям, ей вначале было очень одиноко. – When she moved to stay with her parents, their daughter felt very lonely at first (pronominal substitution);

...в российского министра образования чуть не попало яйцо – Russia’s Minister of education was nearly hit by an egg (passivization);

Он не очень хорошо сходится с людьми – He is not a terribly good mixer (the Russian verb-adverb phrase is translated by the English adjective-noun combination);

Он копит деньги на покупку дома – He is saving money to buy a car (the Russian deverbal noun is translated by the English infinitive);

Рабочие требовали повышения зарплаты и сокращения рабочего дня – The workers demanded higher pay and shorter working hours (the Russian deverbal noun denoting increase or decrease in size, volume, range is replaced by the English adjective in the comparative degree);

Я ему обрадовался – I was glad to see him (the Russian verb denoting emotional behaviour is often replaced by the English stative phrase: to be (turn, get, grow, become) + adjective);

Проект бюджета представлен на рассмотрение правительства России – The draft budget was submitted for consideration by the Russian government (the Russian noun+noun pattern is often replaced by the English adjective-noun phrase).

2) parts-of-a-sentence substitutions:

Visitors are requested to leave their coats in the cloakroom – Посетителей просят оставлять верхнюю одежду в гардеробе (the subject of the English passive form is replaced by the Russian direct object of the active form);

Last week witnessed an intensification of the diplomatic activity – На прошлой неделе наблюдалось оживление дипломатической деятельности (the English subject denoting the time of the action is replaced by the Russian adverbial modifier of time).

3) syntactic substitutions:

I never even once saw him brush his teeth – Я не видел, чтобы он чистил зубы (the English simple sentence is replaced by the complex sentence in Russian);

It was so dark that I couldn't see her – Я её в темноте не мог видеть (the English complex sentence is translated by the simple Russian sentence);

John kept whistling “Song of India” while he shaved – Джон брился и насвистывал «Индийскую песню» (subordination in the English sentence is replaced by coordination in the Russian sentence);

It was hot as hell and the windows were steamy – Жара была адская, все окна запотели (English syndetic linking is replaced by asyndetic linking in Russian).

Additions are complex lexico-grammatical transformations which bring about changes in the lexical elements of a SLT that are accompanied by grammatical changes. As a result of additions one or more words are added when translating an original utterance which are a sort of extension to it. Additions are caused by a number of factors:

a) the difference in the word-building, combinatorial, grammatical and other features of SL and TL, e.g. *I'll have him call you* – *Я скажу ему, чтобы он позвонил тебе.*

b) the absence of a ready-to-use lexical correspondence in TL for a certain unit of translation which makes it necessary to resort to periphrastic explanations or cultural comment, e.g.

Его встретили с хлебом-солью – *He was met with the bread and salt of hospitality.*

c) ellipsis of some elements in a SLT where they are considered redundant, but which have to be restored in a TLT since they are compulsory in it, e.g.

The current design will only have a single process train, as the volumes will be small. – *По существующему проекту предусматривается только одна технологическая линия, так как объемы добычи невелики.*

d) stylistic demands in keeping with the norms of TL, e.g.

A few minutes later nurse Davis, starched and curious, arrived – *Через несколько минут вошла сестра Дэвис, вся накрахмаленная, едва сдерживая своё любопытство.*

Omissions represent changes in a SLT which are opposite in nature to additions, though they are also qualified as complex lexico-grammatical transformations. Omissions result in dropping some elements from a SLT which may be caused by a number of factors:

a) the difference in combinability of SL and TL, e.g. English favours pair synonyms the origin of which has historical and cultural roots that have to be translated by single word correspondences in Russian. They are known as redundant synonymic clichés and are eliminated in a Russian translation, e.g. *in respect thereof or in relation thereto* – *связанные с этим, all matters and things* – *все вопросы.*

b) well-established traditions of expressing some information, e.g. English unlike Russian prefers to use detailed descriptions of size, volume, weight and other measurements [Хайруллин 1997] which are looked upon as redundant in Russian and are usually replaced by their functional analogues, e.g. *Every inch of his face expressed amazement* – *На его лице было написано изумление.*

c) the desire to create compression in an English sentence which is often achieved thanks to frequent uses of participial, infinitival, gerundial phrases, complex object, complex subject and other complexes, e.g. *Как сообщается, целый день более 30 автомашин простояло без движения из-за снежных заносов на дороге.* – *More than 30 cars are said to have stuck twelve hours in snow drifts.*

Translation practice shows that omissions are more frequently made while translating from Russian into English in contrast to additions that are usual when translating from English into Russian.

Integral modifications are such changes which involve the whole semantic and formal structure resulting in radical modifications of the speech utterance.

According to S.P. Romanova and A.L. Korolova, integral modifications may take place on two levels: the level of a word-group and the level of a sentence [Романова, Коралова 2004].

On the level of *word groups* they usually occur when translating phraseological units which may correlate in SL and TL in sense, but differ in their form, e.g. *to be born with a silver spoon in one's mouth* – *родиться в сорочке*; *to set the fire to* – *пустить красного петуха*.

But more often than not we resort to integral modifications when rendering *the whole utterances*, e.g. *The others can go right along the road.* – *Остальные пусть проваливаются.*

Question-tasks:

1. What is Target Language?
2. What is Source Language?
3. What is the difference between omission and addition?
4. How do we use methods of translation?
5. What types of translation methods do you know?

Recommended Literature

1. E.S. Aznaurova and other "Translation theory and practice" - Tashkent "Uqituvchi" - 1989 year.
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Seminar 11. Types of Translation

Plan:

1. The problem of translation types
2. The problem of consecutive translation
3. The problem of simultaneous translation
4. Problems of visual and written translation

Key words: translation problem, consecutive translation, simultaneous translation, visual translation, written translation, public speaking, booth, conference material

Sight translation is an essential part in any curriculum designed to teach translation. Sight translation has an important role in preparing future translators for their careers. It improves their speed and frequent translation. Very often interpreting is done by any material that has been drafted to be read rather than to be listened. Sight translation must sound like the result of an oral communication. Conference interpreters will certainly be familiar with the phenomenon as they are usually listening to a foreign language in the booth and interpreting into their native language the interpreter's task is to make the written information clear to the listener. It means that extracting the main points of information from a written text and presenting it in the form of a restructured oral speech sight translation helps to achieve this goal. Interpreter must master of his own reading speed and has often read the speech before starting his interpretation. The interpreter must deal with the actual papers as they are presented at the meeting. He must look through technical terms in context. The names of chemical compounds are difficult to pronounce and sight translation is very helpful in this case.

Sight translation allows the interpreter to prepare the more difficult passages of a speech quite thoroughly and provides a rehearsal before the actual conference. Sight translation provides and develops simple speed reading techniques by reading material in his native language.

In consecutive interpretation, sight translation will actually be used. A speaker reads from written materials. In this case, the interpreter will usually ask to be given the speaker's copy of the document and do a sight translation, rather than rely on his own notes. Moreover, not taking becomes more difficult if the speaker is reading.

Sight translation is an ideal tool for teaching students to read their notes smoothly and naturally.

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 the interpreter must check to be sure that the speaker does not depart from the written text. The interpreter must 1) check whether what the 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. The faster the interpreter is able to sight translate, the more effective his interpretation will be ...

The skills required to translate at speed. Skills included in sight translation are:

- 1) rapid text analysis
- 2) avoiding a word for word interpretation
- 3) rapid conversion of information from one cultural language to another
- 4) public speaking techniques.

Rule №1 - students practicing sight translation should always work standing at a lectern. They must learn how to master stage fright, to think on their feet and feel generally comfortably when asked to do consecutive interpretation under more solemn and ceremonial circumstances.

Rule №2 - a word for word translation should never be accepted - the student should analyse 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. Instructors may find it helpful when students perform not to look at the text, but to play the part of the listener entirely.

Rule №3.

Do demonstrations regularly. As students are usually exposed to sight translation before being exposed to consecutive and simultaneous interpretation, it is particularly important for them to be able compare their own performances to a model. A recorded version of the instructor's demonstration may be made available to students for their homework.

Rule №4.

Always ensure that students give their rendition like a speech, not a written translation. This is probably the one feature of sight translation for students of conference interpretation that differs from sight translation for the translation student. Most speeches, even when prepared in writing contain certain redundancies, clichés, wordiness, etc., which "blur the issue". Students must learn how to take advantage of these, to use them as "shortcuts" in their effort to attain a perfectly clear and logical rendition of the speaker's ideas, especially if the latter were poorly expressed.

Rule №5.

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

1. *Reading aloud:* Stand in front of a mirror and read passages aloud from any book, newspaper, or magazine. A legal textbook, code book, or other legal text is useful for familiarizing yourself with legal language. Record or videotape yourself and analyze the outcome critically. Pay attention to your voice, pitch, tone, hesitation, signs, projection, enunciation, and posture.

2. *Controlling Emotions:* Practice controlling your emotions while reading aloud texts with high emotional content, such as fear, anger, humor, etc. . Make sure you convey the author's intended emotions and not your personal reaction to the subject matter.

3. *Public Speaking* : Practice speaking before a group of people at every opportunity. People you know will constitute a less threatening audience and will allow you to ease your way into public speaking and build your confidence. Court interpreting is an ongoing exercise in public speaking.

Consecutive translation is the translation of oral information from one language into another after listening to it. The consecutive translation is done after listening to the speech of the speaker. In this case it is very difficult to keep in mind all the content of the information. Note taking is very helpful for this reason.

The Consecutive translation usually is used during the negotiations, meeting of the statesmen and political figures at the conferences and accompanying the delegation. The problem of consecutive translation has not been discussed in the scientific literature yet.

The consecutive translation is divided into two periods according to the time

The first period includes the speech of the speaker and the interpreter takes the information from him taking notes.

In the second period the interpreter gives the information using the notes.

The memory of a person can not keep in the head the whole information.

It is necessary to the interpreter to find the logical chain of ideas in the text and reveal the semantic base. The semantic base is short and may serve as a base for broad content.

So in order to remember the information of the speaker the interpreter should reveal the semantic base which gives the opportunity to understand the text and helps to remember the content of the information.

The person can keep in mind 7+(-) 2 semantic base. The main semantic base of the information may include first of all the predicative and the subject. Some translators say that the main semantic base may be expressed first of all by the predicative. But prof Kolshanskiy Y. V. writes that the predicative can not be an independent part of the information. Only together with the subject the content of the information might be realized.

There are three basic principles of consecutive interpreting : understanding, analysing and re-expressing.

Understanding is not of words but of ideas it is ideas that have to be interpreted. If the interpreter does not know the word in the speaker's speech he must deduce its meaning from context. Attentive listening to the speaker's speech is very important. The interpreter must not pay attention to individual words but must listen to the sense of a speech. In order to remember the sense it is important to know the main ideas and the links between those ideas.

If it is not clear, and you missed ask question "could you clarify?"

The more the interpreter is in a position to express the speaker's ideas in their own words the better will be the quality of interpretation of the interpreter. The more creative the interpreter the more they are faithful to the text.

Трактор заводнинг 12.000 ишчиси шу заводнинг маъмурияти томонидан 240 та ишчини ишдан бушатилишига қарши чиқарган қарорига норозилик намойишида катнашишди.

In this sentence first of all we should find the subject and the predicate of the sentence . In this sentence 12.000 ишчиси 240 та ишчини бушатиши учун намойиш килишди.

Connecters are very important for note taking (because , therefere etc.) . The notes are used for the main ideas . They provide a outline of the speech .

It should be stressed that the main ideas based around a subject analysis should be noted . The positions of notes should be written from left to right of a page .

Ex: Irain exports unable develop to US , because US imposed by Tariffs .

Transformation are also very useful for the keeping in the memory the main contant of the text for the interpretor . Ex: Представители деловых и промышленных кругов (бизнесмены); захват власти (переворот), открывать огонь (стрелять), принимать участие в заседании (заседать), вести военные операции (воевать), произносить приветственную речь (приветствовать), вселять надежду (обнадеживать) , посылать свои поздравления (поздравить), газеты , журналы и другие периодические издания (печатать), с первых дней открытия военных действий (с ночало войны), молодое поколение страны (молодежь), законодательный орган страны (парламент), наносить ущерб (вредить), передовой отряд (авангард), принимать участия в выборах(выбирать).

Question-tasks:

1. What do you understand by simultaneous translation?
2. When do we use consecutive translation?
3. What types of translation do you know?
4. What is oral translation?

Literature

1. E.S. Aznaurova and other "Translation theory and practice"-Toshkent "Uqituvchi"-1989 year.
2. Л.С. Бархударов "Язык и перевод" Москва - 1953 год.
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Seminars 11-12. Translation schools

Plan:

1. Baghdad translation school
2. Toledo –spanish translation school
3. Khorezm translation school
4. Tashkent translation school

Key words: translation history, translation schools, translation development, Bayt ul-hikma, translators, translation conditions

Writing about Central Asian history of translation activity and ideas, in general, in the period of antiquity is a too difficult task to research. Different conditions gave no reason to investigate or simply for the lack of information about the antique period of the East (we consider that in that period people did pay attention to translation, but mainly religious, political conditions didn't allow to develop it - **the authors**). We may only highlight some information from sources like «Avesta», Beruny's «Asorul-Bakia» («Souvenirs left by ancient people»), ancient Iranian writings, and books of Greek and Chinese historians.

As ancient Chinese sources witness that there were several states like Big Khorazm, Baktria and Sogdiana and inhabitants were skiffs then sags (or saxes, saksas) sooner dakhs. These nations lived in the territory located between Amudarya and Syrdarya. Greek historian Herodotus (485? - 425? BC) wrote about Central Asian nations, their socio-economical, literal life but a lot of information is not kept up to the present time. Some information was highlighted in «Avesta» - the holy book of Zoroastrian religion. Ancient social-economic, religious, traditional, (literal) spiritual life of turkic, persian-tadjik, azarbaijan, afgan and other people were described in this book. Some sources gave information about the author of this book that his name was Zoroastr. It was written in 589-512 BC. «Avesta» is not kept completely until our period because some invasions (Greeks', later Arabs') did not give a way to develop. After the collapse of Alexander the Great's state in Asia «Avesta» was restored in the period of Arshakhiys (250 B.C.). In Saniys period of reign its three books were restored again in an ancient language (pahlavian) and the last one was also restored in the same language. English and French scientists pioneered to translate the texts of «Avesta» into their languages. For instance, French scientist A. Deupper visited India in 1755 and lived among mazdiads (zoroastrians) three years before translating it («Avesta»). This holy book reached us via Western Europe, Iran and India and the names of places don't match the original ones. They were changed.

In Central Asia translation has its own way of development. It is known that there were two great translation schools. One of them was Baghdad translation school, which was busy with translating, commentating and copying out of classic Greek scientists' works in Arabian (the scientific center of Arabian Caliphate), the second one was Toledo translation school, in Spain, which was busy with translating Arabic scientific literature into Western European languages (about which we wrote in previous chapters). Both of them played great role in the development of World science. The original works of scientists disappeared, but the representatives of these translation schools kept their translations. A lot of books of classic Greek scientists disappeared because of different historical changes, but they were kept in the Arabian patterns-translations and commentaries. Several valuable works of thinkers who created them in Arabic in Middle East and

Central Asia have been reached us by the work of Toledo school translators' translations in Latin, Greek and later in other Western European languages. Translation played the role of incomparable golden bridge, connected and enriched the culture, which existed between West and East. In Baghdad at the end of the VIII and at the beginning of the IX centuries one can emphasize that a group of scientists, translators and rewriters appeared, majority of their representatives were the thinkers, erudite persons from Central Asia and Iran. As historical sources witness, in the XII-XIII centuries, nomadic Arabian tribes, who were the ancestors of the modern Arabs in Arab peninsula, joined and established centralized powerful state. That's why different nations contained in Arab caliphate contributed to the succession of science and culture in the country. In this succession Arab Caliph Harun Al-Rashid and his son Al-Ma'mun played a key-role. They gathered different scientists in the IX century and created scientific center there.

By the initiation of Al-Ma'mun "Baytul-Hikma" ("The house of Sages") was founded in Baghdad which was very famous in the East. European scientists recognized this center in the XIX century. In this academy there were all conditions including scientific labs, conference hall, and madrasah for students, observatory, workshop for reconstruction and binding of manuscripts, a large library containing about 400 thousand books. Hundreds of scientists of the East worked in the Academy. Translators translated foreign books and manuscripts into Arabian. The scientists in "Baytul-Hikma" were from Turkistan, especially from Khorazm, Ferghana, Bukhara, Shash, Samarkand and Khurasan.

Firstly the Academy was headed by Yakhya ibn Abu Mansur. After his death (829 AD) by the order of Al-Ma'mun Mukhammad Al-Khorazmi (783-850 AD) was appointed. In this famous academy Akhmad Al-Farghani, Abbas ibn Javhar, Akhmad ibn Abdulla, Marvazi Sayid ibn Khalid, Yakhya ibn Abu Mansur, Abu Khamid as-Sagani, Yakhya ibn A'zam al-Khadi, Abul Vakha Bizjoni, Iskhak Ibodi, Abu Ja'far Khurosani and others taught astronomy, maths, geography, chemistry, medicine, history, philosophy, logics and literature.

The famous scientist M. Al-Khorazmi created his works in the academy. His two works "Aljabr va mukabala" ("Algebra and resistance") and "Small sindhind" or "Indian counts" reached till our period.

Al-Khorazmi, Akhmad Farghani, Abbas al-Javkhari, Akhmad ibn Abdulla Marvazi, Yakhya ibn Mukhammad Sagani translated almost big portion of the books in the library. The main aim of these scientists was to translate the works of Hippocrates and Ptolemy and to investigate the sun, the earth and etc.

Question-tasks:

1. What school of translation was founded by Al-Ma'mun in the East?
2. What role this academy played?
3. What kind of scientists worked in "Baytul Hikma"?

Recommended Literature

1. E.S. Aznaurova and other "Translation theory and practice" - Tashkent "Uqituvchi" - 1989 year.
2. Л.С. Бархударов "Язык и перевод" Москва - 1953 год.
3. А.В. Федоров Введение в теорию перевода М. - 1953 г.
4. P. Mewmark Approaches to translation Z, 1995.

VII. КЕЙСЛАР БАНКИ

Snowballing questions. Students are given resources on the topic to be learned along with past paper questions or multiple choice tests. The questions should require more than just copying answers from the resources. Students work on the resources and the questions individually or in pairs. It sometimes helps curiosity and focus of the student's reading if they read the questions before studying the resources.

Students combine individuals into pairs, or pairs into fours. They compare answers to the questions and combine their work to produce a 'best answer' without further consultation of the reading unless really necessary. This promotes discussion, requires student to justify their points of view, which encourages good learning. Students are shown the answers with any reasoning or working made clear, and then mark or score themselves. It helps if students are given roles such as 'teacher' or 'questioner' as described below in section E.

Independent Learning

1. Any easy section of the syllabus is identified and this is not taught.
2. Instead students are given an assignment which describes in detail what they must learn. More experienced independent learners might need less direction.
3. Students work on this material in pairs or small groups, usually outside of class contact time. The activities set require students to work in pairs or groups, are thought provoking, and are not entirely 'book and biro'. At least one task requires students to go beyond recall of ideas in the materials, and to apply their learning. This is to encourage deep learning, otherwise students may simply collect information and write it down without really thinking about it or understanding it.
4. Student's work is monitored by a designated 'leader' in their group or by the teacher.
5. The learning from this work is assessed in a short test. The student's notes are not usually marked; instead their learning is assessed by a short test. Optionally students can be required to retake tests, or do other remedial work if their test result is unsatisfactory.
6. After completing this independent learning assignment, or indeed before, students use an independent learning competences questionnaire to identify their weaknesses as an independent learner, and to set themselves targets for their next independent learning assignment. See Geoff or Teaching Today for this questionnaire or devise your own!

This is not an easy teaching method to use but it is greatly enjoyed by students if it is managed well.

This method is best explained by examples. Suppose a teacher of accountancy wanted to teach students about building society accounts, bank

accounts, shares, and other ways of saving money. She asks her students to study materials on these accounts in order to complete an evaluation matrix (i.e. table) like this:

How should we save?				
	Rate of interest	Can the value go down as well as up?	Ease of withdrawal	etc
Building society account				
Bank account				
Shares				
etc				

If the evaluation criteria are well chosen the students must study and understand the different methods of saving very well in order to make their judgements. The judgements the students make show the teacher whether the learner has understood the method of saving. Groups can compare their judgements by placing them on a class grid provided on a flip-chart, board, or OHT. They enjoy this, and the controversy this creates can help clarify misunderstandings.

Students could then be given a scenario, and asked to make a judgement as to the most appropriate method(s) of saving for a particular person.

Like the other methods described in this document the aim is to get students to learn content (in this case, methods of saving) without direct explanation from the teacher. However, using this method, students will also develop their evaluation skills.

Other examples include:

- Learning about childhood diseases by evaluating them against criteria like ‘method of immunisation’ ‘ease of immunisation’ ‘likelihood of permanent effects’ etc.
- Learning about computer printers by evaluating them as three star two star one star or no star against criteria like cost, speed, etc. This produces a matrix

similar to the ones produced by consumer organisations like ‘Which?’, and product reviews in magazines.

This method is greatly enjoyed, and is best done in groups.

Skill judging

Not all learning is based on factual content. Some learning is skill based. This is a very powerful method to teach a skill such as writing an essay, lab report, computer programme, menu, care plan, marketing policy; delivering a presentation, carving a joint etc.

First student’s works as a class or in groups do devise criteria for good practice in the skill. Alternatively they could use exam board grading criteria but work on interpreting and expanding this. For example they could add a few examples of how the criteria could be met in practice.

Second: students are given examples of the skill to judge with their criteria, e.g. example essays. It helps if these examples include some that appear at first sight to be good practice, but are actually flawed. For example, an essay with lots of impressive detail, but that does not address the topic in the title well.

Third: Students discuss the examples given and write strengths and weaknesses for them. They could also give marks or grade the work. Optionally, they work to improve their evaluation criteria at this stage.

Fourth: the teacher tells the students the ‘official’ strengths and weaknesses, grades or marks for the exemplars. It helps if this is a shock for the students. For example, the longest essay did not get the biggest mark!

E. Effective Management of Active Learning Strategies to maximise participation.

Using roles to maximise participation.

All the activities above are best done in pairs, or small groups. However, some can be adapted for individual students. It helps to give students in groups specific roles such as those which follow. It is unlikely that you would use all these roles at the same time. Useful combinations of roles are given later. Role descriptors are given in a manner suitable for level 3, or adult learners. Please change these descriptors to suit your students. Students enjoy these roles and soon get used to them. But don’t expect them to use the roles effectively without practice. Just after the first time you use these roles it would be useful to reflect with the class on how to make them work well. Consider ensuring that each student in a group has at least one role. This avoids some students becoming ‘passengers’. Consider rotating the roles during the term.

Role card descriptors:

Teacher.

“Your role is to study the aspect or a section of the materials that the teacher gives you, and to explain this to the other students in your group/pair.

You will be the only student in your group/pair to study your particular aspect of the topic, so make sure you understand it well and practice how to explain it! You can ask the teacher for help if you get stuck.”

Checker:

“The teacher will choose students at random from your group to report back on what your group has learned and decided. The teacher may ask questions of more than one student from your group. They may also set a quiz or test on the material. Your role is to check that **all** the students in your group understand your group’s findings, and can report it to the rest of the class clearly. Do this by preparing and asking questions of your group. You are allowed a full (five?) minutes to do this. If one of your groups can’t answer the teacher’s questions - guess whose fault this will be!”

Scribe:

“Your role is to summarise the key points that your group is making, check that the whole group agrees with them, and then write them down. You may also be expected to explain your group’s findings to the rest of the class. There is much more to being a Scribe than just writing!”

Questioner.

“Your role is to ‘skim’ the resources and then decide on important questions that the resources should answer. For example “Who supported Cromwell and why?” The aim is to focus the group’s attention on the key points. You then give your questions to the group for it (including you!) to answer.

You can add to, or change your questions as you get more familiar with the materials.

You may also ask supportive and clarifying questions to help the group complete its task(s)”.

Vocabulary chief:

“There is some technical vocabulary in this material. Your role is to research and explain the meaning of all the technical terms. You could devise a ‘glossary’ for your group if you think this would help. You will need to run a quiz with your group to check **everyone** can explain each technical term.”

Leader:

“Your role is to lead and manage your group in a democratic way, to ensure that the group completes all its tasks in the time available. You can give other students in your group specific roles if you think this helps. You will need to share out the resources in a way that helps the group to work with maximum effectiveness.”

These roles work best if the teacher makes sure that s/he will test every student's learning after the activity. This can be done during feedback or with a quiz or test warned of in advance. If they know that any member of their group might be asked questions on the material, they will work with their **Checker** to ensure that all members understand all the points.

You can spice this up (at some risk!) by saying that any student who gets one question wrong, will automatically get the next question and so on until they get one right. The risk of course is that you put humiliating pressure on a weak student, but if you have some easy questions up your sleeve this can be avoided if you judge it necessary.

The roles of **questioner** and **checker** etc help to show students good practice in reading text. Do point this out to students. For example, good readers formulate important questions that the text might answer; ask themselves 'do I understand this?' and 'is this important?' as they read. They also check they know the vocabulary and summarise key points etc. Hence the roles are not arbitrary or purely managerial, but model good study practice.

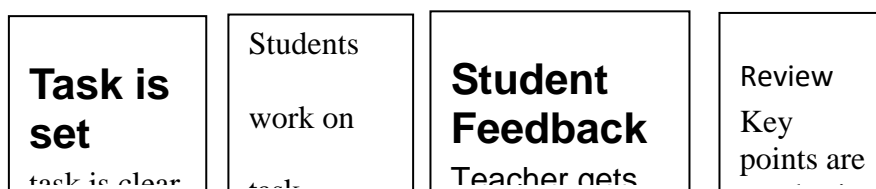
Students can be given 'role cards' with all the roles described until they get used to it. Roles can rotate from lesson to lesson.

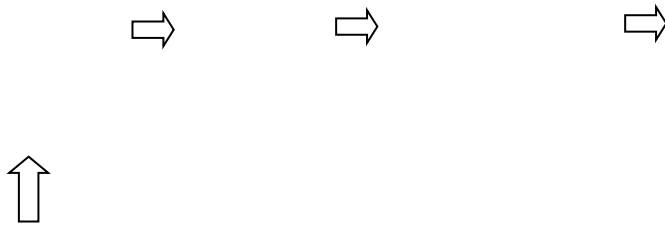
Task Design

A useful checklist to ensure your tasks and supporting materials cover everything:

1. Check/review any necessary prior learning.
2. Establish purposes, tasks, and questions etc.
3. Locate information and resources.
4. Plan how to complete the task successfully delegating if necessary
5. Get to work on the tasks
6. Monitor progress and understanding.
7. Make a record.
8. Evaluate information and task completion
9. Check the groups' understanding
10. Communicate findings to rest of the group and teacher
11. Teacher tests the understanding of the whole class

Managing Group work, individual learning, practical etc





Pointers for success in groupwork:

Prepare: review or confirm any learning required for success at the task

Task is set

- The task is clear and in writing. There may be different tasks for each group.
- A ‘Scribe’ is identified by the group or the teacher. There may be a task sheet to fill in
- Time allowed for the task is given in advance. Require all learners to be prepared to feedback for their group and justify their answer.
- Tasks differentiate by being open, graduated and/or there are some stretching tasks
- At least some of the tasks are high on Bloom’s Taxonomy, that is, requiring:
analysis (‘why’ questions) synthesis (‘how’ questions) or evaluation (‘which’ or ‘how good is this’ questions)
- As well as scribe consider giving some students roles such as: Teacher, Checker, Vocabulary checker, Questioner, Summariser, Leader etc..

Students work on task

- Groups are formed, preferably random e.g. by numbering round the room.
- A group scribe is appointed (by group or teacher) to record ideas in progress. Avoid students with dyslexia unless they can work verbally as they are slow writers. Rote such roles from lesson to lesson.
- Teacher checks attention to task by visiting groups and examining the scribe’s material

- Challenging time constraints are given, i.e. the task doesn't go on too long

- The Scribe role rotates from time to time

Check and correct

- Check Scribe's notes to determine the group's progress.
- Ask for their ideas and listen. Ask clarifying questions if necessary.

Do not overhelp. If they are having trouble leave them with a clarifying question and say you will come back in a couple of minutes or so.

- Encourage and cajole. Feedback is 'medal and mission' at least some of the time: a 'medal' for progress made to date, effort, ideas etc, and a 'mission' challenging them to go further.

- Challenge with support

VII. GLOSSARY

comparison of... with.....	Делается сравнение...	... билан тақоссланади.
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is made	с...	
A method of... is proposed	Предлагается метод...	... методи таклиф этилади
An approach to estimating is presented...	Дается подход к оценке...	...ни баҳолашга ёндошилади
An attempt to... is made	Делается попытка...	... га уриниб кўрилади.
Data on... are discussed	Обсуждаются данные по...	... бўйича маълумотлар муҳокама қилинади.
Discussion will focus on the problem of...	Обсуждение будет сфокусировано на...	Муҳокама ... га қаратилади
I suggest that..	Я выдвигаю предположение, что...	Мен ... бўлиш тахминини кўтаряпман.
Our hypothesis is that...	Наша гипотеза заключается в том, что...	Бизнинг гипотеза ...дан иборат.
Present data encompass a period of...	Настоящие данные охватывают период в...	Ушбу маълумотлар ... даврни ўз ичига олади.
The author introduces the concept of...	Автор вводит концепцию...	Муаллиф конструкцияни тушунтиради.....
The design of the experiments was to reveal...	Эксперименты были направлены на выявление...	Экспериментлар ...ни аниқлашга қаратилган.
The effect of... on... is discussed	Обсуждается влияние... на...	..нинг ...га таъсири муҳокама қилинди.
The experimental foundation of the present discussion consists of...	Экспериментальная основа настоящего обсуждения состоит из...	Ушбу муҳокаманинг экспериментал асоси ...дан иборат-Ушбу муҳокаманинг экспериментал асоси ўз ичига ...ни олади
The methods used for... are discussed	Описываются методы, используемые для...	учун фойдаланиладиган методлар тавсифланади
The most important results are as follows...	Самые важные результаты имеют следующий вид...	Энг муҳим натижалар ... қуйидаги кўринишга эга
The results indicate the dominant role of...	Результаты указывают на доминирующую роль...	Натижалар ... асосий ўринини кўрсатади.
The results of... are	Обсуждаются	натижалар муҳокама

discussed	результаты...	қилинади.
The results of observations are supported by...	Результаты наблюдений дополняются...	Кузатиш натижалари ... билан тўлдирилади
This paper aims at...	Настоящий доклад имеет своей целью...	Ушбу маъруза ўз мақсадига кўра ...га эга
This paper analyzes...	В настоящем докладе дается анализ..	Ушбу маърузада ... таҳлили келтирилади
This paper concerns/considers/deals with...	В настоящем докладе рассматриваются...	Ушбу маърузада ... кўриб чиқилади.
This paper comments briefly on...	В настоящем докладе даются краткие замечания поводов	ушбу маърузада ... га қисқача таърифлар берилди
This paper contains...	В настоящем докладе содержатся...	Ушбу маъруза ўз ичига ...ни олади
This paper describes...	В настоящем докладе дается описание...	Ушбу маъруза ...нинг тавсифи келтирилган.
This paper discusses...	В настоящем докладе обсуждается...	Ушбу маърузада ... муҳокама қилинган.
This paper examines...	В настоящем докладе исследуется...	Ушбу маърузада ... тадқиқ қилинган.
This paper presents...	В настоящем докладе представлен...	Ушбу маърузада... келтирилган.
This paper reports on...	В настоящем докладе сообщается о...	Ушбу маърузада ... тўғрисида маълумот берилган
This study is an attempt to/attempts at...	Настоящее исследование является попыткой...	Ушбу тадқиқот ...га уриниш бўлиб ҳисобланади
We have been able to show that...	Нам удалось показать, что...	...ни кўрсатишга эришдик.
As many of you know...	Как многим из вас известно...	Сизларга ... маълум бўлганидек....
First of all I would like to...	Прежде всего я хотел бы...	Авваламбор, ...ни истардим....
First let me express my gratified to...	Прежде всего позвольте выразить мою благодарность...	Авваламбор, ...га ўз минатдорчилигимни билдиришга ижозат беринг.

I am sure I don't have to remind you that...	Я уверен, что мне не надо напоминать вам, что...	Сизга ...ни эслатишим керак эмаслигига ишончим комил.
I am very pleased to have this opportunity to...	Я рад возможности...	... имкониятга эга эканлигимдан хурсандман.
In my paper I want to highlight...	В моем докладе я хочу осветить...	Маърузамда ...ни ёритиб ўтмоқчиман
In the introduction to my paper	Во введении к моему докладу	Маърузамнинг кириш қисмида
I would like to...	я хотел бы...	Мен истар эдимки, ...
I tell this story because...	Я рассказываю эту историю, потому что...	Ушбу тарихни ... учун сўзлаб бераман.

VIII. АДАБИЁТЛАР РЎЙХАТИ

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