

## **Pedagogical Implications of Utilizing Translation Evaluation Strategies with Translation Students: Toward a Model of Teaching Translation**

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### **Abstract**

Translation Evaluation (TE) is a growing sub-discipline of Translation Studies and Applied Linguistics as well. It is a method used in translation teaching to analyze, discuss and improve the translation drafts of students based on a specific theory translation through comparing the Target Text (TT) with the Source Text (ST), while aspects of the linguistic and/or paralinguistic features of texts will be noted, and the tools and models of evaluation to be applied will be explored as an over changing fact of TE. The researcher further explains how, on the one hand, the suitability and usability of texts can be determined by students, and on the other hand, how the translational and linguistic competences and intercultural awareness of trainee translators can be enhanced. Thus, theoretical aspects of translation teaching methods and their relation between language studies and translation theory are introduced vis-à-vis the curriculum of formal training of translators. Theoretical aspects of translation teaching methods and their relation between language studies and translation theory are introduced vis-à-vis the curriculum of formal training of translators in colleges of languages and translation. Besides, some important strategies of the past and present based on five criteria of acceptable evaluation to signalize their shortcomings in the process of TE have been analyzed. In the light of these, a model of translation evaluation for improving translation education is proposed. This new eclectic model of TE heeding the cited criteria will be elucidated procedurally. Implications for pedagogy and recommendations for further research are suggested in the end of the paper.

**Keywords:** translation evaluation; translation pedagogy; model; intercultural competence; interlingual proficiency; bilingual competence

## Introduction

By definition, Translation Evaluation (TE) is an approach to translation training grounded in analyzing and assessing the quality of translation drafts of students based on a specific theory translation for the purpose of determining the suitability and usability of texts rendered by students. This approach to translation pedagogy is considered to be "an effective and significant part of translation education and ... a valuable tool by which the educational aims could be achieved" (Mobaraki & Aminzadeh, 2012, p. 63). The purpose of using translation evaluation strategies is to determine how suitable and usable texts for translation training can be for students as well as to examine the language competence and translation skills and performance of students in checking their linguistic, meta-linguistic and intercultural awareness upon translation tasks.

Recognizing the difficulty level of translation tasks and texts used for training translation studies students is an important part in teaching translation, and is, too, important for the accreditation and research as well as for the language industry. Conventionally, translation trainers and trainees have relied on their holistic intuition to gain insights into the level of a text's translation difficulty and how far they could go on with the rendition tasks and how successful it is going to be. Although experts' intuition is "reasonably reliable" (Campbell & Hale, 1999), researchers still need instruments and/ established procedures formulated in an experimentally verified model to make the evaluation process more effective and the results more objective.

In this, vein, Gickling & Rosenfield (1995) suggested that when discussing best practices in translation quality assessment that "students' accuracy [in comprehension] during reading instruction should be between 93% and 97%," and "[w]hen task difficulty level is appropriate, other problems are forestalled" (in Daly, Chafouleas, & Skinner, 2005, p. 14). The implication for translation training is that the difficulty level of source texts should be appropriate for students to improve the quality of their translation and to guide them well on the paths of training from novitiates to experts. Hence, there is a need for properly leveraged passages, tasks or assignments used as translation exercises for training in translation pedagogy.

Evaluating quality of translation includes, but is not restricted to, assessing the level of difficulty of exercise texts. Thus, because of paucity in research endeavors addressing translation evaluation, more research, theoretical and empirical, is needed to enhance this newly arising domain in Translation Studies. This is because in process-oriented research, researchers have no standards to refer to when they choose test passages, and the texts used are diverse in terms of text type, length and, possibly, difficulty (see Krings, 2001, p. 74). The case being thus, it looms hard for one to evaluate the comparability of experimental results between these studies. Therefore, main research question addressed by this study is:

*What are the features of the suggested model of translation evaluation that can be used by Arab students of translation studies?*

Other sub-questions arose from this main research question from:

1. What are the aspects of translation tasks that can be assessed for quality?
2. How can the readability of the task texts be used to predict a text's level of difficulty and the student's quality of translating this text?
3. How can we, as teachers of translation, predict the quality of a text and its suitability and usability for translation training exercises without having the text translated by the students first?

4. What sources of translation difficulty are there as related to and predicted by students' errors?
5. What are phases of the model of translation evaluation that can be used for assessing the quality of translation?

### **Literature Review**

#### *Translation Evaluation: a Nascent Domain*

Translation evaluation (TE) is a relatively new research field. Mobaraki & Aminzadeh (2012, p. 63) encapsulate the goals of this domain of translation studies in the following quote:

Evaluation of translation aims at analyzing and marking the translation drafts of students based on a specific theory translation. What is absolute in this process is the comparison of the Target Text (TT) with Source Text (ST), while what aspects of text (Linguistic, Paralinguistic or both) to be noted, and what tools and models of evaluation to be applied is an over changing fact of TE.

Early procedures of translation evaluation were not effective since they were deeply rooted in subjectivity. Hassani (2011) aptly notes that "In professional settings, translation evaluation has always been weighed down by the albatross of subjectivity to the detriment of both evaluators as clients and translators as service providers" (p. 351). Such conventional approaches exhaustively relied on intuition as well as on knowledge and skill driven from expertise (Bowker, 2000; Secară, 2005; Shanteau, & Pingnot, 2009; Shreve, 2002 & 2006).

Nowadays, a variety of approaches and methods to translation evaluation have burgeoned and are now in use, most of which employ (machine) translation evaluation tools (e.g. parallel texts, corpora, testing frames) and models (e.g. functionalism, text typology, etc.). In this respect, the notion of Translation Competence (TC) has come to play a significant part in the innovation and use of Translation Evaluation models and strategies. Simply explained, TC is perceived as an underlying knowledge or ability needed to carry out a translation task. According to Schäffner & Adab (2000, p. xiv), "In any professional environment, performance is judged according to certain clearly defined objectives and needs, which demand a specific type of competence..."

The concept of evaluation of translation competences is thus predominantly grounded in error analysis that derives insights from the underlying theories of translation competence. Analyses of translation are predominantly quantitative lending the process to be better processed by machine translation mathematical models, although several qualitative aspects within error analysis can be taken into consideration as well.

In this sense, evaluation of translation is supposed to perform both a diagnostic and formative function. Diagnostically, it serves to assess the potential of a certain student or trainee of translation, while formatively, it helps to suggest new solutions and notions for translator training. According to Schäffner & Adab (2000, pp. 215-16):

"A target text can be evaluated for different purposes: to assess the suitability of the text for its intended reader and use; to evaluate language competence (usually L2, L3); to determine levels of intercultural awareness; or to identify levels and types of translation competence."

Schäffner & Adab (2000) further suggest that in translation training settings, it is not only necessary to know the translation *skopos* or the insights about translation as a purposeful activity, but to know the criteria of evaluation that may be used by translation instructors in the assessment of their students. Crudely put, students should be familiar with the expectations of their teachers during their training in order for it to be effective and fruitful.

In this respect, McAlester (2000) introduced four criteria in his study of assessment of translations into a foreign language which have become a standard translation evaluation mechanism. According to McAlester, the methods used for assessment in translator education “should be reliable, valid, objective, and practical”. By the same token, Waddington (2001) calibrated a 17-point external criteria scale grounded in McAlester (2000), but concluded that error analysis and holistic assessment methods are foremost among the methods of translation evaluation criteria.

Prior research on the evaluation of translation, scarce as it may be, focused on performance on sample translation exercises and tests whose assessment results can be reliable predictors of the quality of a translator or trainee translator; for instance, Stansfield, Scott and Kenyon (1992) and Campbell (1991) evaluated translation based on translation test performance. In this regard, Campbell (1991) analyzed how 38 Arabic-English translation test papers revealed translation processes using a 10-point list for evaluation. In general terms, the small body of existing empirical studies in this area suggests a lack of research on translation evaluation in general (Poikela, 1999; Vehmas-Lehto, 2008).

#### *What is to evaluate then?*

A review of pertinent literature implicitly suggests that sources of difficulty in texts used in the mental exercise of translation education and training, and consequently, in the error analysis of translation output can be of great significance in evaluating the quality of a translation. This, in turn, can be used in assessing the suitability and usability of such sample texts for translation training. In fact, sources of translation difficulty can be categorized into two groups: task (i.e., translation) factors and translator factors. These are the factors that need to be evaluated in any translation program or project evaluation.

#### *Translation factors*

According to Nord (2005), a translation process takes place in a two-phase model. This model suggests that the translation process consists of reading (also called “comprehension”, “decoding”, or “analysis”) and re-verbalization (also called “writing”, “encoding”, “recoding”, “rendering”, “reformulation”, “re-textualization”, or “synthesis”) (e.g. Neubert & Shreve, 1992; Wilss, 1982). The translator reads the source text in the first phase, and re-verbalizes the meaning of the source text in the target language in the second phase; in other words, the translator rewrites or renders the comprehended meanings of the source text into the target language. This process is ever-developmental; the translator goes forward and back on the text in a continual process of analysis and synthesis, revising and editing both content and language. That is, the translator first analyzes the message of the source language and puts it into a simple form, transfers it at this level, and then re-expresses it in the target language (Nida, 1975, p. 79-80).

Hale & Campbell (2002) have elaborated on five textual aspects that are conducive to text difficulty: namely, the subject matter (semantic aspect), the register (material aspect), the type of language used (functional aspect), the pragmatics of the reader (pragmatic aspect), and

the historical-cultural context (temporal, local or cultural aspect). In this respect, too, Nord (1991) has classified translation problems into four categories: 1) text-specific translation problems (e.g. puns and metaphors), 2) pragmatic translation problems (e.g., the recipient orientation of a text), 3) cultural translation problems (e.g., text-type conventions), and 4) linguistic translation problems (e.g. the translation of the English gerund into Arabic). Further in this regard, too, Hill (1997) has recognized five difficulty indicators that she described as thematic, formal, stylistic, linguistic and syntactic indicators of text difficulty during translation tasks. By the same token, Shreve, Danks, & Lacruz (2004) have identified the following factors as indicators of text difficulty: 1) textual or discourse variance, 2) textual degradation such as fragmentary and illegible texts, 3) linguistic “distance” between the source text and the target text, 4) cultural “distance” between the source culture and the target culture, 5) lexical complexity, 6) syntactic complexity, and 7) conceptual, topical or propositional complexity. Empirically, Campbell and Hale (1999) have examined translation difficulty indicators in controlled studies. They have found out that the most prominent areas of difficulty with translational texts have to do with lexis and grammar, especially when the lexicon is low in frequency or in propositional content, and when authors of source texts over-use complex noun phrases, abstract concepts, official terms, and passive verbs.

The case being thus, there is a noticeable overlap between the categories of factors or predictors of text difficulty in translation tasks, but three major factors appear to be the culprit causes of text difficulty, namely lexical and syntactic complexity, content and subject matter, and text type.

These major sources of text difficulty can impede the production of equivalence between source language text and target language text (Kenny, 2009). Equivalence is “a relation of ‘equal value’ between a source-text segment and a target-text segment,” and “can be established on any linguistic level, from form to function” (Pym, 2010, p. 7). Asserting the relationship between equivalence and factors impacting text difficulty, Baker (2011) maintains that equivalence must occur at three levels: lexical, grammatical, textual, and pragmatic. The possibly most prominent level of these to impede translational tasks is that of the lexicon. Mistranslating lexical items in a text can be conducive to the unintelligibility of the source language text. Therefore, Kade (1968) and Pym (2010) suggested that lexical difficulties are more prominent impediments to complete a translational task properly, recommending translators to be careful in choosing the right lexical equivalent, even if they have to carve out new coinages that match the original text lexicon. Baker (1992) noted that if a word has no equivalent in the target language, this can pose varying levels of difficulty. According to her, culture-specific concepts, non-lexicalized source language items, semantically complex terms, or loan words are examples of these cases where equivalence can be very hard to come by. Therefore, veteran translators can overcome such problems with no-equivalence by using a more general word, a more neutral/less expressive word, or cultural substitution (Baker, 2011). Nonetheless, these non-equivalence problems can possibly create difficulty for translators, especially novice ones.

#### *Translator factors*

Of these factors are the “translation competence” factors which are particularly pertinent to cognitive capabilities, aptitude, translation competence, and past experience and training of the translators, known as prior knowledge (Jääskeläinen, 2002). Researchers have been examining these factors including memory structures, monitoring operations in translation, creative mental processes in translation, etc., but the most important of these factors is translation competence.



Competence refers to personal qualities, skills and abilities that exists in different degrees (Englund, 2005, p. 16) and can be examined as a whole or in part as constituent sub-skills (Schäffner & Adab, 2000, p. ix).

PACTE (Process in the Acquisition of Translation Competence and Evaluation) – a group of translation studies researchers from Universitat Autònoma de Barcelona in 2003 have proposed one of the most influential models, known as The translation Competence Model. Based on empirical (mostly qualitative) studies, this model comprises of five sub-competences: 1) *bilingual sub-competence* (i.e. knowledge in the two languages), 2) *extra-linguistic sub-competence* (i.e. knowledge about the source and target cultures, knowledge about the world in general, and subject knowledge – this is called *declarative knowledge*), 3) *knowledge about translation sub-competence* (including knowledge about how translation functions and knowledge related to professional translation practice – this is called *procedural knowledge*), 4) *instrumental sub-competence* (i.e. knowledge related to the use of documentation sources, and information and communication technologies applied to translation – this is also part of the procedural knowledge), and 5) *strategic sub-competence* (i.e. procedural knowledge for identifying translation problems and applying procedures to solve them). Such sub-competences function in whole or in part to activate the cognitive processing of translation through the coordination of memory and attention mechanisms, attitudinal aspects, and abilities including creativity, logical reasoning, analysis and synthesis towards the production of translation products.

Current research on the processes of translation seeks to compare translators of different competence levels, such as expert translators versus novice translation students (Dreyfus & Dreyfus, 1986). By definition, experts are those who “are consistently able to exhibit superior performance for representative tasks in a domain” (Ericsson, 2006a, p. 3). In this respect, Gouadec (2007) distinguishes two types of translation expertise: general translation and specialized translation. Specialized translation refers to the translation of materials which belong to a highly specialized domain such as the sciences and literature. General translation is the translation of materials that do not belong to any specific domain or particular type, such as tourist brochures, press articles, user guides, etc. Based on these two types of translation expertise, translators can be divided into generalist translators and specialist translators. Generalist translators translate materials which do not require a high degree of specialized or technical knowledge, while specialized translators usually focus on specific domains.

In this regard, too, different translation tasks may require the utilization of certain translation sub-competences more frequently than others. For instance, if a source text contains a large number of terms unknown to the translator, then instrumental sub-competence (e.g. knowledge related to the use of the internet and dictionaries) will be critical. These sub-competences are what make translators different. Chi (2006) has described seven characteristics that can be conducive to an expert translator’s successful performance:

1) Experts excel in generating the best solution and can do this faster and more accurately than non-experts.

2) Experts can detect and see features that novices cannot, and can also perceive the “deep structure” of a problem or situation.

3) Experts spend a relatively great deal of time analyzing a problem qualitatively, developing a problem representation by adding many domain-specific and general constraints to the problems in their domains of expertise.

4) Experts have more accurate self-monitoring skills in terms of their ability to detect errors and the status of their own comprehension.

5) Experts are more successful at choosing the appropriate strategies to use than novices. In this regard, Jääskeläinen (1993) classified translation strategies into global and local strategies, the former applying to the whole task, while the latter to specific items (e.g. lexical searches), and concluded that global strategies were much more frequently used by professionals than by amateurs, apprentices, and novices. She also found that professionals appeared to follow their global strategies systematically through the task, whereas beginners seemed to proceed in a more hit-or-miss, chaotic fashion.

6) Experts are more resourceful than novices; they make use of whatever sources of information are available while solving problems and also exhibit more opportunism in using resources.

7) Experts can retrieve relevant domain knowledge and strategies with minimal cognitive effort, execute their skills with greater automaticity and exert greater cognitive control over those aspects of performance where control is desirable.

### *Measuring Translation Difficulty and Assessing the Quality of Translation*

Indeed, to measure translation difficulty, we need to measure text difficulty, recognize translation-specific difficulty (i.e. translation problems in a task), and assess translation difficulty (i.e. mental workload) for the translator.

#### *1. Measuring text readability*

Carrell (1991) examined the first and second language reading comprehension of adult native speakers of Spanish and English who were foreign or second language learners of the other language, and found that reading in a second language is a function of both first language reading ability and second language proficiency.

To measure text difficulty, researchers used mathematical formulas which they called readability formulas since the early 1920s up till now (Dale & Chall, 1948; Flesch, 1948; Fry, 1977; Gunning, 1952; Kincaid, Fishburne, Rogers, & Chissom, 1975; Klare, 1984; McLaughlin, 1969; Anagnostou & Weir, 2007; DuBay, 2004). A readability formula is an equation which combines the statistically measurable text features that best predict text difficulty, such as average sentence length in words or in syllables, average word length in characters, and percentage of difficult words (i.e. words with more than two syllables, or words not on a particular wordlist). Among these factors, vocabulary difficulty (or semantic factors) and sentence length (or syntactic factors) are the strongest indexes of readability (Chall & Dale, 1995; Kintsch & Miller, 1981).

#### *2. Grading translations*

Traditionally, teachers of translation used to assess the quality of a translation prepared by students by relying on their limited linguistic intuition, knowledge and experience. The criteria they relied on included textual equivalence, faithfulness, fluency, readability, neutrality, etc. That was even done by the most adroit and scrupulous teachers, while others used to rely on impressions, and in either case, conventional teachers could not approach an objective and comprehensive assessment of the quality of a translation, and consequently translation evaluation was impaired by crude subjectivity (Pym, 2010).

Presently, there are two basic approaches to scoring in language testing: holistic and analytic (e.g. Hughes, 2003; McNamara, 2000). According to a survey conducted by Waddington (2001) among 52 translation teachers from 20 European and Canadian universities, 38.5% used a holistic method for correcting translation exam papers, 36.5% used an analytic method (based on error analysis), and 23% combined the two methods to correct these papers.

The holistic method is based on the idea that the whole is greater than the sum of its parts (Johnson, Penny, & Gordon, 2009). Graders are usually required to provide a single grade for a translation, and they have to combine all the prominent features of a translation to arrive at an overall judgment of its quality. They normally need to refer to a holistic rubric so that the grading can be more systematic and objective. A holistic rubric defines performance criteria and levels but does not indicate specific components of the performance (Gareis & Grant, 2008). An example of these grading rubrics is that developed by American Translators Association (ATA, 2009) which contains four levels, as follows:

- Strong: Translated text conveys meaning fully and accurately as specified by Translation Instructions.
- Acceptable: Translated text conveys meaning well enough to be useful to intended reader; occasional mistranslations, omissions or additions may slightly obscure meaning.
- Deficient: Translated text does not convey meaning well enough to be useful to the intended reader; mistranslations, omissions or additions may obscure meaning.
- Minimal: Translated text would be nearly useless to intended reader; frequent and/or serious mistranslations, omissions or additions obscure or change meaning.

Yet, rubrics may be three-leveled (unacceptable, barely acceptable, clearly acceptable), or six-leveled (unacceptable translation, inadequate translation, barely adequate translation, competent translation, very competent translation, and outstanding translation), or they could be set in other formats suitable for the purpose it is intended to be used for scoring the competences and sub-competencies of novice translators (Angelelli, 2009, p. 39).

The analytic method entails that graders assign scores for different components or characteristics of the task, and then add up these scores to obtain an overall score (Sullivan, 2009). In the field of translation, the analytic rubric is usually an error classification scheme. An error, defined by its severity, can be a major one or a minor one, so a weight in the form of a numerical value can be assigned to each error. Currently there are quite a few translation error classification schemes set out in rubrics (*see for example*, Dunne, 2009; Secară, 2005; Williams, 2004).

The primary advantages of holistic scoring are the simultaneous consideration of all components of the response and time efficiency, while the strength of analytic scoring lies in assessing the examinee's specific strengths and weaknesses and identifying the particular components of the translation competence (Welch, 2006).

Contrasting these two scoring methods led researchers (Knoch, 2009) to believe that the analytic method can be more objectively verifiable and reliable and less subjective than holistic scoring. However, some researchers, in contrast, tend to think that "[t]he more holistic the rubric, the fewer the gradations and shades of gray and thereby, the more objective and reliable the scores can be" (Wormeli, 2006, p. 46). In this respect, too, Waddington (2001) suggested that



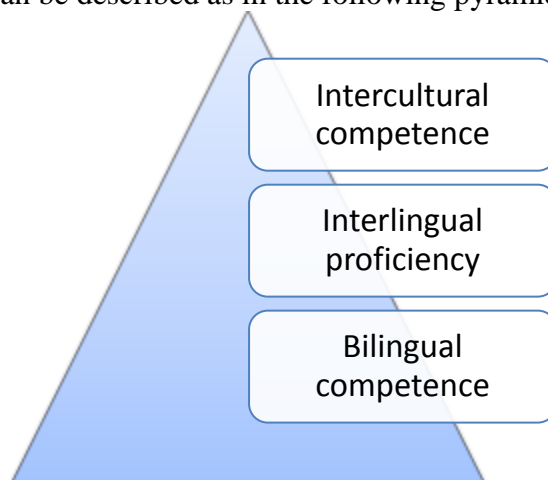
translation assessment methods grounded in error analysis were more reliable than holistic scoring methods, but the researcher could not provide verifiable evidence for this hypothesis.

Recently, translation researchers now tend to dub the holistic method as a “subjective impressionism”, looking for objectively verifiable alternative assessment methods in judging the quality of translation (Al-Qinai, 2000). But the latent problem with this kind of work is that measuring translation quality is an inherently subjective process that is contingent on pure human judgment in the first place, such as the judgment of a beauty queen in a beauty contest. Assuming that there are objective aspects about this process on the grounds that translation errors can be mechanically recognized as in capitalization, punctuation, single word errors, spelling, grammar, etc., graders may yet tend to give variant scores to the same translation. Speck (2009) reported that in an experiment by Fearn (1982), the researcher asked 33 teachers to evaluate the mechanical accuracy in a piece of translational writing, and the teachers scored it variedly, scrapping as null and void any controversy over the subjectivity versus objectivity issue. The real issue in assessing the quality of translation is to think of creative methods whereby to reduce bias and boost up valid, reliable and consistent methods and models of grading pieces of translation to determine their quality.

The paucity in existing empirical research in this field implicitly suggests that there is an equally small number of empirical studies on translation quality measurement in general and that there is a dire need to conduct enough research on the topic (Vehmas-Lehto, 2008). The underlying purposes for this prospective research on the quality of translation assessment models and tests include the study of backwash effects on translation studies programs (Richards, Platt & Platt, 1992; Garant, 1997) and the search for qualitative measures that consider the participants' points of view in the assessment process and the identification of their voices qualitatively expressed in holistic assessment rubrics (Poikela, 1999).

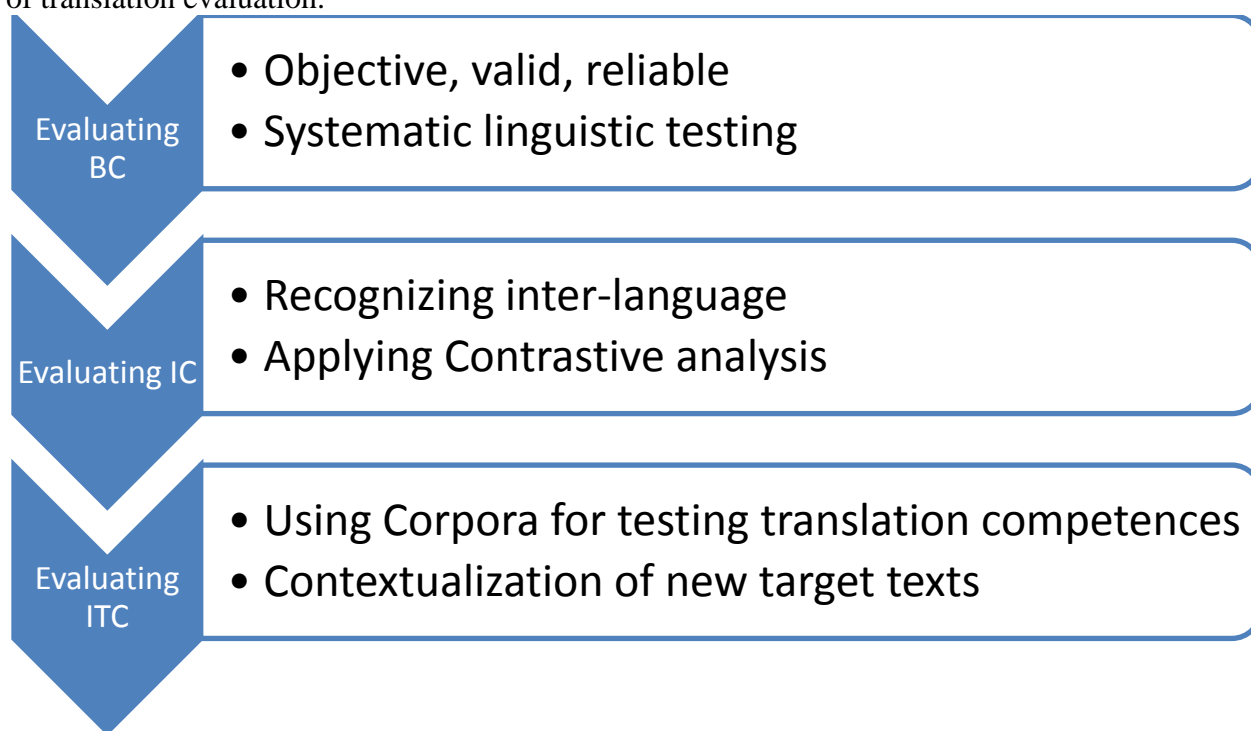
### **The Suggested Translation Evaluation Model**

The suggested model proposes that translation evaluation should be concomitant to each phase in translation teaching. It should also reverberate to the total components of the translation competence. According to Wilss (1976), there are three sub-competences: 1) a receptive competence in the source language which refers to *bilingual competence*; 2) a productive competence in the target language which corresponds to *inter-lingual proficiency*; and 3) a super-competence for transferring messages between linguistic and textual systems of the source culture and those of the target culture, which corresponds to the *intercultural competence*. These are three main phases that can be described as in the following pyramid:



**Figure 1. Translation Competences Pyramid**

Robinson (1997) aptly suggests that in translation teaching situations, students utilize these three translation sub-competences through activating and reconstructing their prior knowledge and experience with translation. As earlier defined, translation competence is as an underlying knowledge or ability needed to carry out a translation task. The higher the level of this competence in its entirety in translation students, the more able they will become in using linguistic and non-linguistic sub-competences of translation. In other words, competence then will lend itself to actualize in the practice performance of translators. This performance is tracked in one stream towards getting translation students to master the three important sub-competences of the overall translation competence; namely, mastering bilingual competence, inter-lingual proficiency, and intercultural transfer. Figure 2 below graphs the suggested model of translation evaluation:



**Figure 2. Phases of the Suggested Model**

#### *Description of the TE Model*

According to this suggested model, translation teaching is approached as a situational and functional pedagogical process. In other words, the focus shifts from translation as a product to translation as a process. During this process, students of translation become aware that any translational writing task is a socio-linguistic and cultural activity. They are not only translating the language, but they are also translating the cultural loadings that accompany the language. In this regard, translating a text is a process of conveying the meanings that this text relays to the reader. In this phase, the translator seeks to contextualize the new text in the target language to be comprehensible not only to the new readership as a linguistic passage, but brings with it the cultural artifacts of the source text introducing them to the new readers in order to produce some sort of functional equivalence in the target language.

*Phase I: Evaluation of Bilingual Competence*

TE during this phase is much akin to traditional language tests; teachers examine the semantic, lexical, orthographic, structural, and grammatical correctness of the students' translational writing.

*Phase II: Evaluation of Inter-lingual Competence*

Having evaluating language-specific sub-competences of the major translation competence, the TE assessor evaluates how far the students of translation have grasped the differences and similarities between the target language and the source language. Here the assessor utilizes contrastive analysis techniques to test the translation students' pragmatic and stylistic knowledge and how this knowledge is procedurally used to produce a text that is re-verbalized in the new target language - one that does not seem alien to the new reader of the translation text. The assessor also evaluates interlanguage problems that influence the production of sound linguistic and cultural meanings of source language texts and target language texts.

*Phase III: Evaluation of Intercultural Transfer Competence*

The process of rendition must have a special *skopos* or function being a purposeful activity that should be commensurate with the social and ideological norms of the target language society. Therefore, translation involves a final process of contextualization or localization of the new target language text so that it becomes culturally comprehensible, digestible and acceptable to the target readership. The assessor here uses corpus-based texts to examine the translation students' sub-competences of inter-cultural transfer.

This model inspired the researcher to develop a rubric for translation teachers to use in evaluating translation texts in the target language as follows:

<b>Standard</b>	<b>To a greater extent</b>	<b>To some extent</b>	<b>Not really</b>
The translation reflects the translator's intercultural competence.			
The translator adapts pieces of text where cultural nuances exist to the advantage of intercultural understanding.			
The translator recognizes interlanguage/interference problems and accommodates the target text to lend it culturally and linguistically intelligible to the target readership.			
The translator sacrifices the letter of the text to the good of the meaning intended as s/he grasps it.			
The text reads well stylistically, syntactically and semantically in the target language as if it were originally written in the target language.			
The translator manages to understand new lexicon in context more than heavily indulges himself/herself in dictionary work.			
The translator pays tribute to global meanings rather than specific or local chunks of meanings.			

The translator works towards an overall comprehension of the text which is reflected in an overall comprehensible target text.			
The produced target text is infallible orthographically, grammatically, syntactically, and structurally.			

This rubric can be used for an overall evaluation of a translation text as a reference guide in translation evaluation.

Though it may look somehow subjective, this rubric is overall comprehensive, reliable, and systematically valid, given that it generally covers linguistic and paralinguistic variables in a translation text as well as it bases the translator's performance on an appropriate translation evaluation model.

In summary, the success of a translation evaluation model relies heavily on its being meaning-proof; in that sense, three variables should be attended to carefully: validity, reliability, and objectivity. These criteria can frame the evaluator's evaluation strategy s/he uses with their students, and they should be applied with caution to regulate evaluation rather than to constrict it to a rigid set of standards, however.

### **Concluding Remarks**

In natural translation settings, the variety of texts and translation tasks may require the translator, or student of translation, to utilize certain sub-competences of translation more than others. For instance, if a source text contains a large number of terms unknown to the translator, then instrumental sub-competence (e.g. knowledge related to the use of the Internet and dictionaries) will be critical. Different types of translation tasks can capitalize on some components of translation competence more deeply than on others. For example, if a text may have allusions to traditional or cultural loadings, such as Biblical or mythological incidents, this would require the translator to have the pertinent backdrop of these culturally loaded allusions in order to grasp the associations and connotations esoteric to the lexicon (Leppihalme, 1997). Therefore, translators must vary on their mastery of these competences. This may shed light on the characteristics of translation competence and its acquisition process, and consequently, on any TE process results.

In addition, no matter how knowledgeable and expert a translator is, evaluation research suggested that all the translators—both experts and students—went through all of the four progressive yet recursive stages (planning, comprehending, transferring, and self-monitoring), and the participants who did more high-level self-monitoring seemed to have produced better translations (Zhao, 2004).

It is also worth mentioning that recognizing the level of difficulty in any of the three sub-competences of bilingual, inter-lingual and intercultural competences is important for both assessments of translation and in the translation pedagogy per se.

Finally, research on translation evaluation can contribute significantly to our understanding of translation process in terms of the interrelationships among text characteristics, translator behaviors, and the quality of translational writing. Therefore, using practical, well intrigued models of TE to measure the quality of translation and the difficulties that novice translators encounter when they translate will help translation teachers prepare proper materials and texts for translation exercises that will contribute to better translation education.

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