

TRANSLATION AS A FORM OF PROBLEM-SOLVING ¹⁰

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Abstract: The paper focuses on problem-solving behaviour during the translation process. It is based on Chesterman and Wagner’s (2002) classification of translation problems and strategies. Two broad types of translation strategies (textual and distancing strategies) are discussed and backed up with illustrative examples. These translation strategies are used to solve three major types of translation problems: search problems, blockage problems, and textual problems. The latter attracted considerable interest on the part of translation scholars and practitioners, while the former is a relatively under-researched area. The paper concludes that translation strategies are a powerful “conceptual tool” that can be used for “improving translation skills” (Chesterman 1997: 93).

Keywords: translation process, problem-solving, search strategies, creativity strategies, textual strategies, translation skills

INTRODUCTION

Problem-solving and decision-making are two features intrinsic to translation viewed as a cognitive process. Translation competence involves identifying problems and using various tools and resources to tackle them. The translator’s decision-making implies a choice of strategies that are governed primarily by translation norms¹¹, communicative situations, the properties of source and target text readers, the desired skopos¹² (purpose or function) of the target text, and other linguistic and extralinguistic factors. Thus, problem-solving in translation involves different problems, which represent the major obstacles that every translator encounters and which require special skills and strategies to deal with.

EXPOSITION

Types of translation problems

According to Enbaeva (2021: 815), translation problems entail two domains: the textual domain and the translator’s domain. The first domain is related to various linguistic, text-specific, and sociocultural phenomena, while the second domain is associated with the decisions made by the translator, the skills and knowledge they possess, and the strategies they use. The first two categories of Chesterman and Wagner’s (2002: 57) classification of translation problems, i.e., the so-called search problems and blockage problems, are mostly linked to the translator’s domain, while the third category, the textual problems, are closely correlated with the textual domain.

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¹¹ See Toury (1980).

¹² See Vermeer’s Skopos Theory (1996).

Research constitutes an essential part of the translation process. Seeking and retrieving relevant information is not an uncomplicated activity because finding a specific term, word, or a phrase requires the possession of fundamental search skills and involves ensuring the reliability of sources and using consistent search strategies. The search problems that arise during the translation process can be associated with the digital competences and information skills the translators possess, the ability to critically evaluate the information sources and target language alternatives, the efficiency of information search activities, etc.

Quite often, translators (especially professional ones) experience blockage problems, i.e., they get stuck and are unable to carry on translating. They need to stop translating for some time in order to keep things in proportion and arrive at the right decisions in a calm way. Creativity strategies, also known as distancing techniques¹³, are useful tools for translators to get unstuck and mentally distance themselves from both the source text and the target text in order to obtain a wider and clearer view of the whole translation process.

The search problems and blockage problems related to the translation process, which are mentioned above, represent a relatively under-researched area. The last broad category of translation problems proposed by Chesterman and Wagner (2002) are textual problems, which have attracted considerable interest on the part of translation scholars. They are primarily related to various lexico-grammatical, stylistic, and pragmatic issues. These issues need to be carefully identified and analysed, and then the relevant textual strategies should be applied to solve the problems.

Types of translation strategies

There is a profusion of terms related to the choices or decisions made by translators during the translation process. The most often used terms are: strategies, procedures, methods, shifts, changes, transformations, etc. The term “strategy” is widely used in Translation studies but there is actually no consensus among researchers with regards to its definition.

According to Chesterman (2000: 82), strategies are “potentially conscious, goal-oriented procedures for solving problems.” In his earlier research, Chetserman (1997: 88-91) explains that strategies “describe text-linguistic behaviour”, i.e., they are “forms of explicitly textual manipulation”. They “offer a solution to a problem” and are “intersubjective” because they represent “easily accessible linguistic knowledge”, i.e., they are conceptual tools to be used by translators. The key notion in the definition above is “translation problem”, which is a primary constituent in studying the nature of translation strategies.

Different types of strategies related to the different types of translation problems described above can be distinguished, taking into consideration the definition of the term *translation strategy* and the fact that the translation process can be seen as a form of problem-solving.

Textual strategies

Textual problems require textual strategies in order to be solved. A heuristic, flexible, open-ended taxonomy of textual strategies, as the author himself describes it, which can be easily put into practice, is proposed by Chesterman (1997: 94-116)¹⁴. Three main categories are differentiated: syntactic/grammatical, semantic, and pragmatic strategies, which do not have clear-cut boundaries because “strategies of different types often co-occur” (ibid., 93). These three broad groups are further divided into several subcategories, which are presented in tabular form below. The Chesterman’s classification is slightly modified; some subcategories are merged into broader ones,

¹³ See Chesterman and Wagner (2002: 68-72).

¹⁴ See also Chesterman and Wagner (2002: 58-64).

and new subcategories¹⁵ are added. The tables contain illustrative examples taken from students' translations of mostly made-up examples.

Table 1: Syntactic/grammatical strategies

Syntactic/grammatical strategies – based on the syntactic relations in language and involve grammatical transformations of formal elements of the text	Illustrative examples
<i>Literal</i> (word-for-word) translation	He will come tomorrow. > Toy shte doyde utre. The Target text (TT) sentence is translated as close as possible to the grammatical structure of the Source text (ST) sentence.
<i>Addition</i> – adding new structural elements	He greeted me with a funny look . > Toy me pozdravi sas stranen izraz na litseto . The grammatical structure of the ST sentence is expanded by adding new elements ("na litseto").
<i>Deletion</i> – reducing structural elements	The glow of the evening twilight could be seen in the horizon. > Na horizonta mozheha da se vidyat krasivite tsvetove na zdracha . The grammatical structure of the ST text sentence is reduced by deletion of the lexeme "evening".
<i>Class shifts</i> – word class changes, for example from noun to verb, adjective, adverb, etc.	The young man wa given the seat of honour > Na mladiya mazh be predostavleno pochetnoto myasto. All arguments were laid aside for the moment > Za malko vsichki argument byaha ostaveni nastrana. Changes from noun to adjective and from noun to adverb occur respectively in the first and second sentence, respectively.
<i>Unit shifts</i> – rank changes concerning the units of language, i.e. morpheme, word, phrase, clause, sentence, paragraph	It began to rain. > Zavalya . A little bell jingled in the distance. > V dalechinata se chuvashche zvanche . In the TT sentences a word is translated as a morpheme due to the systemic differences between languages.
<i>Intra-system shifts</i> ¹⁶ – transformations that occur within the language system and concern various grammatical categories, for example, changes of tense, number, voice, mood, person, etc.	She knew, she could reash the sky (sg.) > Znaeshe, che mozhe da dostigne nebesata (pl.) He has already come . > Toy doyde . Intra-system shifts occur in the two examples: a shift from singular to plural form in the first sentence and a shift from present perfect to past simple tense in the secong sentence.
<i>Level shifts</i> – changes between different levels of language	I do pity you. > Naistina te sazhalyavam. The example is an illustration of a change from grammatical

¹⁵ The newly added categories are: class shifts, intrasystem shifts, addition, deletion, word order changes, polysemy, homonymy, and lexical gaps. Some of them are based on Catford's (1965: 73-83) classification of translation shifts, Vlahov and Florin's (1990: 21-86) classification of realia, and Newmark's (1988) taxonomy.

¹⁶ These shifts encompass the following categories proposed by Chesterman (1997: 96-97): phrase structure change and clause structure change.

	(the use of the auxiliary verb “do” in the ST sentence) to lexical emphasis (the use of the lexeme “naistina” in the TT sentence).
<i>Word order changes</i> – changes of word order for different purposes	At the gate they paused. > Te spryaha pred portichkata . Fronting is used in the ST sentence. A secondary element (adverbial phrase – “at the gate”) is shifted to the initial position of the sentence. The TT sentence follows a normal word order pattern (subject – verb – adverbial).
<i>Cohesion changes</i> – changes that involve addition or reduction of cohesion markers	These changes concern the use of reference, ellipsis, substitution, pronominaliation, repetition and connectors and require longer textual segments to be illustrated.
<i>Scheme changes</i> – changes that concern rhetorical devices such as parallelism, repetition, alliteration, etc.	The road is twisting and turning. > Patyat se izviva i lakatushi. Out of sight, out of mind. > Daleche ot ochite, daleche ot uma. Similar effects (and equivalent rhetorical schemes) are reproduced in TT sentences.

Table 2: Semantic strategies

Semantic strategies – based on the semantic relations in language and involve shifts of meaning	Illustrative examples
<i>Synonymy</i> – synonymous differentiation of semantically related lexemes usually belonging to one and the same semantic field	light > svetlina, videlina, zarevo, zarya, blyasak, etc. She loved walking by the light of the moon. > Obichashe da se razhozhda na lunna svetlina She could see the red light of the sun. > Vizhdashe karvavoto vecherno zarevo . Different lexemes from the same semantic field are chosen depending on the linguistic context.
<i>Antonymy</i> – this is the so-called antonymic translation	She is often wrong . > Tya chesto ne e prava . The TT sentence uses the antonym “prav” of the word “wrong” and the negation element “ne”.
<i>Hyponymy</i> – changes within the semantic relation expressed by way of “inclusion”	Your hands are so cold. > Dlanite vi sa tolkova studeni. I stubbed my toe several times yesterday. > Udarih si kraka nyakolko pati vchera. The examples above show two types of shifts: concretization of meaning (shift from generic to specific) and generalization of meaning (shift from specific to generic), respectively.
<i>Polysemy</i> – choosing one of the possible meanings of a polysemantic word based on the linguistic context	things > neshta, predmeti, bagazh, pribori, sechiva, instrumenti, etc. Pack up your things! > Styagay si bagazha/neshata ! The choice between different meanings of a polysemantic word is made based on the linguistic context.
<i>Homonymy</i> – discriminating between words identical in spelling and pronunciation but having unrelated meanings	My shoes are light and comfortable > Obuvkite mi sa leki i udobni. I won’t get to the house while it is still light . >

	<p>Nyama da stigna do kashtata dokato e oshte svetlo. The linguistic context is used to discriminate between the meanings of the two homonymic lexemes.</p>
<i>Abstraction change</i> – changes which involve moving from abstract to concrete meaning or from concrete to abstract meaning	<p>He was surprised by the the rosy red in her cheeks. > Toy be iznenadan ot rumeninata po buzite i. The example illustrates a shift from concrete (“rosy red” in the ST sentence) to abstract meaning (“rumenina” in the TT sentence).</p>
<i>Distribution change</i> – concentration or dispersion of semantic components over a different number of lexical units	<p>She grew pale when she saw the monster. > Preblednya, kogato vidya chudovishteto. The sky shone red against the dark forest. > Nebeto cherveneeshe na fona na chernata gora. The examples provide an illustration of two types of shifts – compression of meaning (“grew pale” > “preblednya”) and decompression of meaning (“shone red” > “cherveneeshe”) which fall under the category of “distribution change”.</p>
<i>Lexical gaps</i> – these are culture-specific words/phrases, also known as “realia” ¹⁷ , which are absent in one of the languages and require a special approach in translation	<p>Visiting a pub is a very popular activity among tourists in Great Britain. > Hodeneto na pab/krachma e mnogo populyarno sred turistite vav Velikobritaniya. Realia (lexical gaps) can be translated by means of various translation strategies. Transcription (“pub” > “pab”) and substitution with realia from the receiving culture (“pub” > “krachma”) are used in the example above.</p>
<i>Trope changes</i> – changes in the use of figures of speech because of cross-linguistic differences at lexical level	<p>He is a cunning fox. > Toy e hitra lisitsa. The garden was full of parrot tulips. > Gradinata beshe palna s pastrotsvetni laleta. She craved for those lavender nights with him. > Tya zhduvashe za temenuzhenite noshti, prekarani s nego. The recommended strategy is translating the metaphor literally as is illustrated in the first example (“cunning fox” > “hitra lisitsa”). Quite often metaphors are avoided and are translated semantically, i.e. their explicit reference is used (“parrot tulips” > “pastrocvetni laleta”). Sometimes the metaphorical meaning can be preserved by way of creating a new image (“lavender night” > “temenuzhena nosht”).</p>

Table 3: Pragmatic strategies

Pragmatic strategies – they concern the selection of information in the TT	Illustrative examples
<i>Cultural filtering</i> – naturalization or adaptation of SL culture-specific items and their replacement with functional or cultural equivalents in conformity with target-language norms	<p>Jack the Giant Killer > Krali Marko (an example from the English version of Radichkov’s play <i>An Attempt at Flying</i>) Jack is a fairy tale hero who, during King Arthur’s reign, kills a number of bad giants. Krali Marko, on the other hand, is a popular character in Bulgarian folklore who protected people from the Ottoman invasion. By</p>

¹⁷ Vlahov and Florin (1990: 21-86) propose a detailed classification of the strategies used for realia translation.

	functionally replacing “Jack” with “Krali Marko”, the national colour is lost.
<i>Explicitness change</i> – changes that involve making the information in the TT more explicit (clear and straightforward) or implicit (indirect and deductible)	He saw the map of the course of the Danube on the wall. > Vidya karta na techenieto na reka Dunav na stenata. The TT sentence is made more explicit, i.e., understandable by the addition of the classifier “reka” (“river”).
<i>Information change</i> – adding (non-inferable) information or omitting (irrelevant) information	For example, omitting information for ideological reasons.
<i>Interpersonal change</i> – changes related to the level of formality, i.e. the degree of emotiveness, the level of technicality, etc.	For example, the preferred use of beginning or ending when writing a letter for social, formal, or business purposes.
<i>Illocutionary change</i> – speech act changes involving changes in the mood of the verb, the use of rhetorical questions, the shift from direct to indirect speech or vice versa, etc.	You can buy this beautiful dress for only 45 euros. > Kupete si tazi krasiva roklya samo za 45 evro. The example shows a shift from indicative to imperative mood.
<i>Coherence change</i> – changes concerning the logical arrangement of information in the text	For example, changes related to paragraphing, i.e., the rationalization of the structure of the text.
<i>Partial translation</i> – some parts of the ST are not translated	For example, the so-called summary translation, i.e., only the most important parts of the ST are translated.
<i>Visibility change</i> – changes related to authorial presence	For example, the use of footnotes, bracketed comments, etc. by the translators which foregrounds their presence.
<i>Transediting</i> – changes concerning radical re-editing of the ST	For example, re-editing a ST because it is badly written.

The textual strategies summarized above are optional or obligatory, practical, concrete, and open-ended. They can be seen as a useful tool for dealing with linguistic and extralinguistic peculiarities in the ST. It is necessary for translators and translation students to be aware of various textual strategies in order to improve the translation process and adequately and effectively solve the textual problems they are faced with.

Distancing strategies (search and creativity strategies)

Distancing strategies proposed by Chesterman and Wagner (2002: 68-79) represent a broader term that can be considered to roughly cover the search and creativity strategies that can assist translators in overcoming various search and blockage problems. These strategies are used mostly by professional translators and are derived from their translation practice. The authors define distancing as “stepping back mentally from what you are creating to get a better perspective on it” (ibid., 68). A slightly modified classification of Chesterman and Wagner’s strategies is presented in the table below:

Table 4: Distancing strategies (search and creativity strategies)

Type of distancing:	Strategy:
Distancing during the translation process The aim is to detach oneself from both the ST and the draft translation.	Have small breaks at frequent intervals. Make a longer break if necessary. Stop work on the current translation and do a different task for a while. Leave the translation overnight and return to it in the morning. Practice managing your inner state if you are pressed for time.
Distancing by consulting someone else The aim is to use the detachment from the text that an outside person has but that you have lost.	Consult a fellow-translator of your language. Consult a fellow-translator of the language of the ST. Consult a terminologist or an expert/professional in the field.
Distancing during problem-solving The aim is to see the problem in a new light (context). Search strategies fall under this category, as well.	Put yourself in the place of the author. Consult other resources on the same subject (parallel texts, background texts, on-line terminology collections, term banks, etc.). Make use of metasearch engines, text retrieval systems, translation memory systems, etc. Change your surroundings. Trust your subconscious mind – most solutions are arrived at outside of the conscious awareness, i.e., they can appear as a sudden insight. Adopt a still, contemplative state and allow the answer to emerge.
Distancing when reading through and polishing The aim is to make the TT text clear and precise by giving the final draft one last polish.	Change the medium – proofreading on paper or on screen. Break up the logic of the text and start reading at some point in the middle of the document. Leave your final checking and correcting to a reviser or a colleague. Separate the tasks involved in proofreading (for example, spelling, grammatical issues, clarity of syntax and style, formatting, etc.).

The process of translation is not only a purely linguistic activity but also involves different social and cultural factors. It also depends on the translator's emotions and state of mind, as well as on their ability for critical thinking, which is required for solving problems. Distancing strategies are deliberate in nature and are an important and valuable resource for any translator, be it a novice or an experienced one. Increasing the translators' awareness of the existence of such strategies will ensure progress and quality during the translation process.

CONCLUSION

Seeing the translation process as a complex interaction between various factors on different levels – textual, communicative, cultural, social, and cognitive – is crucial for understanding its

complexity. As Tymoczko (2018) points out, translation is a multi-faceted language-related cognitive activity. Translation is also about choosing and evaluating alternatives. It requires the utilization of a number of translation strategies to help translators solve equivalence or other problems. Hence, translators “need a good toolbox” of strategies for finding information, composing texts, and avoiding mental blocks (Chesterman and Wagner 2002:108). Translator trainers and those who are involved in designing curriculum for translation students should perform an essential role in fostering students’ awareness about the existence of such strategies, thus ensuring the production of high-quality translations.

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