

# The Application of Functional Linguistic Models for Assessing Quality of Translation: A Descriptive Analytical Study

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Received: August 19, 2016    Accepted: September 20, 2016    Online Published: November 23, 2016

doi:10.5539/ijel.v6n6p87

URL: <http://dx.doi.org/10.5539/ijel.v6n6p87>

## Abstract

This descriptive analytical study aimed at examining the application of linguistic-based functional approaches in assessing the quality of translation. A number of translation quality assessment models were analyzed to investigate the potential of integrating linguistic theories into translation theories. The problem that the present study tackled was that institutions of translation at higher education, translation organizations, and agencies of translation worldwide face difficulties in evaluating the quality of translation. Using objective criteria, which are based on the variables of quality, is still debated among these shareholders. The rationale of the present study is that adopting functional linguistic approaches can help in understanding the components of the quality of translation in terms of the relationship between translation purposes and functional adequacy. Linguistic functional approaches can determine the relationship between textual adequacy, and translation quality of content. Therefore, the current study followed a nonlinear design, which allowed an intensive description and analysis of three functional models applied in Translation Quality Assessment (TQA), and their effectiveness in assessing the quality of translation. Corpus data was collected from the theories and original works of House, Nord, and Colina, on translation quality assessment. Problems related to discourse analysis, function of the language, text typology, and theories of equivalence were examined. Translation criticism and evaluation including the classification of the functional hierarchy of translation, standards and benchmarks, empirical evidence for the success and limitations of the linguistic functionalist approaches in translation assessment, and competences and performances in translation, were thoroughly investigated. The research recommendations of the current study emphasize a number of issues relevant to translation evaluation. These issues are: (a) the significance of integrating the linguistic functional approaches into the curriculum of translation; (b) the importance of defining the components of solid criteria that can be employed for evaluating the quality of translations; and (c) the necessity of providing an empirical tool that can reveal the strengths and weaknesses of translated works. As such, this research study is a contribution in the field of translation evaluation and criticism as it provides a number of models that can be implemented in translation classrooms or in translation organizations. This study also provides an evaluation matrix, based on the models of TQA that can help translators understand the requirements of translation quality prior to the translation process itself. This research is also among the first studies to illustrate how to implement linguistic functional approaches that can be adopted by translation organizations, academic institutions, and publishing houses, to evaluate professional translations and this will inevitably lead to raising the standards of translation quality.

**Keywords:** Colina's functional-componential approach, House's functional-pragmatic model, linguistic functional approaches, Nord's didactic assessment model, translation quality assessment

## 1. Introduction

While previous research (Anari & Ghaffarof, 2013; ATA, 2015; Baker, 2011; Colina, 2003, 2008, 2009, 2015; Doyle, 2003; Drugan, 2013; Hatim & Mason, 1990; Hewson & Martin, 1991; House, 1977, 1997, 2015; Kiraly, 2005; Melis & Albir, 2001; Melis & Hurtado, 2001; Nord, 1991, 1997, 2005; Williams & Chesterman, 2002) indicated that the evaluation of translation is relevant in three areas of translation, which embrace the evaluation of published translations, the assessment of professional translators' works, and evaluation in translation teaching, the current study focused on the area of Translation Quality Assessment (TQA) using linguistic functional approaches. The relationship between translation and linguistics urges researchers to continue examining how

such a connection can impact the quality of translation. Assessing the quality of translation through employing authentic tools is one of the controversial issues in the fields of translation and applied linguistics. The process of quality assessment refers to the process of collecting empirical data to measure how certain standards can be achieved through using multifaceted objective assessment criteria. However, the absence of valid and consistent criteria for evaluating the quality of translation requires further investigation. Although the major component of the translation process is that translation is always discussed, criticized, and evaluated, however, the questions are: what criteria can be used to carry out the assessment process? How can a critic provide an assessment report that is objective and inclusive? Should the assessment of the quality of translation depend solely on a comparison between the original and target texts? What are the bases of such a comparison? What are the objective references for assessing the quality of translation? The current study tried to provide answers to such questions through examining the attempts that were made to create objective criteria into the evaluation of translation, including the linguistic-based approaches such as Reiss' (1981, 2004) objective- relevant criteria, Nord's (1991, 1997, 2005) didactic model, Colina's (2003, 2008, 2009, 2015) functional-componential approach, House's (1977, 1997, 2015) functional-pragmatic model, and Schaffner's (2011) text-linguistic approach. The current research also investigated the theories of equivalence while exploring the application of some functional linguistic models for assessing the quality of translation.

### *1.1 Problem Statement*

The present study was based on identifying the problems of assessing the quality of translation, and examine the efficacy of the functional linguistic approaches employed in translation evaluation. The common complaints among translation institutions at higher education, organizations, and agencies focused on their inability to assess the quality of translation because of inadequate indicators to guide them through the process of evaluation. These shareholders face difficulties in assessing the quality of translation using objective criteria that are based on a matrix of variables that construct the concept of quality and show how it can be achieved successfully. In this respect, House (2001, 2015) emphasized the importance of using a holistic approach to translation assessment to help professional and trainee translators understand the linguistic and pragmatic levels of the texts. Colina (2003) believed that providing feedback on the quality of translations which is based only on grammatical and semantic mistakes is insufficient and that translators should understand the dimensions of original texts beyond language layers. Evidence from previous research (Al-Qinai, 2000; Bowker, 2000; Brione, 2007; Butler & McMunn, 2014; Colina, 2015; Doyle, 2003; House, 2015; LISA, 2007; Manfredi, 2012; Martinez-Melis & Hurtado, 2001; Moskal, 2000; Mossop, 2007; Munday, 2012; Nord, 1997; O'Brien, 2012; Rothe-Neves, 2002; Schaffner, 1998; Williams, 2009; Wilss, 1996) indicated that ineffective assessment impacted translators' performance, and quality of translation negatively. Therefore, the current study aimed at exploring the effectiveness of the functional linguistic models for assessing the quality of translation.

### *1.2 Purpose Statement*

The purpose of this descriptive analytical study was to explore the effectiveness of functional linguistic approaches in assessing the quality of translation. Three specific approaches were thoroughly analyzed. These approaches are: House's (1977, 1997, 2015) TQA, Nord's (1991, 1997, 2005) didactic assessment, and Colina's (2003, 2008, 2009, 2015) functional-componential model. Potential solutions for the problem of assessing the quality of translation point to the application of functional linguistic approaches, which are based on textual analysis of source and target texts. Previous research (Anari & Ghaffarof, 2013; Angelelli, 2009; Bowker, 2000; Brione, 2007; Butler & McMunn, 2014; Doyle, 2003; Drugan, 2013; Honig, 1997; Hatim & Mason, 1990; Khotaba & Tarawneh, 2015; Prior et al., 2011; Williams, 2009) indicated that the application of assessment research-based criteria resulted in improving the quality of translation. Furthermore, research on the relationship between linguistics and the evaluation of translation (Colina, 2003; Drugan, 2013; Gambier & Doorslaer, 2011; Gouadec, 2010; Kim, 2006; Lauscher, 2000; Martinez-Melis & Hurtado, 2001; Mossop, 2007; Neubert, 2000; Pym, 2003; Reiss, 2000; Saldanha & O'Brien, 2014; Schaffner, 1998) concluded that providing an objective assessment tool prior to the process of translation enabled in understanding the concept of quality in relation to valid criteria. Therefore, the corpus data of the current research was collected from the original works of the functional linguistic approaches that are employed in translation quality assessment.

### *1.3 Significance of the Study*

The current research is a contribution in the field of applied linguistics and translation to develop the studies on translation evaluation and criticism at higher education since it provides a corpus-based analysis of how to implement functional linguistic models to assess the quality of translation. This research study targeted four areas which constitute effective criticism of translation: (a) integrating linguistic theories into translation theories;

(b) defining aims and means of linguistic-based translation assessment; (c) applying functionalist approaches in assessing the quality of translation; and (d) highlighting the strengths and limitations of the functional linguistic approaches. This study also examined the concepts of equivalence and quality to pinpoint the procedures that are applied in three functionalist linguistic-based models of translation quality assessment which include the models of House (1977, 1997, 2015), Nord (1991, 1997, 2005), and Colina (2003, 2008, 2009, 2015). This research is also among the first studies to illustrate how to implement functional assessment models that can be employed by academic institutions at higher education, and publishing houses, to evaluate professional translations. This will inevitably lead to raising the standards of translation quality. Furthermore, the evaluation matrix, suggested in this research study, is another contribution since it modifies the complexity of the functional models to make them easily manageable in the assessment process. This matrix can help in assessing the quality of translation on the basis of the objective principles of quality. Thus, this study can stimulate a greater interest in investigating translation quality assessment, especially for organizations that are affiliated with higher education and are concerned with providing translation training services. The present study also provides new ways for the evaluation of translation in the classrooms, an area that has not been fully explored in higher education.

#### *1.4 Theoretical Framework*

Functionalist linguistic and translation theories constitute the theoretical framework of this study. The integration of the linguistic theories of text analysis into the theories of translation equivalence, which establishes translation quality assessment approaches of Reiss (1971, 2000), House (1977, 1997, 2015), Nord (1991, 1997, 2005), Schaffner (2011), and Colina (2003, 2008, 2009, 2015) were thoroughly analyzed. Early linguistically-oriented approaches used in translation evaluation include the works of Catford (1965), Reiss (1971), Koller (1979) and the studies of the Leipzig school. In this early research, functional perspectives for assessing the quality of translation were proposed theoretically, but there were no specific procedures for quality assessment. However, recent studies, including the research of Hatim and Mason (1990), Nord (1991), Baker (1992), Vermeer (1996), Wilss (1996), House (1997), Hickey (1998), Steiner (1998), Doherty (1999), Colina (2003), Reiss (2000), Schaffner (2011); and Williams (2004, 2009) provided criteria and procedures for implementing an objective model for assessing the quality of translation. For example, House's (1997) assessment model integrates Halliday's systemic-functional theory, Prague ideas, and theories of speech, pragmatics, and discourse analysis. House's model provides three different levels for the analysis and comparison of the original text and its translation: the levels of language, genre, and register (field, mode and tenor). Reiss and Vermeer's theory (1984) was developed using the work of the linguist Bühler, which depends on the function of language. Reiss and Vermeer (1984) classified four text functions: informative, expressive, operative, and audiomedial, and they argued that the text rather than the word or the sentence is the unit of translation. Reiss (1981, 2004) also perceived translation as an act of communication, and she emphasized that the main task of translators is to produce a target language text that is functionally equivalent to the source language text. To achieve functional equivalence, she proposed a functional approach of text-typology. This approach relies on the communicative functions of the source text as the basis for achieving quality of translation in the target text. Reiss's (1981, 2004) functional text-typology approach is centered on text analysis to establish the text type, genre and style. According to Reiss and Vermeer (1984, 2014), text-typology includes two-phases in translating a text. The first phase is the analysis of the text, which involves establishing the text type, genre and style, i.e., identifying the linguistic form of the text. The second phase is the reverbalization of the text, which refers to the process of conveying the meaning by the target text in a way that is equivalent to the meaning in the source text. Reiss (1981, 2004) believed that a translator should conduct detailed semantic, syntactic and pragmatic analyses of the language use. She also argued that based on the content-focused function of the text, the translator should employ a translation method that is appropriate for achieving the same function as that of the target text by translating according to the meaning so as to achieve functional equivalence. In the light of Reiss' theory, there is a link between text function and translation strategy, and that providing objective criticism on the quality of translation requires relevant criteria and categories. Such criteria should be verifiable to allow translators to know their mistakes and correct them.

Translation theorists also examined the concept of equivalence for developing their functional models. In this respect, Baker (2011) identified four types of equivalence which embrace word, textual, grammatical, and pragmatic equivalence. According to Baker (2011), in the bottom-up approach to translation, equivalence at word level is the first element to be analyzed. Grammatical equivalence may vary across languages and this causes problems in finding a direct correspondence in the target text. Textual equivalence, which refers to the equivalence between source language and target language texts in terms of cohesion, is another important feature in translation since it provides useful guidelines for the comprehension and analysis processes. Pragmatic

equivalence, which involves understanding implicatures, is essential for providing strategies to avoid problematic issues such as cultural gaps. In accordance with view, Catford (1965) argued that translation equivalence is essentially situational whereas Nida (1964) argued that equivalence is more communicatively oriented. Nida (1964) proposed the *dynamic equivalence* as being an *equivalence of effect* to be achieved by translators, and it can be reviewed as the closest natural equivalent to the source text message. Neubert (2000) believed that translation equivalence is a *semiotic category* that contains syntactic, semantic and pragmatic aspects. Kade (1968) suggested translational equivalence typology between source and target texts, and he identified different types of equivalence, including total equivalence, such as proper names; and facultative equivalence, which refers to different correspondences at the level of expression, i.e. at the level of content. Therefore, selecting appropriate equivalents does not only depend on the situational and cultural contexts, but also on other factors such as text genre, purpose or function of translation, and the nature of the addressees. In this respect, Pym (2010) proposed two basic types of equivalence, namely, natural equivalence, which exists independently of the translator's actions, and directional equivalence, which is the equivalence from the source language to the target language. Pym (2010) argued that the directional equivalence arises from the translator's personal textual decisions. Thus, functional equivalence, in many translation studies, refers to the original text equivalence which is reflected in the translated texts after making some modifications and adaptations. Such studies showed that in many linguistic-based research of translation, equivalence is centered on textual and contextual comparisons between the source text and the target text. For example, Catford's (1965) concept of equivalence is based on contrastive analysis; and, according to Firth's (1957) and Halliday's (1985) views of social semiotics, functional equivalence highlights the context of situation which contains participants, actions, and effects of actions. Functional equivalence can also be reviewed through Halliday's (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2013) systemic-functional theory, which focuses on functional analysis that ranges from sentence level to text typology and discourse level.

In this respect, House (1977) developed her approach based on the theories of functional linguistics, and her model is focused on achieving a purposeful function. House (1997) stated, "translated texts should not only match their source texts in function, but employ equivalent situational-dimensional means to achieve that function" (p. 49). House (1977) aimed at achieving a close matching between the source text and the target translation. She also argued that translators must conduct cultural filtering to achieve equivalence. House (1997) believed that translation should achieve a specific purpose of communication, and not confine itself to transferring information for the addressees. Therefore, the initial purpose of House's linguistic approach is to systematize the assessment of translation. According to House (1997) functional equivalence is only attainable in cases of overt translation. In House's TQA model, functional equivalence explores how specific cultural communication interacts with translation *purposes*. In this respect, Skopos' theory (Reiss & Vermeer, 1984) of text analysis is relevant to House's model since Skopos' theory focuses on the *purpose* of the translation, which determines the methods of translation and the strategies that are to be implemented to produce a functionally adequate result, i.e., achieving quality translation.

In this connection, Schaffner's (2011), text-linguistic approach is concerned with providing guidelines to clarify the relationship between the source language text and the target language text, i.e., examining correspondence through equivalence. According to Schaffner (1999, 2011), equivalence does not mean interchange ability or reversibility, but it means equal correspondence. This perspective is in harmony with views about the types of equivalence that specify the relationship between source and target texts, such as Nida's (1964) formal and dynamic equivalence, Koller's (1979) denotative, connotative, text-normative, pragmatic, and formal aesthetic equivalence, Holz-Manttari's (1984) communicative equivalence, and House's (1977) pragmatic equivalence, among others. In these models, the functionalists' approaches view equivalence as a possible relationship between the source text and the target text. For instance, Holz-Manttari (1984) combined action theory and communication theory to propose the translatorial action theory, which mainly focuses on translation as intercultural communication, and not merely an act of textual processing. Holz Manttari (1984) believed that the target function is the core of the product specifications because the intercultural transfer of the text plays a major role in the quality of translation. Such a pragmatic functional approach is similar to House's (1997) since it includes not only the linguistic levels of analysis, but also the pragmatic dimensions of the texts.

Furthermore, Colina's (2008, 2009) approach to translation assessment is also based on functional linguistic theories. She emphasized the importance of evaluating certain components including an analysis of parallel texts and textual functions, and cohesion and coherence. According to Colina (2015), determining the extra-linguistic factors of translation is necessary for achieving a high quality translation. Linguistic factors are considered text norms in the functionalists' approaches. For example, Toury (1980) identified three types of norms: preliminary

norms, which involve decisions about the choices and strategies of the texts to be translated; initial norms, which refer to the translator's choice to adhere to the source text or to the culture of the target text; and operational norms, which control the decisions made during the act of translation itself. On the other hand, Nord's (2005) theory is founded on different levels of linguistic analysis. Nord (2005) aimed at providing "criteria for the classification of texts for translation classes, and some guidelines for assessing the quality of the translation" (p. 2). Nord's (1991, 1997, 2005) model contains seventeen levels or factors that determine the text profile. These levels include syntactic and lexical layers. Nord (2005) argued that for establishing the function of the source text, the translator needs to "isolate the source-text elements which have to be preserved or adapted in translation" (p. 21). Therefore, the relationship existing between linguistics and translation helps in creating models to assess the quality of translation.

### *1.5 Definitions of Terms*

#### *Assessment*

It refers to the process of evaluation. In translation, evaluators should adhere to four principles: using specific criteria; describing the purpose of the assessment; defining the levels of analysis to be carried out; and determining the indicators to be used in the process of assessment (Colina, 2008; House, 1979; Nord, 2005; Reiss; 2000; Schaffner, 2011).

#### *Audience*

The receivers to whom the text is addressed (including characteristics of those addressees: their age, gender, knowledge, educational, cultural, and socioeconomic backgrounds, (Colina, 2015).

#### *Coherence*

Semantic and pragmatic relations that give the text unity, meaning and purpose (Colina, 2015).

#### *Cohesion*

Explicit marking, through linguistic links among a sequence of distinct sentences, to make these sentences connect together (Colina, 2011).

#### *Cohesive devices*

Overt textual signs such as conjunctions, pronouns, lexical repetitions or synonyms, and parallel structures that help in establishing textual coherence (Colina, 2015).

#### *Componential approach to evaluation*

A method of evaluation that examines major aspects of the quality of translation in terms of separate components so as to offer a comprehensive view of evaluation (Colina, 2015, pp. 294-295).

#### *Covert translation*

It is "a translation which presents itself and its functions as a second original, i.e. a translation that may conceivably have been written in its own right" (House, 1977, p. 85).

#### *Criterion-referenced evaluation*

"A type of evaluation that examines translation quality with respect to a previously established criterion." (Colina, 2015, p. 295).

#### *Descriptive approach to evaluation*

"A method of evaluation that proceeds by matching the object under evaluation with descriptive statements, and each descriptor defines the degree of compliance with specific criteria." (Colina, 2015, p. 295).

#### *Dynamic translation*

"A type of translation that gives preference over form to the communicative purposes of the text." (Colina, 2015, p. 295).

#### *Equivalence*

It refers to correspondence, which is used as the criterion of translation quality. Translation adequacy is achieved when it has a functional equivalence to the function of its source text. However, it is difficult to achieve functional equivalence when the socio-cultural norms of the two languages are different (Colina, 2008; House, 1979; Nord, 2005; Reiss; 2000; Schaffner, 2011).

### *Explicitation*

A translation strategy which makes the information explicit in the target text even though this information is implicit in the source text (Colina, 2015).

### *Extra-linguistic features*

Aspects such as audience, function, and motive for production of the text, which belong to the non-linguistic context or situation of the text (Colina, 2015).

### *Field*

It captures social activity, subject matter or topic, including differentiations of degrees of generality, or specificity (Halliday, 1985).

### *Formal translation*

“A type of translation that tries to preserve the form of the source text.” (Colina, 2015, p. 295).

### *Formative assessment*

It refers to the type of evaluation used to assess the performance. Formative assessment is also known as diagnostic assessment, which is used to measure knowledge and skills in order to design and carry out appropriate corrective methods (Lorna, 2003).

### *Functional and textual adequacy*

“A component of evaluation that examines how well the translation achieves the goals, purpose and function of the text for its target audience and purpose.” (Colina, 2015, p. 296).

### *Functional linguistics*

It refers to the linguistic approach that is concerned with the function of language. Functional linguistics is centered on deriving grammatical, syntactic and textual structures from the ways in which language is used. The functional approach can be traced in the research of Firth, and the Prague School of linguists (Halliday, 1985).

### *Genre*

It refers to type of texts. An identification of the category of *genre* is important for the purpose of text analysis as a prior step to its evaluation. According to Halliday (1985), *genre* connects texts with the macrocontext of the linguistic and cultural communities.

### *Gist translation*

A type of translation which aims at conveying the main idea of the source text in the target language without preserving the form (Colina, 2015).

### *Mode*

It refers to spoken or written channels, through which the content is communicated, and it also involves the degree to which potential or real participation is allowed between writers and readers (Halliday, 1985).

### *Overt translation*

According to House (1977), overt translation is straightforward in nature, and it comprises scientific texts. House (1977) stated, “In an overt translation, the source text is tied in a specific manner to the source language community and its culture.” (p. 66)

### *Participation*

It refers to the potential relationship between the writers and the readers. Participation can be simple, when involved in a monologue without addressee participation established into the text, or complex, when involved with various addressee-involvements, using linguistic mechanisms (House, 1997).

### *Quality of translation*

The quality of translation can be determined by comparing a set of variables and inherent characteristics with a set of requirements. Only when the inherent characteristics meet all requirements, high level quality is achieved (Williams, 2001; House, 1979).

### *Register*

It is the content plane of language, capturing the connection between texts and their microcontexts, i.e., a variation in language dictated by the interaction of (language user language use), which involves field, mode,

and tenor (Halliday, 1985; Halliday & Matthiessen, 2013; House, 1977).

#### *Reliability*

It is the extent to which an evaluation produces the same results of the assessment tool when it is tested repeatedly under the same conditions. Thus a TQA system is reliable when the criteria are consistent and stable (Williams, 2001).

#### *Semantic translation*

“A type of translation that focuses on the form of the source text.” (Colina, 2015, p. 298).

#### *Skopos Theory*

It is based on functionalism, and it claims that translation is guided by extra-linguistic factors, i.e. the purpose or the function of the translation (Vermeer, 1978, 1989; Reiss & Vermeer, 2014).

#### *Summative assessment*

A type of evaluation used to measure and report outcomes (Wiggins, 1999). Summative and formative assessment is referred to evaluating the quality of the final product or the performance of the participant (Lorna, 2003).

#### *Tenor*

It refers to the nature of the participants, the addresser and the addressees and the relationship between them in terms of social power and social distance, as well as the degree of emotional charge. Tenor also captures social attitudes, which are formal, consultative, or informal styles (Halliday, 1985; Halliday & Matthiessen, 2013; House, 1977).

#### *Testable*

Instruments such as a rubric, which are used as a scoring guide to evaluate the quality of translation (Colina, 2008).

#### *Texture*

“The quality that defines a text” (Colina, 2015, p. 299).

#### *Textual approach to evaluation*

A method of evaluation that assesses the quality of translation with respect to text type and function. A textual methods depends on an analysis of the textual and situational features of the source and target texts, i.e., a comparison of the two texts to assess their match or mismatch (Colina, 2015).

#### *Translation Quality Assessment (TQA)*

It discusses the worth of translation through examining the relationship between a source text and its translation based on a comparison analytical evaluation (House, 2001, p. 243).

#### *Validity*

It is the extent to which an evaluation measures certain components such as translation competences, skills and quality (Williams, 2001).

## **2. Literature Review**

The discussions herein include four issues on functional linguistics and translation theories. These issues are: linguistic functional approaches used in translation theories; functional approaches for assessing the quality of translation; models in assessing the quality of translation; the application of three models of TQA; and the strengths and limitations of these assessment models. Moreover, the review of the literature contains an analysis of the previous studies on the concept of equivalence and how it is used in translation. The literature review addresses the research questions which focus on examining the application of linguistic-based functional approaches in assessing the quality of translation.

### *2.1 Functional Linguistics and Translation Theories*

Previous research (Anari & Ghaffarof, 2013; Baker, 2011; Blum-Kulka, 1986, 2004; Catford, 1965; Chesterman, 1989; Colina, 1997; Coulson, 2000; Gutt, 1990, 2010; Hatim & Mason, 1990; Hewson & Martin, 1991; Holmes, 1988, 2004; Honig, 1997; House, 1997; Jakobson, 1967; Khotaba & Tarawneh, 2015; Levinson, 1983; Mossop, 2007; Newmark, 1981; Nida, 1964; Prior et al., 2011; Segler et al., 2002; Suberviola & Mendez, 2002; Vinay & Darbelnet, 1958; 1995; Wilss, 1996) indicated that the relationship between linguistics and translation is centered

in understanding the language units and different levels of language to transfer the text from one language to another. For example, Catford (1965) asserted that a theory of translation must be rooted in a general linguistic theory, and that the difference between textual equivalence and formal correspondence must be clear. Catford (1965) proposed two main types of translation shifts, which are *level shifts* and *category shifts*. In the level shift, the source language grammatical item at one linguistic level, has a target language equivalent at a different level. The *category shifts*, which refer to lexis, are divided into four types: *structure-shifts*, which involve a grammatical change between the structure of the source text and that of the target text; *class-shifts*, when an item of source text is translated with a target text item using a different grammatical class, such as translating a verb into a noun; *unit-shifts*, which deal with changes in rank; *intra-system shifts*, which occur when source language and target language systems correspond formally to their constitution, but do not correspond when translated, as in the case of the source language singular becoming plural in the target language. Catford (1965) argued that because every language has its categories, formal correspondence is approximate. He concluded that while source language and target language structures are not identical, they can function in the same situation when the translation equivalence is established. In the light of this, Newmark (1991, 1998) provided linguistic procedures, such as transposition, modulation, transliteration, lexical synonymy, expansion, reduction, and lexical synonymy, to solve the problems of translation. Newmark (1988) also stressed the analysis of lexicon, syntactic, and stylistic aspects to identify the function of the language and to solve the problems of equivalence. He linked equivalence to a number of translation procedures to help translators solve the translation problems. Nida (1964) also believed that a translation theory has to be linguistic to enable a descriptive analysis of the source text and the corresponding message in different languages. Similarly, Jakobson's (1967) theory is linguistically-centered. He introduced three types of equivalence: intralingual (within one language, i.e., rewording or paraphrasing); interlingual (between two languages); and intersemiotic (between sign systems). Regarding the functionalists' views, which are related to Skopos' theory (Reiss & Vermeer, 2014), they offer a systematic pragmatic approach based on text typology, which incorporates the most important aspects of the translation process, including the conditions which determine the translator's decisions and choices to solve the translation problems. Kussmaul (1995), for instance, indicated that competent translators should know the exact function or purpose of the translation to enhance knowledge of the content of the source text, classify the translation problems, and apply parallel techniques to solve the problems. In light of this, Coulson (2000) pointed out that translation demands not only linguistic skills, but also socio-cultural knowledge of the subject of translation. Translation requires different knowledge in syntactic, semantic, cultural, stylistic and lexical areas. The syntactic and morphological features cause many translation difficulties because they cannot be translated in a straightforward manner. Generally, translators encounter two main challenges. The first challenge is dealing with the lexis-referential aspect. The second challenge is handling the structure-style aspect. In accordance with this, Anari and Ghaffarof (2013) conducted a study to investigate the impact of productive and receptive knowledge of lexical and grammatical collocations on the accuracy of the translation. The findings of the current study indicated that there is a significant relationship between the receptive and productive knowledge of lexical collocations and grammatical aspects, and the accuracy of the translation. In this respect, Segler et al. (2002) asserted that lexical acquisition is important since vocabulary is basic to communication. The importance of lexical knowledge is also emphasized by the fact that grammatical errors may lead to understandable structures while vocabulary errors disrupt the communication of the meaning completely. There are intralexical and interlexical factors that cause difficulties in translating words. Intralexical factors arise from intrinsic word's properties, which involve pronounce ability, spelling, morphological complexity, and existence of similar forms and grammar. Semantic factors such as specificity and register restriction, idiomaticity and multiple meaning, homonymy and polysemy can also cause serious problems in the process of translation. According to Suberviola and Mendez (2002), the context of vocabulary use, which can influence lexical meaning, occurs due to lack of vocabulary knowledge, and lexicon organization. However, Khotaba and Tarawneh (2015) argued that problems related to the translation process include translation of capitonyms in which 53% of the respondents had difficulty in translating collocations and idioms, 40% of the respondents had difficulty translating terms related to applied linguistic domains, 33% of them showed difficulty in preposition choice, and 26% of the respondents showed difficulty in translating lexical chunks and homonyms. Therefore, translation quality was divided into two major categories for assessment purposes: accuracy and clarity. Parallel to such studies, Prior et al. (2011), conducted a research to compare translations of single words, made in a laboratory setting, with contextualized translation of the same words, made by professional translators, and concluded that translation choices in both cases showed that decontextualized translation reflected the bilinguals' prior experience. Similarly, Honig's (1997), investigation of the theoretical foundations and practical application of TQA, emphasized the impact of linguistic functional approaches on training to improve the quality of translation. Munday (2012) indicated that translation through



the application of the model of systemic functional linguistics, specifically when integrated into the theories of evaluation, helped in achieving quality through the translators' training programs to qualify them to make decisions and choices for solving the translation problems.

## *2.2 Functional Approaches for Translation Assessment*

Translation views of evaluation include the mentalist view, which encompasses the subjective and intuitive evaluations approach, developed by Buhler (1879-1963), and response-based approaches, which embrace the behaviorists' views, and the functionalists' approaches. The behaviorists' views, developed by Nida (1964) claimed that they were seeking a more scientific way of translation evaluation. Nida's (1964) research on equivalence response was based on such principles as intelligibility and informativeness to set up objective criteria of translation evaluation. The behaviorists approaches attempted to achieve a dynamic response at the receivers' level. Thus, the behaviorist views are associated with Nida's (1964) theory of formal and dynamic equivalence. Furthermore, the post-modernist and deconstructionist views, including Venuti's (1995), which criticized translation from a psycho-philosophical and socio-political perspective, played a major role in providing models for assessing the quality of translation through manipulating the meaning of the source text. Such views focused on the fluency of translation as being the most important variable of translation quality. Furthermore, text and discourse based approaches such as that of Toury (1995), attempted to evaluate the quality of translation in relation to forms and functions inside the system of the receiving culture. Text and discourse based approaches include the literature-oriented approaches, and post-modernist and deconstructionist approaches, including Venuti's (1995). He examined translation practices critically from a psycho-philosophical and socio-political stance. Studies on functionalists' approaches for translation assessment also highlighted the importance of text analysis in the translation process. In this regard, the functional text-typology approach of Reiss (1971), Reiss and Vermeer (1984), and Vermeer (1996) is also based on text analysis to establish the text type, genre and style. Reiss' (1971, 1981, 1984, 2000, 2004) functional approach was influenced by that of Buhler. The approach of Buhler (1990), and Buhler and Goodwin (2011) depends on the function of the language, which includes four text functions: informative, expressive, operative, and audiomedial. Similarly, Vermeer (1978, 1989) believed that textual analysis is an appropriate functional approach to attain the purpose of translation, consequently achieving high quality of translation. On the other hand, Vinay and Darbelnet (1958) explored the linguistic aspects of translation based on comparative stylistics, and proposed seven procedures to solve translation problems so as to improve the quality of the target texts. The seven procedures are: borrowing, calque, transposition, modulation, equivalence, adaptation, and literal translation. Research (Colina, 2012; Gouadec, 2010; Lauscher, 2000; Nataly & DePalma, 2009; Nitko & Brookhart, 2010; Russ-Eft, & Preskill, 2009; Stufflebeam & Coryn, 2014) identified three functions of evaluation, which can be applied in the functional approaches to assess the quality of translation. These functions are: diagnostic, summative, and formative. The diagnostic function analyzes the problems of the text. The formative function is concerned with gathering information for the purpose of translation training. The summative evaluation is implemented to judge the final products of the translation. The summative functions cover two types: the first is normative, when the results are compared together; and the second is criteria-based, when evaluation is conducted based on pre-established criteria. Traditionally, translation was evaluated using stylistic criteria that examine semantic choices in literal or free translations. In this context, House (1997) argued that translation evaluation, which depends on evaluators' commentaries, appeared in many cases to be subjective, representing personal opinions. House (1977, 1979, 2015) developed her TQA model after reviewing the research studies on translation analysis and evaluation that embraced Vinay and Darbelnet's (1958) analysis of translation procedures, Nida and Taber's (1969) criteria of dynamic equivalence, Margot's (1979, cited in Molina and Albir, 2002) concept of reception, Hatim and Mason's (1990) contextual dimensions, Toury's (1980), and Rabadan's (1991) categories of evaluation, Larose's (1989, in Martinez-Melis and Hurtado, 2001) peri-textual and textual model, Hewson & Martin's (1991) translation sociocultural norms and parameters, and Nord's (1988) intratextual and extratextual factors in translation assessment. House's (1977) situational dimension and functional criteria emphasized the question of translation assessment in terms of evaluating the quality of translation in relation to the purpose of translation rather than applying abstract criteria. Hence, translation evaluation includes the mentalist views, which are the subjective and intuitive evaluations developed by the scholars of neo-hermeneutic translation scholars, the response-based approaches, and the behavioristic views, which are opposed to the subjective-intuitive approaches. In accordance with this view, Nord's (2005) criteria for the classification of texts can be used for translation training. Nord (2005) provided checklists that can be employed to overcome the translation problems and achieve a high quality translation. According to Nord's criteria, translation begins by controlling the source-text through analysis, then controlling the target-text production by defining the prospective function of the target text. Nord's functional approach is text-oriented, aiming at revealing the problems of translation. Schaffner (2011) also proposed a

text-linguistic functional approach which provides guidelines to pinpoint the relationship between the source and target language texts. Schaffner's (2011) approach is based on examining how the meaning can be transferred using relevant equivalence. Regarding the impact of competences on translation quality, studies on translation evaluation include the holistic model developed by the Process of the Acquisition of Translation Competence and Evaluation (PACTE, 2000), which defines competence in translation in a system that consists of knowledge, aptitudes, and refined skills. The PACTE model contains six sub-competencies: communicative competence in source and target languages; extralinguistic competence, which refers to knowledge of translation theory, encyclopaedic, thematic, and bicultural knowledge; transfer competence; instrumental professional practice competence; psychophysiological competence, which reflects the ability to apply psychomotor, cognitive and attitudinal resources; and strategic competence which consists of verbal and non-verbal procedures of solving problems. Thus, the assessment in PACTE's model measures translators' cognitive and metacognitive abilities.

### 2.3 The Application of Four Functional Models

The functional approaches models of translation assessment focus on preserving meaning, using semantic, textual, and pragmatic analysis across two languages. The functional pragmatic analysis in the functional TQA models relies on synthesizing the linguistic-situational features of the source and target texts. For example, Colina (2003) implemented a quantitative method when numerical values link the quality components. Colina (2008, 2009) proposed a componential-functionalist approach to translation quality assessment, which focuses on evaluating the components of quality, using valid criteria. In this model, translation products are translated relative to their functions, and in accordance to the characteristics of the audience, which are specified in the translation project. Colina (2015) believed that without using valid criteria of quality evaluation, evaluators would rely on their personal opinions. According to Colina (2011, 2012, 2015), the criteria of translation quality assessment should be based on customized components, which include customer's needs, psychometric evaluation, quality standards, evaluation methods of source text, target-text norms, functional adequacy, and specialized contents. Nord's (1991, 1997, 2005) functional model is also based on identifying the style used in the texts, determining levels of source language text analysis, and classifying the functional hierarchy of translation. Nord's model is didactic since she developed it in the classroom to provide students with valid criteria for classifying the texts and assessing the quality of their translation using a checklist of 17 levels of linguistic analysis. These levels include subject matter, content, presuppositions (factors of the communicative situation), composition, non-verbal elements (illustrations, italics), lexic (register, specific terminology), suprasegmental (word origin), sentence structure, intention, sender, audience, medium, place, time, motive, function, and effect. She provided a three-column chart that incorporated these levels to be used for conducting text analysis in order to identify the translation problems. The main objectives of this checklist are to help students and professional translators develop their own translation training. According to Nord, the only way to overcome the translation problems so as to achieve high quality of translation is "First, to control source-text reception by a strict model of analysis, and second, to control target-text production by stringent translating instructions which clearly define the (prospective) function of the target text" (p. 17). Hence, Nord's functional approach is text-oriented, aiming at revealing the problems of translation using various levels of analysis. On the other hand, House's (1977) TQA model offers means for text analysis at three levels, namely register, text, and genre. She described three variables that determine a text's register, and affect language choices. These variables are: the *field* which points at the language and the purposes of the text; the *tenor* which refers to the participants in the language event, and their relationship; and the *mode* which indicates how language is written or spoken. House (1977) added the variable of *cultural filter* as a means for capturing the socio-cultural differences in shared communication. In this respect, Bhabha (1994, 2004) asserted the impact of political and socioeconomic aspects on cultural identity, which should be interpreted as a part of cultural filtering. Lefevere (1992) also emphasized the act of manipulation for interpreting the cultural aspects in translation. Thus, House linked TQA to interdisciplinary studies. The main purpose of translation assessment, according to House (1977, 1997) is to evaluate four levels of quality: functional adequacy; quality of content, textual adequacy, and quality of specialized content. House (1997) also stressed the importance of applying translation assessment based on text types, which determine the translation strategies. According to House's (1977) Translation Quality Assessment (TQA) model, text types are classified into four categories: the informative, referring to the communication of facts; the expressive, stating the creative writing; the operative, encompassing the behavioral responses; and the audio-medial, including films and visual and spoken advertisements. Based on this classification, House identified two types of translations, namely, overt and covert. While overt translation is open and observable and is used to translate scientific and journalistic texts, covert translation is not straightforward in nature, and it is used to translate literary and religious texts. Thus, House (1977, 1979, 2015) linked her model to strategies for achieving high quality of translation.

#### 2.4 Advantages and Limitations of Functional Linguistic Models

The first advantage of the functional linguistic models is that they are based on the principle of seeking a solid empirical ground for assessing the quality of translation. For example, House (1997) provided a comprehensive analysis of translation assessment, including the following: First, the neo-hermeneutic approach (den Broeck, 1985; Toury, 1985, 1985; Koller, 1987; Paepcke, 1986; Stolz, 1992, as cited in House, 1977), which links the quality of translation to human factors, emphasizing the translator's role in producing quality translation. In neo-hermeneutic models, the evaluation of translation depends on the linguistic and cultural intuitive knowledge and experience of the translator. Secondly, the post-modernist and deconstructionist approaches (Derrida, 1985, 1992; Graham, 1985; deMan, 1986; Benjamin, 1989; Venuti, 1995; Gentzler, 1993, as cited in House, 1977), which view translation from philosophical and sociological stances. The post-structural thinkers such as the Leipzig School of Kade, 1968; Neubert, 2000, as cited in House, 1977), stressed the textual and pragmatic nature of translation. The linguistic textual approach, presented in Newmark's model (1988, 1998), covers componential analysis and case grammar, and the distinction between communicative and semantic translation, in which Newmark (1988) emphasizes that translation is not only scientific but also artistic. Thirdly, House (1997) reviewed some of the linguistic-oriented models which appeared in 1990s (Baker, 1992; Bell, 1991; Hatim & Mason, 1990; Gutt, 1990), to integrate research on sociolinguistics, speech act theory, discourse analysis and pragmatics. Based on reviewing these approaches, House (1977) concluded that these models had the potential of valuable works on translation quality assessment. House (1977) adopted Halliday's terms *ideational*, and *interpersonal* as labels for the referential, and the non-referential functional components so as to develop a multidimensional functional-pragmatic model to evaluate the quality of translation. Moreover, the linguistic-oriented models consider the language in use as communicative events embedded in situations and cultures. For instance, Hatim and Mason (1990) described the relevance of linguistics in general, and the linguistic sub fields in particular, such as register and discourse analysis, pragmatics and semiotic, communicative dimensions of the context inference, and implicature and the cooperative principle. Schreiber (1993, as cited in House, 1977) differentiated between translation and interlingual adaptation while Steiner (1998) applied register analysis to the evaluation of translation. Steiner (1998) considered the register of a text as the functional variety that the text represents, linking its main variables of field, tenor, and mode, with the context of situation and culture. Another advantage is that the functionalists' models also analyzed translation quality assessment in relation to translation equivalence (Catotfrd, 1965), and to the invariance in translation, (Koller, 1979). In this respect, Hymes' (1964, 1974) research on the typology of language functions, which is similar to Jakobson's (1967), and Popper's (1972), identified four functions of the language: expressive, informative, descriptive, and argumentative. Based on these theories, the linguistic functional approaches, which are applied in translation, integrate systematic functional linguistics into the theories of translation quality assessment. Furthermore, the research on pragmatics, was also embedded in TQA. Another strength of the linguistically-based functional approaches is that they include objectives criteria that make the assessment process effective. For example, the TQA models, contain quantitative evaluation scores so that evaluators can create charts to record the scores that fit the description of the text categories. The TQA models also have qualitative tools so that evaluators can show examples from the source text and the target text and write comments to provide a justification for the rating scores. The evaluators can also include a revised model of translation to show the textual and cultural contextual analysis. Hence, the functionalists' models provide a taxonomy of description, analysis, and explanation of the errors that justify the quality of translation. Another advantage is that the functionalists' models are holistic, multidimensional, and objective. Regarding the limitations of these functional models, they can be summarized in four points. The first limitation is the complexity of the analytical categories. The second limitation is lack of intersubjective verifiability of the analyses. The third limitation is limits of translatability. The fourth limitation is that the distinction between types of translation methods that should be implemented while using the functional models are blurred. For example, Kiraly (2005) argued that functional assessment models include difficult tasks of linguistic and pragmatic analysis that make the evaluation of translation quality inconsistent. These models are also expensive since they require recruiting expert evaluators. Many evaluators find them difficult to apply for assessing the quality of translation since the concept of *quality* in such models refer to the totality of characteristics of both source text and target text. Kelly (2005) indicated that it is difficult to determine quality by comparing a set of inherent characteristics with a set of requirements. Reiss (2015) argued that the complexity of the functional model made it difficult to conduct an assessment of each parameter to reach the total quality scoring for the translation. This issue has led to establish criterion-referenced models. In this respect, Williams (2001) argued that in quantitative approaches of assessment, the microtextual analysis hinders the assessment of the content macrostructure of the translation. Therefore, quality assessment of translation should adopt an approach that combines quantitative and

textological dimensions. However, Melis and Hurtado (2001) concluded that the functional models are useful if they are applied to evaluate a limited number of pages; hence they are applicable for assessing small projects of translation.

### **3. Research Method**

This descriptive analytical study was based on a nonlinear design to examine the effectiveness of applying the functional linguistic models used in Translation Quality Assessment (TQA). The nonlinear design helped in conducting an intensive description and analysis of the models of Reiss, Vermeer, Nord, Colina, House, and Schaffner. The corpus data of the present study was collected from the original works of three functional models, namely Nord's (1991, 1997, 2005) didactic model, Colina's (2003, 2008, 2009, 2015) functional-componential approach, House's (1977, 1997, 2015) functional-pragmatic model, to show the relationship between functional linguistics and translation since 1970s, specifically the impact of the linguistic theories of Firth (1957), Catford (1965), Fillmore (1976, 1977), and Halliday (1985) on translation functional approaches.

#### *3.1 Research Questions*

- 1). How effective is applying the linguistic functional approaches in translation quality assessment?
- 2). What are the procedures for applying the linguistic functional approaches in assessing the quality of translation?
- 3). What are the implications of applying translation evaluation to teaching translation at higher education?

#### *3.2 Data Collection Procedures*

The first procedure was describing the principles and criteria employed in each of the TQA model, presented in the original works of House (1977, 1997, 2015), Nord (1991, 1997, 2005), and Colina (2003, 2008, 2009, 2015). The second procedure was examining samples of text analysis that was conducted in these models. The microtextual analysis of the samples was conducted to examine the quantification of quality, as displayed in terms of error counts so as to justify the negative assessment. This descriptive approach helped in examining the relationship between linguistic theories and theories of translation evaluation. The third procedure was based on comparing and contrasting the three models to show their differences and similarities and the degree of their validity and effectiveness. The fourth procedure was presenting the results of the analysis descriptively in charts and graphs. Finally, a questionnaire was distributed among 100 participants, selected randomly, from worldwide higher education institutions to investigate their satisfaction or dissatisfaction regarding the application of these models in translation classes.

#### *3.3 Participants' Characteristics*

The current research selected a random sample to examine the extent of satisfaction or dissatisfaction in applying the TQA in the translation classroom. To ensure the homogeneity of the participants, the sample consisted of 100 participants, selected from higher education institutions, specialized in languages and translation, to respond to the questions of the questionnaire of this study. These participants studied translation and linguistics for four years. Their academic courses included studies on translation quality assessment. They also received training in using the TQA models.

### **4. Data Analysis Results and Discussion**

The analysis of the corpus data of the TQA models of House (1977, 1997, 2015), Nord (1991, 1997, 2005), and Colina's (2003, 2008, 2009, 2015) shed light on the first research question of the current study regarding effectiveness of applying the linguistic functional approaches in assessing the quality of translation. The analyses of the data indicated that linguistically-oriented functional approaches that are currently used at some higher institutions and translation organizations worldwide, are effective in terms of : (a) analyzing the source and the target texts; (b), identifying textual and pragmatic problems inherent in the texts; (c) providing valid criteria to carry out the tasks of evaluation objectively; (d) using quantitative and qualitative tools to measure the quality of the translated texts; (e) and making suggestions to improve translation competences. Moreover, the data results of the questionnaire revealed the mean and standard deviation regarding the participants' satisfaction or dissatisfaction employing the TQA models. Table 1 shows the results.

Table 1. The results of the participants' satisfaction regarding the application of TQA models

Q	No of Responses	Mean	Trend	Std. Deviation	Q	No of Responses	Mean	Trend	Std. Deviation
01	98	3.84	Frequently	1.360	11	100	4.49	Always	.772
02	98	4.36	Always	1.008	12	97	4.04	Frequently	.957
03	96	4.50	Always	.894	13	99	4.45	Always	.872
04	95	4.20	Always	1.068	14	99	4.55	Always	.773
05	98	4.44	Always	.942	15	100	4.36	Always	.905
06	93	4.61	Always	.767	16	99	4.24	Always	.809
07	97	4.13	Frequently	1.115	17	97	4.07	Frequently	1.033
08	99	4.45	Always	.718	18	99	4.02	Frequently	.756
09	97	2.92	Sometimes	1.296	19	97	4.42	Always	.852
10	97	3.33	Sometimes	1.449	20	97	2.99	Sometimes	1.220

Table 1 shows the participants' opinions regarding the application of TQA models in the classrooms. The questionnaire contained 20 questions. The first 10 questions aimed at exploring the participants' frequency use of TQA models in translation classrooms. The second 10 questions aimed at revealing the participants' satisfaction or dissatisfaction about the effectiveness of TQA models in improving translation competences and quality. As displayed in Table 1, the standard deviation of how TQA models were *frequently* used reached between 1.115 and 1.360 while the standard deviation of how TQA models were *sometimes* used reached between 1.296 and 1.449. The standard deviation of how TQA models were *always* used reached between .718 and 1.068. As for the frequency of how TQA models were helpful in improving translation competences and quality, the standard deviation of *frequently* helpful was between .756 and 1.033, and 1.220 for *sometimes* helpful. The standard deviation of how TQA models were *always* helpful was between .772 and .905. Furthermore, answering the second research question of the current study related to the procedures for applying the linguistic functional approaches in assessing the quality of translation, the following is a descriptive analytical report about the research findings:

#### 4.1 House's TQA Model

The results of data analysis indicated that House's (1977, 1997, 2015) TQA model is used in some translation organizations such as the Canadian Translators, Terminologists and Interpreters Council (CTTIC, 2009), which states in its evaluation policy that a translator candidate should display an overall competence by providing translation of two texts and achieving a score of average 70%, as a benchmark. For both translations, every mistake results in deducting 1 mark (for a typographical error) to 10 marks (for a major error of transfer). However, the American Translators Association (ATA, 2015) implements a qualitative method, indicating in its standards that translation should elaborate an understanding of the whole content and purpose of the original text, and that competences should be demonstrated by applying various translation strategies. Data analysis also showed that the main procedure to implement House's TQA model is to conduct a comparison of the original and the translated texts through creating Source Text (ST) and Target Text (TT) profiles to examine, *genre* and *register* and identify *field*, *mode*, and *tenor*. Then, the evaluator prepares the *statement of function* in order to detect matching or mismatching functions between ST and TT, specifying the author's and translator's social role relationship. The second procedure is to employ a tripartite analysis of the two texts, which includes *lexical*, *syntactic*, and *textual* means to identify covertly and overtly erroneous errors. The third procedure is to examine the translation quality which comprises *functional adequacy*, *textual adequacy*, *quality of content*, and *quality of specialized content*. House (1997) used "the traditional dichotomy of the two broad (pre-analytical) functions, which were established to be prevalent in all the theories of functions of language, for choosing and grouping a sample of texts and for labeling the two components of the textual function discovered in the individual text" (p. 36). Thus, House's model provides a comprehensive analysis of the development of research on translation

evaluation. She provided an objective assessment system to evaluate the quality of translation at various levels; i.e., a methodological approach that applies reliable and valid scales. Table 2 describes how to create the text profile according to House's TQA model.

Table 2. Text profiles according to House TQA model

Text Profiles	Field	Tenor	Mode	Genre
ST	Subject Matter	Author's provenance and stance	Medium Written to	Type of text Language Function
	Social Action	Social Role Relationship: Symmetrical/or non-symmetrical	Participation simple or complex monologue	The author's intention
		Social Attitude Formal or non-formal		
TT	Subject Matter	Translator's provenance and Stance	Medium written to	Type of text Language Function
	Social Action	Social Role Relationship Symmetrical/or non-symmetrical	Participation simple or complex monologue	The translator's intention
		Social Attitude Formal or non-formal		
ST and TT Comparison	Match: in both ST and TT the subject matter is	Mismatch: the author of ST is an expert, but the TT translator is Expert or trainee	Match: medium both ST and TT are simple/or complex texts /monologue/	Match: Both ST and TT are technical/ or non-technical texts. Both ST and TT are informative/ interpersonal/ or

Table 2 shows that the process of assessment begins by identifying the purpose of translation, and text type through identifying the contextual variables of *field*, *tenor* and *mode*. House (1979) argued that formal texts are "well-structured, elaborate, logically sequenced, and strongly cohesive while informal texts are marked by various degrees of implicitness." (p. 41). Table 1 also shows that the text *function* of the language is either informative, ideational, or interpersonal. Moreover, another important distinction that House (1997) made was the dichotomy overt *translation* versus *covert translation*. Table 3 illustrates the dimensions of *overt* and *covert* translations in House's TQA.

Table 3. The distinction between overt and covert translation

Level of Language Function	Is strict equivalence the translational goal?	
	Overt Translation	Covert Translation
Primary level function	NO	YES
Secondary level function	YES	N/A
Genre	YES	YES
Register	YES	NO
Language/Text	YES	NO

As displayed in Table 3, in evaluating a translation, it is essential to take into account the fundamental differences between *overt* and *covert* translations. House (2001) argued that *overt* and *covert* translations make qualitatively different demands on translation criticism. The difficulty of evaluating an *overt* translation is generally reduced due to the omission of cultural filtering. House emphasized that *overt* translations are "more straightforward," as the original can be taken over unfiltered," while in evaluating *covert* translations, the translation evaluator must consider the application of a "cultural filter" so as to use a covert and an overt

translation(p. 251). Moreover, a quantitative analysis should be conducted to measure the percentage of overt and covert translations. House employed a tripartite analysis, including *lexical*, *syntactic*, and *textual means*, when comparing the source text and the target text. *Lexical means* are the categories that specify the characteristic features of the ST. The *syntactic means*, are the dominant voice and tense. The *syntactic means* represent the characteristics of scientific writing such as the use of present simple, passive voice, different pronouns, and medical metaphors. *Textual means* are represented in the text through using casual and explanatory sentences, subordinators, punctuations, and cohesive devices. House (1997) argued that the *textual means* include three main textual aspects: theme-dynamics, clausal linkage and iconic linkage (p. 44). While the term theme-dynamics refers to word order as the means of achieving a theme distribution, iconic linkage is a structural parallelism that occurs when two or more sentences cohere at the surface level. Using the results of the linguistic analysis, the overt errors can be identified. House listed the overt errors into five categories: *un-translated*, *omission*, *addition*, *slight change of meaning* and *ungrammatical*. Omissions and ungrammatical errors are major mistakes while additions and slight changes in meaning are minor errors. House (1997) pointed out that translators tend to make overtly erroneous errors when they change the denotative meaning through some actions such as addition, omission, substitution, or wrong selections, or through violating the target language norm usage. Classifying the overt errors can help translators improve their translations. Table4 displays an example the analysis of vocabulary and grammar usage in the ST and TT.

Table 4. Quantitative text analysis in House's TQA model

ST			TT	Overt	Covert
Vocabulary	Technical words	Number of words	Number of words	Overt Translation	Number of words
	Non- technical words			Overt Translation	None
Grammar	Tense	Present	Present	Overt Translation	None
	Voice	Passive Active	Active	Overt Translation	None
	Nominalization			Overt Translation	None
	Modal			Overt Translation	None
	Article (effective)		Not Parallel Structures	Overt Translation	None-

Table 4 shows how to analyze the text vocabulary and grammar quantitatively to include the number of technical or non-technical words, and grammar usage in terms of tense, voice, nominalizations, modal verbs, and articles, etc. The data content analysis should also reveal the overt errors as displayed in Table 5.

Table 5. Example of displaying over errors when applying House's TQA model

A Quantitative Report on Overt Errors	
Examples	
Untranslated	29%
Addition	9 %
Omission	23%
Ungrammatical	18%
Slight change of meaning	16%

Table 5 shows the categories of errors, according to House TQA model. The overt errors can be displayed statistically, then a detailed reports should be written on each category according to the analysis of the target text. These errors affect the adequacy of overt translation, and creating charts to classify the errors in the translated texts facilitates the assessment process. Using the tabulated percentage charts, the quantitative report of the quality assessment of the translation can also be integrated into a qualitatively chart, as shown in Table 6.

Table 6. Example on how to display the quality report according to House's TQA model

Translation Quality Report	
Functional Adequacy	not adequate due to overt errors
Quality of Content	deficient due to omission and addition
Textual Adequacy	not adequate due to violation of TL norms
Quality of Specialized Content	only --- % due to covert translation of terms

Table 6 shows four types of translation quality that reveal how the translation of the text may need to be improved. The functional adequacy is affected by the overt errors detected in the translation. The quality of content becomes deficient because of the irrelevant omissions and additions that a translator may make. The textual adequacy may also be affected due to violation of the rules of the target language. In addition, the quality of specialized content may also be impacted negatively when the percentage of the translation of words is low. According to House's TQA model (1977), a translation is considered to be at the highest level when it achieves functional adequacy, textual adequacy, quality of content, and quality of specialized content. House's TQA model highlights four levels of translation quality assessment: functional adequacy when the translation achieves its purpose and would attain the aimed influence on the reader. The second level is quality of content when the translation meets the requirements of representing the information or the arguments in the source text. The third level is textual adequacy when the translation is readable, and typographically and idiomatically correct. The fourth level is quality of specialized content when the translator applies terminology from sources that are relevant, and uses a specialized terminology that is authoritative to convey the SL concepts fully. Finally, the assessment report should include the *evaluator's comments* and *statement of quality* to clarify the areas that need to be modified in the target text. The *statement of quality* is based on a comparison of ST and TT along the situational parameters to show that there may be mismatches on all the parameters of language use. For example, the analysis of TT may show that while the interpersonal components are implicitly present, the ideational component is not strengthened because some of the informational components are not transmitted straightforwardly. The TT also may appear to be less geared to elicit the addressees' participation because the translation lacks theme-dynamics, clausal linkage, and iconic linkage. A translation model that can assist in guiding the process of development, should also be included in the assessment report. According to Melis and Albir (2001), and Colina (2009), House's TQA model is based on categorization, classification, and taxonomization to allow analysis of meaning, equivalence, text purpose and discourse register which can be examined in the contexts of structural and functional linguistics, semantics, pragmatics, sociolinguistics and stylistics, and can be implemented using flexible criteria and standards. As such, House's TQA model incorporates quantitative dimensions (weightings and percentages), and qualitative dimensions (evaluators' commentaries and recommendations) to guide translators to achieve the possible highest level of quality.

#### 4.2 Nord's Didactic Model

Nord's (1997) model is based on source-text analysis to identify the source text features including extratextual and intratextual features. Nord believed that the view of the quality of translation is linked to functional adequacy, which takes into account the appropriateness of the translated text so as to achieve the communicative purpose in regard to the process of translational action. Nord's translation-oriented text analysis is designed to be applicable in translation classes, and it focuses primarily on the development of



transfer competence. It provides criteria for the selection of text material for translation classes, the classification of translation problems and procedures, the observing of learning progress, and the evaluation of translations. Nord (2001) argued that for establishing the function of the source text, the translator needs to “isolate the source-text elements which have to be preserved or adapted in translation” (p. 21). Nord (2005) also claimed that her model is valid for translation in both directions, i.e. for source and target languages. Nord (2001) stressed three aspects of functional approaches that are important for translation training. These three aspects include the translation brief or translation instructions, source text analysis, and the classification of translation problems. The translation brief includes information about the intended text functions, the target text addressees, the expected time and place of text reception, the medium (speech or writing) by which the text is transferred, and the motive for writing the ST and translating it. The information provided by the translation brief is necessary because it allows the translator to infer the requirements of the translation. The ST analysis, which includes the pragmatic analysis of the communicative situation, allows the translator to decide the functional requirements of the translation strategy. According to Nord (1997), translation is the production of a functional target text, which can maintain a relationship with the source text, based on specified functions. Translation should allow a communicative act that can be attained after overcoming linguistic and cultural barriers. Thus, translation is a three phase task: decoding (comprehension phase); transfer (transcoding); and synthesis (recoding). Nord (1997) argued that the intermediate phase for transfer operations, which is not present in the two-phase model and is inserted between the comprehension phase and the reconstruction phase in the three-phase model, is important for text analysis. She also believed that equivalence is a functional invariance, and that translation should be based on text analysis. Nord’s model can be applied by establishing the function of the source text when the translator compares it with the prospective cultural function of the target text. This task relies on identifying and isolating the source-text elements which have to be preserved or adapted in target text. The illustration of this method is explained in a column chart, as shown in Figure 1.

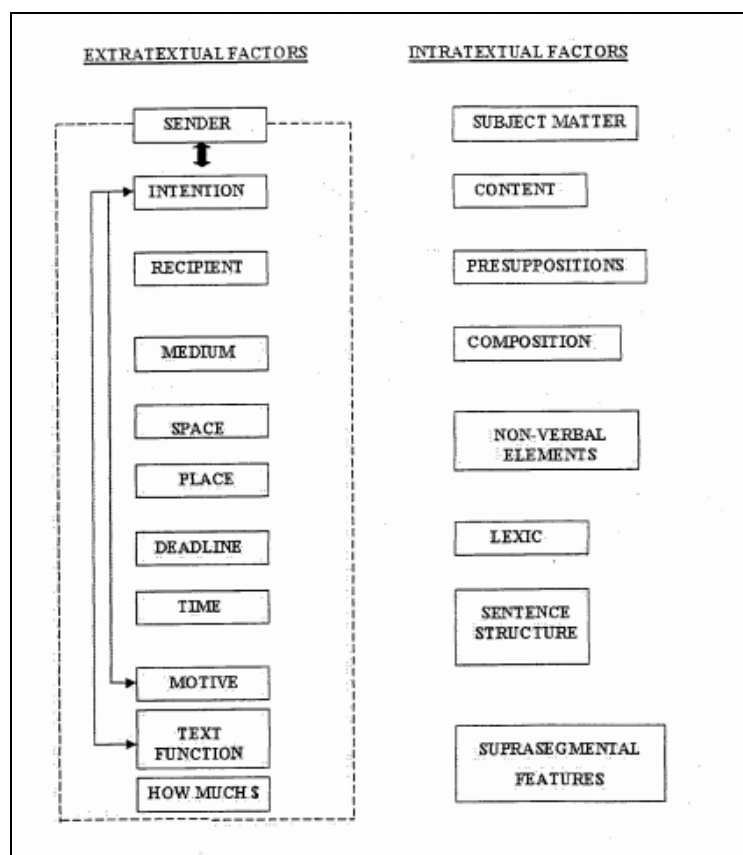


Figure 1. Nord’s columns of identifying the elements of the source and target texts

As shown in Figure 1, various text-analysis categories are applied to the source, the target, and the moment of transfer. This text analysis helps in identifying the changes that need to be made during the process of translation. The comparison between the profiles of the source and target texts helps in showing what elements can be kept invariant and what has to be modified according to the purpose of the translation. Nord categorized translation problems to encompass pedagogical, pragmatic, cultural, linguistic, or text-specific aspects. Translators begin to analyze the source text profile, then identify the translation-relevant elements and features, which can be determined by the translation brief. For example, if the initiator requests a target text that follows the target culture genre, the source text analysis should focus only on the elements that should be preserved or adapted to the target culture conventions. In this model, translation problems can be revealed by comparing the source text with the target text requirements. According to Nord (2009), a translation error is any violation of the standards stipulated in the translation brief in regard to specific functional aspects. Figure 2 shows the parameters that determine the degree of difficulty of the translation task.

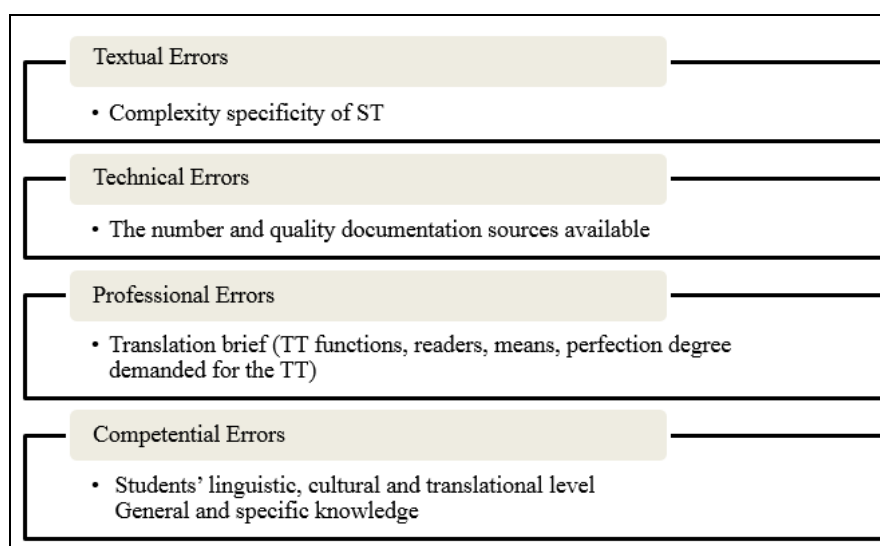


Figure 2. Factors determining errors in Nord's model

Figure 2 shows the difficulties as revealed by four parameters, namely, textual, technical, professional, and competential errors. In Nord's model, translation problems are recorded with the suitable functional solution in the transfer column. Nord's list of intratextual factors includes the subject matter, content, presuppositions, participants (real-world factors of the communicative situation), composition, non-verbal elements (illustrations, italics), lexic (register, specific terminology), and sentence structure. According to this list, it is important to establish a functional hierarchy to determine the intended function of translation (documentary or instrumental). This list also helps in achieving the following: (a) identifying the elements that need to be adapted to the target text addressee's situation; (b) deciding the translation style, whether source text-oriented or target-text oriented; (c) dealing with problems revealed in the text at linguistic level after conducting the source text analysis; and (d) selecting the appropriate solutions and strategies to solve the translation problems according to the purpose of translation. She provided a three-column chart that incorporated these levels to be used for conducting text analysis in order to identify the translation problems. Hence, Nord links the translation assessment with the translation purpose, which shows influence from the Skopos theory (Vermeer, 1978, 1989, 1996; Reiss & Vermeer, 1984). Moreover, Nord proposed a model of the translation process that highlights the relationship between the compatibility translation test and quality control. Figure 3 displays this relationship.

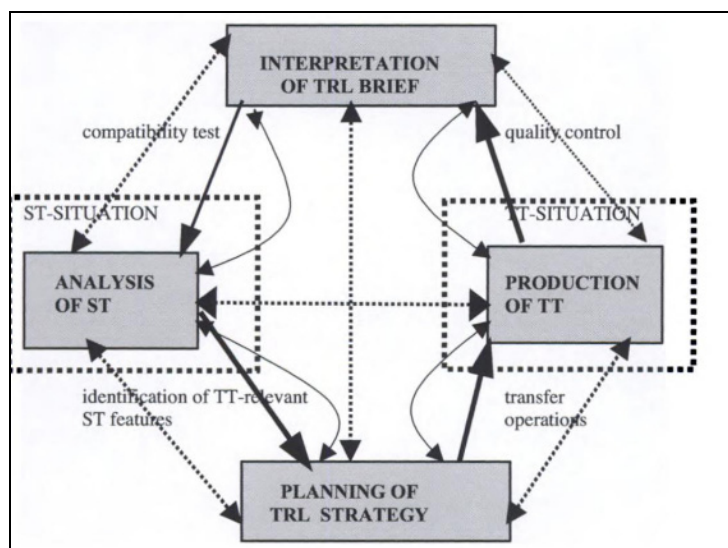


Figure 3. Nord translation text analysis

As displayed in Figure 3, the source text analysis should focus only on the elements that should be preserved or adjusted to the target text. To create a text profile, Nord provided a checklist, based on the translation brief, through identifying the sender of the text, the producer of the text, the clues that can help in inferring the characteristics of the sender from such situational factors as medium, place, time, mode, and function, and the conclusions that can be drawn in regard to extratextual dimensions and intertextual features. Nord's checklist can be used not only by translators, but also by students in the classroom to guide them while analyzing the text. Nord (1991) explained that her TQA model of text analysis is a *looping model* because she views the translation process as a non-linear process which progresses back and forth from the source text to the target text. According to Nord (1991), the translation process is "a circular, basically recursive process comprising an indefinite number of feedback loops, in which it is possible and even advisable to return to earlier stages of the analysis." (p. 164).

#### 4.3 Colina's Functional-Componential Model

Colina's (2003) TQA model is also based on a textual approach to translation evaluation, which views the text as whole units, consisting of smaller linguistic sub-units. Colina (2015) pointed out that the translation process "is guided by extra-linguistic factors, more specifically by the function of the translation." (p. 43) According to Colina (2008, 2009, 2015), the term *function* refers to the purpose that the text attempts to achieve. Colina's functional componential approach to evaluation process aims at examining the major aspects of translation quality in the form of separate components. These components include: target language; functional and textual adequacy; non-specialized content; and specialized content and terminology. Each component is introduced by a descriptive statement. For example, the component of functional and textual adequacy reflects the organizational and linguistic conventions that readers use to identify text types and genres. According to Colina, the TQA model is an evaluation tool that reflects particular contextual situations, and specific objects and purposes. Evaluation textual methods depend on conducting an analysis of the textual and situational features of the source and target texts, i.e., performing a comparison of the two texts and reporting the resulting assessment of their match (Colina, 2015). In this evaluation process, a parallel text analysis consists of examining a corpus of target-language texts independently. A text should have texture, which is the textual features that make the text coherent and cohesive. Coherence refers to the semantic and pragmatic relations that give the text unity, meaning, and purpose. Cohesion creates the links between a sequence of distinct sentences through cohesive markers such as pronouns, conjunctions, lexical repetition, or synonyms. Therefore, in Colina's approach, it is necessary to improve the reading abilities of translators and students. Figure 4 shows the relationship between reading and translation in Colina's TQA mode (Colina, 2015, p. 171).

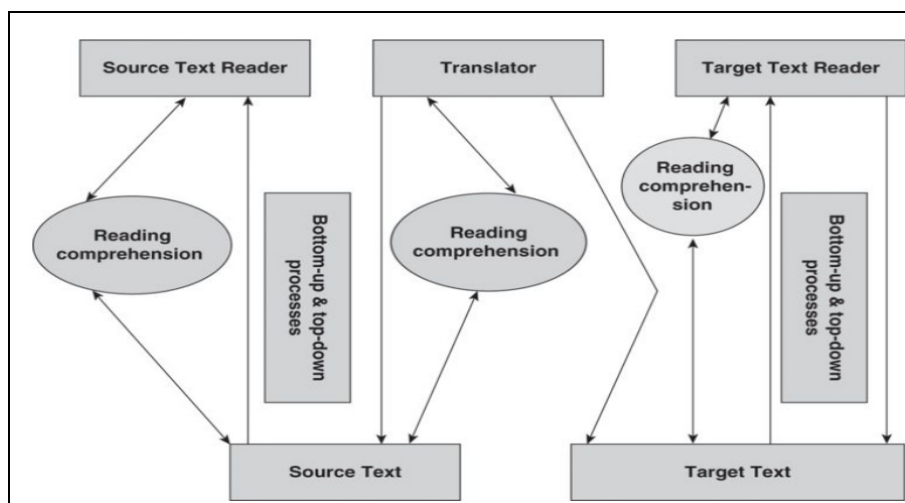


Figure 4. Reading and translation in Colina's model

As displayed in Figure 4, reading is an interactive process with the translation process. Translators should be able to decode variation in textual comprehension. This interaction requires not only linguistic knowledge but also sociocultural awareness to write the translation brief. Influenced by Kussmaul (1995), Colina (2015) illustrates the use of top-down and bottom-up reading processing. Reading processing helps in identifying the language variation and the translator and the register selection while involved in the translation process. Figure 5 shows how sociocultural knowledge is important for textual analysis in Colina's model.

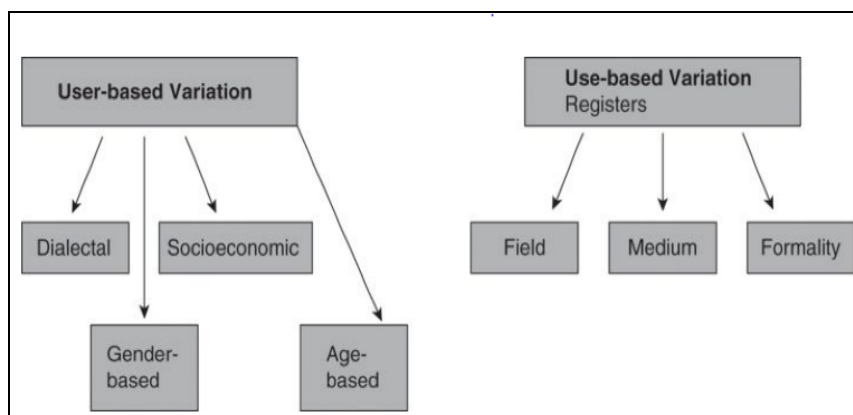


Figure 5. Register selection in translation according to Colina (2015, p. 208)

Figure 5 shows user-based variations which embrace dialectal, socioeconomic, gender, and age aspects. Figure 5 also shows how use-based variation registers reflect field, medium, and formality. Colina (2008, 2015) also provided a list of translation competences, which include linguistic proficiency, and transfer, interlingual strategies. Furthermore, Colina's model is founded on criterion-referenced evaluation. In this model, norm-referenced evaluation assesses the quality of the translated text comparing it with a norm, i.e., average or excellent, or by comparing it with other translations. Using scoring sheets, the evaluator can record the scores as seen in Figure 6.

SCORING WORKSHEET					
Component: Target Language			Component: Functional and Textual Adequacy		
Category #	Value	Score	Category #	Value	Score
1.a	5		2.a	5	
1.b	15		2.b	10	
1.c	25		2.c	20	
1.d	30		2.d	25	
Component: Non-Specialized Content			Component: Specialized Content and Terminology		
Category #	Value	Score	Category #	Value	Score
3.a	5		4.a	5	
3.b	10		4.b	10	
3.c	20		4.c	15	
3.d	25		4.d	20	

Figure 6. Customizing the scoring worksheet (Colina, 2015, p. 258)

As displayed in Figure 6, a category of the componential model is evaluated using value points. The overall score represents the quality of translation and how translation achieves its purpose. Thus, Colina linked her model to Skopos's theory. Colina's TQA involves three steps. The first step is setting the criteria. The second step is selecting relevant evidence, i.e. indicators for making a valid judgment against the criteria. The third step is making a judgment about the degree to which the criteria have met a corresponding performance level. Colina's model relies on creating a text descriptive profile, using a numerical score, which is described according to rating criteria. In this componential rating, each skill is graded separately and the final mark is obtained from the weighted average. Table 7 shows the rating criteria.

Table 7. The rating criteria in Colina's model

Rating Score	Target Text
5	TT reveals careful consideration of brief and very appropriate translation solutions.
3	TT reveals consideration of brief and acceptable translation solutions.
1	TT reveals no consideration of brief and poor or inconsistent translation solutions.

Table 7 shows that the rating score of 5 represents the highest level of the translated text while the rating score of 3 represents the average level of the translated text. The rating score of 1 represents the lowest level of the translated text. Colina (2003) did not describe explicitly the rating scores of 2 and 4. Colina also provided a scale for evaluating translation competence. Table 8 displays this scale.

Table 8. Colina's scale for evaluating translation competence

Item	Component	Number of Categories	Maximum Scores
I	Meaning (adequacy)	4	30 Points
II	Target Language Textual Aspects	4	30 Points
III	Vocabulary (, specialized knowledge, research)	3	15 Points
IV	Functional and textual equivalence	3	15 Points
V	Revision Process	2	10 Points

As displayed in Table 8, the scale of evaluating translation competence includes 30 points for adequacy, textual aspects, and 15 points for specialized vocabulary, and functional textual equivalence. The revision process carries 10 points in this scale. Adopting this componential-functionalist approach, Colina (2015) was also influenced by Wiggins' theory of educative assessment (1998), and Biggs and Tang's theory of constructive alignment perspective as her model includes formative and summative evaluation.

Comparing these three functional linguistic models, data analysis showed their similarities and differences. Table 9 displays the results of this comparison through a suggested matrix that can be used as a guide on how to implement the TQA models.

Table 9. A suggested matrix to apply TQA models

TQA Model	Rationale	Procedures	Linguistic Theory	Textual Analysis Procedures	Assessment Criteria
House Functional-pragmatic model	1. Translation should achieve a purposeful function. 2. Quality means achieving a high score of matching SL and TL, and achieving equivalent situational-dimensions	1. Function Statement to specify the purpose of translation. 2. Textual analysis 3. Evaluator's comments and statement of quality	1. Halliday's Systemic-Functional Theory 2. Functional Pragmatics	1. Text profiles: examine, genre and register and identify field, mode, and tenor. 2. Analysis of lexical, syntactic, and textual means to identify intratextual features. 3. Identify <i>overt</i> and <i>covert</i> translation. 4. Identify ST extratextual. 5. Conduct cultural filtering.	<b>Norm-referenced</b> , based on summative evaluation to: 1. Measure four levels of quality: functional adequacy; quality of content, textual adequacy, and quality of specialized content. 2. Use categorization, classification, and taxonomization. 3. Incorporate quantitative dimensions (weightings and percentages), and qualitative dimensions (evaluators' commentaries and recommendations).
Nord Didactic Looping model	1. Translation should achieve a purposeful function. 2. Quality is linked to translation competences. 3. Translation should be linked to training. 4. Translation is a three phase task: decoding, comprehension phase; transfer (transcoding); and synthesis (recoding).	1. Translation Brief to include: a. Information about the intended text functions b. TT addressees c. Time and place of text reception d. Medium (speech/writing). 2. Translation instructions. 3. Analysis of SL text. 4. Classification of translation problems	1. Skopos Theory 2. Theories of Functional Grammar	1. Text Profiles include field, tenor, mode, and genre. 2. Analysis of textual. Technical, and competential errors. 3. Analysis of intratextual factors include 17 levels: subject matter; content; presuppositions (factors of the communicative situation); composition; non-verbal elements (illustrations, italics); lexic (register, specific terminology); suprasegmental (word origin); sentence structure; intention; sender; audience; medium; place; time; motive; function; and effect. 4. Differentiate between <i>instrumental</i> and <i>documentary</i> translation based on source-culture receivers.	Criterion-referenced, based on formative and summative evaluation to: 1. Measure quality in relation to compatibility. 2. Measure specific competences. 3. Provide selection of text material for translation classes training prior to the evaluation process. 4. Provide classifications of translation problems. 5. Provide lists of procedures and strategies to solve the problems. 6. Include formative evaluation to observe learning progression, and the process of evaluation. 7. Quantitative scale is not clear.
Colina functional-componential Model	1. Translation is linked to function. 2. Reading is an interactive process with the translation process. 3. Decoding variation in textual comprehension affects the quality of translation. 4. Sociocultural awareness affects quality of translation	1. Translation Brief includes: dialectal, socioeconomic, gender, age, field, medium, and formality. 2. Descriptive statement for each analysis component	1. Skopos Theory 2. Theories of Functional linguistics 3. Schema Theory 4. Reading theories 5. Theories of Evaluation	1. Text profiles depend on the translation brief. 2. Text analysis includes the following components: target language; functional and textual adequacy; non-specialized content; and specialized content and terminology. 3. A text should have texture, which is the textual features that make the text coherent and cohesive. 4. Parallel-text analysis consists of examining a corpus of target-language texts independently. 5. Differentiate between <i>literal</i> translation and <i>gist</i> translation based on text complexity, and culture.	Criterion-referenced, based on formative and summative evaluation. 1. Quality is assessed in relation to pre-requisite competences 2. Scale of evaluating translation competence is quantitative which includes 30 points for adequacy, textual aspects, and 15 points for specialized vocabulary, and functional textual equivalence. 3. Rating scores are explained qualitatively. 4. Criterion is linked to training in the classroom. 5. Criteria is based on customizing scoring worksheets.

Table 9 shows a matrix, based on a comparison to pinpoint how the three models are similar or different in the application of the criteria, which are used according to text type occasions where the target text function differs from the source text function. This matrix reveals that functional linguistic models of translation assessment are based on describing the text constructions so that translators can solve the translation problems. Table 9 illustrates how translation-oriented text analysis should explain the linguistic structures while integrating all the concepts of translation such as fidelity, accuracy, and adequacy. Such an approach can also help translators solve the interlingual problems of the translation process. It is also important to understand that the functional linguistic approach to translation evaluation is different from the equivalence-based critique. House model is closely linked to Halliday's theory and theories of pragmatics. Nord's model is linked to functional grammar and Skopos theory. Colina's model is linked to theories of evaluation. Nord distinguished *instrumental* from *documentary* translation based on how the source text addresses the source-culture receivers. House introduced the terms *overt* and *covert* translations to illustrate the relationship between translation and the functions of the language. *Overt* and *covert* translations are the outcomes of different types of re-contextualized situations. Colina used *literal* and *gits* translation to differentiate between simple and complex text. Table 9 also shows that House did not provide clearly the criteria for evaluating a translation based on its purpose. While evaluation is crucial to translation quality, however, standards of quality do not show a strong connection between the translation process and the criteria of evaluation. Providing relevant standards is necessary to carry out the evaluation tasks.

In harmony with the present research findings, previous studies (Anari & Ghaffarof, 2013; Banta, Palomba, & Kinzie, 2014; Brione, 2007; Chengfang, 2015; Doyle, 2003; Drugan, 2013; Gentzler, 2001; Gouadec, 2010; Hewson, & Martin, 1991; Honig, 1997; House, 1978; Khotaba, & Tarawneh, 2015; Lauscher, 2000; Manfredi, 2012; Martinez-Melis & Hurtado, 2001; Melis & Albir, 2001; Melis & Hurtado, 2001; O'Brien, 2012; Pym, 2003; Reiss, 2015; Rothe-Neves, 2002; Schwieter & Ferreira, 2014; Steiner, 1998; Waugh & Gronlund, 2012; Williams, 2004, 2009) indicated the effectiveness of applying linguistic functional approaches in assessing the quality of translation. Moreover, the present study's findings are parallel with those of numerous previous studies. For example, Angelelli (2009), Beverly (2000), Beeby (2000), Bachman (2001), and Neubert, (2000) emphasized the importance of developing translation competence in the functionalist modes. Furthermore, Bachman's (2001), Martin and White's (2005) views were in harmony with Colina's (2002, 2015) perspective of linking translation skills to second language learning and that developing language tests was necessary for improving the translators' skills and competence. Additionally, a considerable amount of research emphasized the significance of evaluation theories in quality assessment, an approach adopted by Colina (2015), including, Biggs and Tang (2007), House (1978); Reeve and Paperboy, (2007); Ross, Ellipse, and Freeman (2004), Stufflebeam and Coryn (2014), and Wiggins (1999). Therefore, linking evaluation to classroom assessment is necessary for implementing, and improving assessment in higher education (Angelo, & Cross, 1993; Banta, Palomba, & Kinzie, 2014; Broadfoot, 2005; Brookhart, 2013; Diamond, 1997; Earl, 2012; Guskey, 2001; Huba & Freed, 2000; Johnson & Cox, 2009; Lorna, 2003; McDonald & Boud, 2003; Moskal, 2000; Moskal & Leydens, 2000; Mueller, 2005; Nieweg, 2004; Popham, 2004, 2013; Smyth, 2004; Stiggins, 2004; Taras, 2002; Tomlinson & Moon, 2013; Waugh & Gronlund, 2012). Educational assessment is an integral part of any organization or institution, and it is needed for maintaining and expanding relevance, effectiveness, and productivity (Diamond, 1997; Waugh & Gronlund, 2012). Research on assessment practices (McDonald & Boud, 2003; Maier, 2007; Mueller, 2005; Popham, 2004, 2013; Smyth, 2004; Stiggins, 2004; Taras, 2002; Waddington, 2001) highlighted some important issues that affect the application of valid assessment in the classroom, which include: (a) assessment should not just be used as a tool for assigning grades or comparing students; (b) teachers need to use a more constructive approach to assessment than a standardized test in translation because standardized tests, which are developed based on a behavioral theory of learning, hinder students' natural cognitive abilities of translation; (c) traditional assessments which depend merely on knowledge-cramming, harm students' learning; therefore, authentic assessments such as classroom assessment techniques, continuous assessment, and self-assessment allow translation students to demonstrate achievements more frequently by qualitative rather than quantitative means; (d) students need to reflect on their own learning to improve the quality of their work; (e) authentic assessment allows students to think critically and creatively. Moreover, Guskey (2001), Corcoran, Dersheimer, and Tichenor (2004) argued that while norm-referenced measurement promotes competition and surface learning, criterion-referenced measurement depends on demonstrated mastery of learning objectives and not on students' performance as related to other students in the classroom. Such studies show that the bottom line is that classroom-based assessment that is grounded in theories of learning, linguistics, translation, and cognition, are effective, and that a quality assessment program can help students become competent translators, capable of using their cognitive abilities for conducting textual analysis.



## 5. Implications and Recommendations

Translation-oriented text analysis is designed to be applicable in translation classes, and focuses primarily on the importance of understanding functional linguistics in the development of transfer competence. Text analysis provides criteria for the selection of text material for translation classes, the classification of translation problems and procedures, the observing students' learning progress, and the evaluation of translations. Based on this type of analysis, the TQA models were proposed to provide a reliable foundation for each and every decision which the translator has to make in a particular translation process. The TQA models highlight three aspects of functional approaches that are of importance in translation training: the translation brief or translation instructions, source text analysis, and target text analysis, and the classification of translation problems. For example, the information provided by the translation brief in Nord's TQA model allows the translator to infer the requirements of the translation. The target text analysis that includes a pragmatic analysis of the communicative situation allows the translator to decide the functional requirements of the translation strategy. Therefore, the present study focused on investigating the effectiveness of applying linguistic-based functional approaches in assessing the quality of translation. Based on the research findings of this study, the research made the following recommendations: The first recommendation is to integrate the TQA models into the translation curriculum. Linking assessment practices with the curriculum is necessary for motivating students through using *context evaluation* to identify, and diagnose the translation problems. For example, House's TQA model can be applied in assessing professional and students' translations. The advantage of the TQA models stem from being multidimensional as it incorporates functional and contrastive linguistic, contemporary interdisciplinary research on intercultural communication, corpus and psycho- and neuro-linguistic studies (Colina, 2009). The TQA models are also based on categorization, classification, and taxonomization to allow analysis of meaning, equivalence, text purpose and discourse register which can be examined in the contexts of structural and functional linguistics, semantics, pragmatics, sociolinguistics and stylistics, and can be implemented using flexible criteria and standards (Melis & Albir, 2001). The TQA models integrate quantitative and qualitative dimensions of translation evaluation to guide translators to achieve the possible highest level of quality. Such advantages can motivate teachers to rethink the current assessment approaches used in the classroom, which mainly depend on midterm and final exams, and adopt the TQA models for assessing students' translations. The current translation assessment tools that are used at higher education do not offer adequate guidance for students to refine their translation skills. Creating profiles for the source and target texts should depend on a comparison between the original and translated texts to assist students to select the proper translation strategies. Hence, the second recommendation is to use the TQA models in assessing the translation works published by the centers and organization affiliated to higher education. The TQA models are multidimensional, which aim at measuring the degree of efficiency of the translated text in regard to its lexical, syntactic, textual, and pragmatic functions. The TQA models also examine four types of translation quality; including functional adequacy; quality of content, textual adequacy, and quality of specialized content, based on linguistic and pragmatic functional analysis to detect the degree of matching between the original text and the translated one. Professional translators can implement these models as effective tools for evaluation. The third recommendation is that teachers can use the researcher's TQA matrix, presented in this research study for training students to link their translation to quality assessment. Since the TQA matrix is based on comparing the main concepts of the TQA models of House (1977, 1997, 2015), Nord (1991, 1997, 2005), and Colina (2008, 2009, 2015), providing students with such a matrix prior to the translation process can help them understand not only the concept of translation, but also the requirements of translation quality. In this respect, research (Angelelli, 2009; Brookhart 2013; Colina, 2003; Hague, Melby, & Zheng, 2011; Karimnia & Mahjubi, 2013; Moskal, & Leydens, 2000; Tomlinson & Moon, 2013) concluded that assessment tools should not only measure students' levels, but also recognize their progress and guide them to produce a high quality product.

## 6. Conclusion

This descriptive analytical study aimed at exploring the effectiveness of functional linguistic approaches in assessing the quality of translation. The TQA models of House (1977, 1997, 2015), Nord (1991, 1997, 2005), and Colina (2003, 2008, 2009, 2015) were thoroughly analyzed. The present study also contained an analysis of Reiss' (1971; 2000) objective- relevant criteria, and Schaffner's (2011), text-linguistic approach. Research on the concept of equivalence was also examined methodically. The findings of this study emphasized the importance of employing linguistically-based functional assessment approaches since they help professional and trainee translators understand the relationship between translation quality assessment and textual analysis. Using corpus-based data, this research provided a comprehensive report about the strengths and limitations of the TQA models which highlighted the application of quality assessment as an integral component of the translation



process. It is evident from the present study that the assessment operations assist translators to identify their errors and improve the quality of translation. The analysis results, presented in this study, indicated the importance of the functional linguistic models not only in translation organizations and publishing houses, but also in the translation classroom. The discussions and recommendations of this research include a list of requirements of quality to be reviewed prior to the process of translation so as to achieve adequate and efficient translation, which is the predominant purpose of TQA models. This study also includes a matrix that explains the rationale and the criteria used in TQA models. This matrix is helpful for teachers to use in the classrooms as a training tool for formative and summative evaluation of students' translations. The matrix can also guide other researchers to implement the TQA models in assessing the quality of translation, thus, enriching the field of translation evaluation. As such, the current research is a contribution in the area of translation criticism and functional linguistics that can guide the process of developing the studies on translation evaluation and criticism at higher education since it provides suggestions to integrate functional and contrastive linguistic theories into theories of translation, and theories of evaluation. The TQA models can also be incorporated into educative assessment in the translation classroom. This study can also stimulate more investigation into the issue of translation quality assessment, especially for organizations that are affiliated with higher education and are interested in providing translation training services.

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