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HANOI UNIVERSITY OF FOREIGN STUDIES
ENGLISH DEPARTMENT

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The whole course runs for 30 class hours
INTRODUCTION

When studying interpreting and translation (I/T) at University, students often meet with a lot of difficulties such as how to remember what has been said, how to express an idea clearly and quickly in the target language, how translate from the source language (SL) into the target language (TL) and so on. In order to help students become better interpreters and translators and enjoy the subject, the theory of interpreting and translation is introduced.

It is important for prospective interpreters/translators to understand the process of I/T, to identify the problems in doing I/T and then to find efficient and feasible solutions. These issues are also the main content of this short course. It is hoped that participants will find the course practical, useful and enjoyable.

AIM AND OBJECTIVES OF THE TRAINING COURSE

By the end of the course, participants will be able to:

- know their role as interpreters/translators.
- use I/T techniques and skills.
- have increased self-awareness and confidence.
- understand the ethics of the profession of I/T.
- recognize non-verbal communication.
- understand cultural concerns in I/T.
- solve problem situations.
- use specialized terminology in some areas.
- assess and evaluate I/T.
As can be seen from the Content page, the first three Sessions focus on translation and the last three Sessions are about interpreting. There is a small part about the ways to assess I/T at the end of the course.

Teaching & Learning methods
Classroom lectures, interpreting/translation activities and self-study.

Assessment
Students are required to take a written test based on the content of this program.

- Test: 80%
- Attendance: 20%

Recommended Reading:
1. I/T Handouts of Auckland Institute of Technology (given by Dr. Sabine Fenton).
1.1 WHAT IS TRANSLATION?
Translation is rendering a written text into another language in the way that the author intended the text.

Translators are concerned with the written word. They render written texts from one language into another. Translators are required to undertake assignments, which range from simple items, such as birth certificates and driving licenses, to more complex written material, such as articles in specialized professional journals, business contracts and legal documents.

1.2 WHY IS TRANSLATION?
Even with the most up-to-date and sophisticated communication systems, we can never know how many languages man uses today in the world, let alone how many languages man has used during the course of his development. Some sources say there are some two or three thousand languages being used in the world, but some others say the number may be as large as eight thousand. What a habit man has, that of speaking different tongues! And thus he offers himself difficulties and obstacles.

Since communication within only one speech community is not enough, certainly there has a great number of times arisen a situation in which some individuals are unable to understand the words or expressions of some others. This phenomenon creates a barrier to understanding whenever man tries to communicate across a great distance of space or across a great interval of time. Something has to be done to overcome this restriction. One way to cope with the restriction is for individuals to know the foreign language. But this is not the final solution because apparently no individual in the world can know all the languages in use. The best polyglot so far knows only about twenty-five languages, and still people want to read what other people write and what other people say. Translation and interpreting may be considered as the most universally accepted solution for surmounting the obstacle. And thus there is a need for professional translators and interpreters.
1.3 HISTORY OF TRANSLATION

Translation has always been done by somebody for somebody. The first trace of translation dates from 3000 B.C., during the Egyptian Old Kingdom, the area of the First Cataract, Elephantine, where inscriptions in two languages have been found. It became a significant factor in the West in 300 BC Luther's Bible translation in 1522 laid the foundations of modern German. In the 19th century translation was mainly a one-way means of communication between prominent men of letters and, to a lesser degree, philosophers and scientists and their educated readers abroad, whilst trade was conducted in the language of the dominant nation, and diplomacy, previously in Latin, was in French.

The 20th century has been called the “age of translation” to which one may add “and interpreting”. International agreements between states, between state, public and private organizations are now translated for all interested parties, whether or not the signatories understand each other's language. The setting up of a new international body, the constitution of an independent state, the formation of a multinational company, gives translation enhanced importance. The exponential increase in technology (patents, specifications, documentation), the attempt to bring it to developing countries, the simultaneous publication of the same book in various languages, the increase in world communication, has correspondingly increased requirements. That the very survival of such bodies as the United Nations is crucially dependent on interpreting and translation can be taken as a good example of the importance of translation and interpreting.
A text is pulled in ten different directions, as follows:

1. The individual style or idiolect of the SL author. When should it be (a) preserved, (b) normalized?
2. The conventional grammatical and lexical usage of this type of text, depending on the topic and the situation.
3. Content items referring specifically to the SL, or third language (i.e. not SL or TL) cultures.
4. The typical format of a text in a book, periodical, newspaper, etc., as influenced by tradition at the time.
5. The expectations of the putative readership, bearing in mind their estimated knowledge of the topic and the style of language they use, expressed in terms of the largest common factor, since one should not translate down (or up) to the readership.
6, 7, 8. As for 2, 3 and 4 respectively, but related to the TL.
9. What is being described or reported, ascertained or verified (the referential truth), where possible independently of the SL text and the expectations of the readership.
10. The views and prejudices of the translator, which may be personal and subjective, or may be social and cultural, involving the translator's "group loyalty factor", which may reflect the national, political, ethnic, religious, social class, sex, etc. assumptions of the translator.
1.5 TRANSLATION THEORY
Since the mid 1980s there have been some major translation theories in the world.

- Linguistic Theory of Translation (by Catford, Nida) focuses on finding the equivalence (of meaning, grammar, content...)
- Functionalist Theories of Translation (German school) by K.Reiss, Neubart, Wilses, Vermeer, Skopco) do not pay attention to source texts. Their main aim is what we do with translation.
- Translation as Cultural Events Theory (by Mary Snell Hornby) sets up an integrated approach to translation.
- Manipulation School of Translation (by Susan Bassnett) (School of UK and Holland) points out the power of translation.
- Deconstructionist Theories (by Edwin Gentzler) (USA) forget source texts and regard translation as the second original.
- Culture and Context Theories (by Peter Newmark) focus on culture and context during the translation process. As this is the most suitable for undergraduate students, the theory, which is introduced below, is based on Peter Newmark's.

Translation theory, in a narrow sense, is concerned with the translation method appropriately used for a certain type of text, and it is therefore dependent on a functional theory of language. However, in a wider sense, translation theory is the body of knowledge that we have about translating, extending from general principles to guidelines, suggestions and hints.

What translation theory does is, first, to identify and define a translation problem (no problem - no translation theory!); second, to indicate all the factors that have to be taken into account in solving the problem; third, to list all the possible translation procedures; finally, to recommend the most suitable translation procedure, plus the appropriate translation.

1.6 PRE-TRANSLATION CONSIDERATIONS
1.6.1. READING THE TEXT
You begin the job by reading the original for two purposes: first, to understand what it is about; second, to analyze it from a “translator's” point of view. Understanding the text requires both general and close reading. General reading is to get the gist. Close reading is required, in any challenging text, of the words both out of and in context.

1.6.2. THE INTENTION OF THE TEXT
The intention of the text represents the SL (source language) writer’s attitude to the subject matter. Two texts may describe a battle or a riot or a debate, stating the same facts and figures, but the type of language used and even the grammatical structures (passive voice, impersonal verbs often used to disclaim responsibility) in each case may be evidence of different points of view.

1.6.3. THE INTENTION OF THE TRANSLATOR
Usually, the translator's intention is identical with that of the author of the SL text. But he may be translating an advertisement, a notice, or a set of instructions to show his client how such matters are formulated and written in the source language, rather than how to adapt them in order to persuade or instruct a new TL (target language) readership. And again, he may be translating a manual of instructions for a less educated readership, so that the explanation in his translation may be much larger than the “reproduction”.

1.6.4. TEXT STYLES
Following Nida, we distinguish four types of (literary or non-literary) text
1. Narrative: a dynamic sequence of events, where the emphasis is on the verbs or, for English, “dummy” or “empty” verbs plus verb-nouns or phrasal verbs.
2. Description, which is static, with emphasis on linking verbs, adjectives, adjectival nouns.
3. Discussion, a treatment of ideas, with emphasis on abstract nouns (concepts), verbs of thought, mental activity (“consider”, “argue”, etc.), logical argument and connectives.
4. Dialogue, with emphasis on colloquialisms and phaticisms.

1.6.5. THE READERSHIP
You should characterize the readership of the original and then of the translation, and to decide how much attention you have to pay to the TL readers. You may try to assess the level
of education, the class, age and sex of the readership. The average text for translation tends to be for an educated, middle-class readership in an informal, not colloquial style. All this will help you to decide on the degree of formality, generality (or specificity) and emotional tone you must express when you work on the text.

1.6.6. THE QUALITY OF THE WRITING
The quality of the writing has to be judged in relation to the author’s intention and/or the requirements of the subject matter. If the text is well written, i.e., the right words are in the right places, with a minimum of redundancy, you have to regard every nuance of the author's meaning as having precedence over the reader's response. If a text is well written the syntax will reflect the writer's personality - complex syntax will reflect subtlety, and plain syntax, simplicity. A badly written text will be cluttered with stereotyped phrases; recently fashionable general words and probably poorly structured. In this case, you have to correct the text.
SESSION TWO

2.1 PROCESS OF TRANSLATING

2.1.1 THE APPROACH

There are two approaches to translating:

(1) You start translating sentence by sentence, for say the paragraph or chapter, to get the feel and the feeling tone of the text, and then you deliberately sit back, review the position, and read the rest of the SL text;

(2) You read the whole text two or three times, and find the intention, register, tone, mark the difficult words and passages and start translating only when you have taken your bearings.

Which of the two methods you choose may depend on your temperament, or on whether you trust your intuition (for the first method) or your powers of analysis (for the second). You may think: the first method more suitable for a literary and the second for a technical or an institutional text.

The danger of the first method is that it may leave you with too much revision to do on the early part, and is therefore time wasting. The second method (usually preferable) can be mechanical.

Translating process begins with choosing a method of approach. Secondly, when we are translating, we translate with four levels in mind: the SL text level, the referential level, the cohesive level, and the level of naturalness.

**a. The Textual Level**

You transpose the SL grammar (clauses and groups) into their “ready” TL equivalents and you translate the lexical units into sense that appears immediately appropriate in the context of the sentence.

Your base level when you translate is the text. This is the level of the literal translation of the source language into the target language, the level of the translationese you have to eliminate, but it also acts as corrective of paraphrase and the parer-down of synonyms. So a
part of your mind may be on the text level whilst another is elsewhere. Translation is pre-
eminently the occupation in which you have to be thinking of several things at the same time.

b. The Referential Level
Whether a text is technical or literary or institutional, you have to make up your mind
summarily and continuously, what it is about, what it is in aid of, what the writer's
peculiar slant on it is. For each sentence, when it is not clear, when there is an ambiguity,
when the writing is abstract or figurative, you have to ask yourself: What is actually
happening here? and Why? For what reason, on what purpose? Can you see it in your
mind? Can you visualize it? If you cannot, you have to “supplement” the linguistic level,
the text level with the referential level, the factual level with the necessary additional
information from this level of reality, the facts of the matter.

c. The Cohesive Level
This level follows both the structure and the moods of the text, the structure through the
connective words (conjunctions, enumeration, reiterations, definite article, general words,
referential synonyms, punctuation marks) linking the sentences, usually proceeding from
known information (theme) to new information (rheme).
The second factor in the cohesive level is mood moving between positive and negative,
emotive and neutral. For example, you have to spot the difference between positive and
neutral in, say, “passed away” and “died”, “appreciate” and “evaluate”, etc.

d. The Level of Naturalness
For the vast majority of texts, you have to ensure: (a) that your translation makes sense; (b)
that it reads naturally, that it is written in ordinary language, the common grammar, idioms
and words that meet that kind of situation. Normally, you can only do this by temporarily
disengaging yourself from the SL text, by reading your own translation as though no original
existed. You have to ask yourself: Would you ever see this in The Times, The Economist, in
a textbook...? Is it common usage in that kind of writing? How frequent is it? Check and
crosscheck words and expressions in an up-to-date dictionary. Note any word you are suspicious of.

Combining the Four Levels: You should keep in parallel the four levels. They are distinct from but frequently impinge on and may be in conflict with each other. Your first and last level is the text; then you have to continually bear in mind the level of reality, but you let it filter into the text only when this is necessary to complete or secure the readership’s understanding of the text, and then normally only within informative and vocative texts.

2.1.2 THE UNIT OF TRANSLATION

The unit of translation can vary. It is what you are translating at that moment. It can range from a word, a sentence to a paragraph or whole passage.

However, normally you translate sentence by sentence, running the risk of not paying enough attention to the sentence joins. If the translation of a sentence has no problem, it is based firmly on literal translation. Since the sentence is the basic unit of thought, presenting an object and what it does, is, or is affected by, so the sentence is your common unit of translation. In each sentence, it is the object and what happens to it that you sort out first. Below the sentence, you go to clause, both finite and non-finite. Within the clause, you may take next the two obviously cohesive types of collocations, adjective-plus-noun or verb-plus-object, or the various groups that are less context-bound.
2.2 TRANSLATION METHODS

In this Session, it is important to introduce the two main methods: semantic and communicative translation with their striking features as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SEMANTIC TRANSLATION</th>
<th>COMMUNICATIVE TRANSLATION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The stress lies on:</td>
<td>The stress lies on:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Meaning</td>
<td>- Message</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Author</td>
<td>- Reader</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Thought process</td>
<td>- Utterance</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Mostly inferior to its original. Wide and universal, responds to the author and addresses itself to all readers. Often better its original. “Tailor made” for one category of readership, does one job.

No such right here. Right to:
- Correct or improve logic.
- Replace clumsy with elegant.
- Remove obscurities.
- Eliminate repetitions and tautology.
- Modify and clarify jargon.
- Normalize idiolect
- Correct mistakes of fact.

Secure truth. Secure truth.
Reduce unit of translation. Extend unit of translation.

Text will be:
- more idiosyncratic
- more” sensitive”

Text will be:
- smoother
- more idiomatic
- easier to read

Text categories:
1. Texts of original expression
2. Any important statement
3. Autobiographies
4. Private correspondence
5. Any personal effusion
6. High literature
7. Drama (Shakespeare…)

Text categories:
1. Most non-literary writing
2. Journalism
3. Informative articles and books
4. Textbooks
5. Reports
6. Scientific and technological writing
7. Non-personal correspondence
8. Propaganda
9. Publicity
10. Public notices
11. Popular fiction
12. Religions, philosophical, artistic,
There are other translation methods.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SL emphasis</th>
<th>TL emphasis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Word-for-word</td>
<td>Adaptation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>translation</td>
<td>Free translation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Literal translation</td>
<td>Idiomatic translation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Faithful translation</td>
<td>Communicative translation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2.2.1 Word-for-word translation
This is often demonstrated as interlinear translation, with the TL immediately below the SL words. The SL word order is preserved and the words translated singly by their most common meanings, out of context. Cultural words are translated literally. The main use of word-for-word translation is either to understand the mechanics of the source language or to construe a difficult text as a pre-translation process.

2.2.2 Literal translation
The SL grammatical constructions are converted to their nearest TL equivalents but the lexical words are again translated singly, out of context. As a pre-translation process, this indicates the problems to be solved.

2.2.3 Faithful translation
A faithful translation attempts to reproduce the precise contextual meaning of the original within the constraints of the TL grammatical structures. It “transfer” cultural words and preserves the degree of grammatical and lexical “abnormality” (deviation from SL norms) in the translation. It attempts to be completely faithful to the intentions and the text-realization of the SL writer.

2.2.4 Adaptation
This is the “freest” form of translation. It is used mainly for plays and poetry; the themes, characters, plots are usually preserved, the SL culture converted to the TL culture and the text rewritten.

2.2.5 Free translation
Free translation reproduces the matter without the manner, or the content without the form of the original. Usually it is a paraphrase much longer than the original, a so-called “intralingual translation”, not translation at all.

2.2.6 Idiomatic translation

Idiomatic translation reproduces the “message” of the original but tend to distort nuances of meaning by preferring colloquialism and idioms where there do not exist in the original.

SESSION THREE

3.1 ABOUT LANGUAGE

WORDS
When people get together, they talk to each other. All our talk comes in words, which we use with their unchangeable meanings. In English, we know that the idea of 1 is expressed as "one", in French "un", and in Vietnamese "một".

SYNTAX
Then there are rules, which tell us how to put the words together, their sequence. I can say in English: I have a red book, but the Vietnamese would say: I have a book red. Every language has its own order of words in the sentence and we must respect that. Once we know a language, we can use the rules; we can make new sentences and phrases.

IDIOLECT
All native speakers of a language have a particular way of speaking, which depends on their age, sex, mood, education, etc. This very personal way of speaking is called IDIOLECT. It allows us to recognize a person by his voice, even if we do not see him. There are about 400,000,000 English speakers in the world. Each of them, we might say, speaks a different idiolect of English.

DIALECTS
Regional variations of a language are called DIALECTS. New Zealand and Australian and US English can be considered dialects of English. It is very difficult, however, to define a dialect as such, i.e. to decide when two tongues are to be classified as separate languages
instead of one being a dialect of the other. There is a rule of thumb, which states that two dialects become different languages when they are mutually unintelligible, when people of one language group can no longer understand members of the other group.

SLANG
SLANG WORDS occur frequently in speech. Although we use slang on many occasions, it is rather difficult to define it. The use of slang, or colloquial language, creates new forms by combining existing words, (beat it, rip-off) giving new meaning to words (grass, pig) or introducing completely new words into the language

JARGON
All professions, sciences, trades and occupations, including the less honorable ones have a language, which includes words known only to their members or initiates. These "languages" are call JARGON.

A doctor was being examined as a witness for the defense in an assault case. The police prosecutor asked the doctor: "Did you notice anything special regarding the defendant, when he came to see you on 29 July?" “The defendant?” asked the doctor, “he had a peri-orbital haematoma”, and to the prosecutor's staring look he added, "a black eye" to each his own jargon.

IDIOMS
Finally, in addition to single or compound words that we know in a language, there are phrases called IDIOMS, the meaning of which cannot be inferred by the individual words they consist of. Here are some examples of English idioms: to take for a ride, to give a piece of one’s mind, to bite one's tongue.

3.2 STRATEGIES FOR TRANSLATORS
The following strategies have been suggested by translators, commissioners of translations, and others involved in translating as ways to approach difficulties in translation from English to Vietnamese. This list reflects only the main issues.
STRATEGY 1: How to deal with non-equivalence at word level

It is often the case that no direct equivalents can be found in Vietnamese for English words. It may be that the concept or idea is new to Vietnam, as is the case with "gender", which is in fact a relatively new concept in general, and a difficult one to understand and explain in many languages. Or, it may be that the concept is known or readily understood but there is no specific word in Vietnamese to express it. Another difficulty is that, in addition to their concrete meaning, some words have special connotations that are not conveyed by the Vietnamese word for the same thing. The strategies listed below can be used to handle cases of non-equivalence.

1.1 Translation by a more specific word
In some cases, it may be appropriate or necessary to use a more specific word to translate an English word into Vietnamese. This usually involves choosing among several different words, as there may be many Vietnamese words that correspond to the general category or meaning expressed by the English term. For example, Vietnamese has many words that mean "to carry" with distinctions being made depending on the size and shape of the object; its animacy (e.g. a child as opposed to a box); and how it is carried (e.g. in the hand, in both arms, etc.). Similarly, the English word "rice" can be translated by many different Vietnamese words, depending on whether one is planting it, harvesting it, cooking it, or eating it. In these cases, the English word alone is not enough to determine the appropriate Vietnamese translation, and it is necessary to examine the English context in deciding which Vietnamese word is to be used.

1.2 Translation by a more general word
In other cases, it may be appropriate to use a more general word to translate an English word with no specific Vietnamese equivalent. For instance, English makes distinctions among mopeds, scooters, and motorcycles, the latter having larger wheels and engines than both mopeds and scooters; Vietnamese, on the other hand, refers to all two-wheel, motorized vehicles as "xe máy". Similarly, the English "paw", "foot", and "leg" may all be translated by the Vietnamese "chân", which does not present problems of comprehension in Vietnamese, as it should be clear from the context which of these words is meant. Another example can be
found in a manual on community development, which translates "matrix" by the Vietnamese "ma trận". However, in Vietnamese, "ma trận" has a specific use in mathematics only, and does not have the additional sense of a model or plan according to which something is developed. In this instance, "matrix" is better translated as "bảng", which is a more general word used to classify a written plan or formula.

1.3 Translation by cultural substitution
This strategy involves replacing a culture-specific item or expression with one of different meaning but similar impact in the translated text. Because of their self-described "respect" for the original text, most Vietnamese translators object to this strategy and tend to translate directly, even when it may be highly inappropriate. For example, a farmers' manual that has been translated into Vietnamese suggests the planting of different types of fruit and fuel trees that are not even grown in Vietnam. The original manual, which was developed in other parts of Asia, was not modified at all for the Vietnamese context. Though some translators argue that it is not the responsibility of the translator to change the text in this way, the translator is in fact an important role here. Translators should be encouraged to question the appropriateness of the documents they are translating and suggest changes to make them more culturally appropriate. However, this is not only the burden of the translator, but also of the commissioner of the translation and the editor. In addition, field testing of documents will elicit useful feedback on cultural appropriateness.

1.4 Translation using a loan word plus explanation
There is some resistance to this strategy in Vietnam, as many translators prefer to create new Vietnamese words rather then borrow English words. However, this strategy can be useful when dealing with concepts or ideas that are new to Vietnam, cultural specific items, and proper names of diseases or medicines that are widely known by their English names. For example, HIV and AIDS are two loan words that are frequently used in Vietnamese, as they are referred to by their English names in most of the world. Because these words have been in common use in Vietnam for some time now, they are often used without any accompanying explanation, which is not advisable. Whenever a loan word is used, it is best to offer an explanation either in parentheses or a footnote. Another example is the acronym
for oral dehydration salts, or ORS, which is printed on every package; and hence easily recognized; this is usually written in its English form with an explanation in parentheses as follows: ORS (muối bù mất nước).

1.5 Translation by paraphrase
This strategy can be used when translating an English word or concept that does not exist in Vietnamese, or when the Vietnamese term for it does not include all the meanings conveyed by the English term for the same concept. For example, in the sentence "pregnant women should avoid alcohol," the English word includes all alcoholic beverages in its meaning. The Vietnamese word for alcohol, “rượu”, does not include beer in its definition, so the Vietnamese translation should add the word “beer” to reflect the full meaning of the English. To cite another example, the English term "abuse" and "neglect" signify a whole range of behaviors, some of which are not conveyed by the Vietnamese terms alone. Therefore, the sentence, "Children shall be protected from abuse and neglected” cannot be translated simply as "Trẻ em phải được bảo vệ khỏi sự làm dур và lơ là” as was suggested by one translator. This does not account for their full meanings, which must be unpacked for better understanding. This can be done by paraphrasing, as another translator has attempted in the following translation: "Trẻ em cần được bảo vệ chống lại mọi hình thức bạo lực, gây tổn thương hay xúc phạm, bỏ mặc hoặc sao nhãng trong việc chăm sóc”. Back translated roughly into English, this sentence reads, “Children must be protected from all forms of violence causing harm or offense, and from abandonment and negligence in their case."

1.6 Translation by omission
Though some translators may reject this strategy as too drastic, it is sometimes appropriate to omit words or phrases that are not essential to the meaning or impact of the text. This is especially true for words that would need lengthy explanations, awkward paraphrases, or literal and unnatural translations, which would interrupt the flow of the text and could distract the reader from the overall meaning. For example, the sentence, "Much can be done even without being physically present in the meeting..." is best translated into Vietnamese by, "Nhiều việc có thể làm ngay cả khi không có mặt tại cuộc họp..." which omits the word "physically" in the translation. The difference in meaning between "being physically present"
and "being present" is so minimal that it does not justify translation into Vietnamese, which cannot easily express the slight emphasis implied here by the author, and would not do so by emphasizing the physicality of a person's presence.

**STRATEGY 2: How to deal with idioms and fixed expressions**

Idioms and fixed expressions can be dealt with in ways similar to those discussed above. With idioms, however, there is the added difficulty that the translator may not realize that s/he is dealing with an idiomatic expression, since more idioms may make sense when translated literally.

**2.1 Using an idiom or fixed expression of similar meaning and form**

It is sometimes possible to find a Vietnamese idiom or examples with a similar meaning to an English idiom or expression, and which is expressed in the same way. One example is the idiom "to fight like cats and dogs", which is expressed using the same words in Vietnamese "cãi nhau như chó với mèo"; another is "better late than never", which translates as "thà muốn còn hơn không bao giờ". It is ideal if such a match can be found, but this kind of correspondence is not common, and it is usually necessary to use other strategies in dealing with idioms and fixed expressions.

**2.2 Using an idiom or fixed expression of similar meaning but dissimilar form**

It is also possible, and usually easier to find a Vietnamese idiom with a similar meaning to an English idiom, but which is expressed differently. A good example is the translation for "to carry coals to Newcastle": "chở củi về rừng", which translates as "to carry firewood to the forest". The meaning here is clearly the same in both idioms - to bring something to a place that already has abundance of that thing - but the way in which each language expresses it is bound to the culture of that language. It would be far more cumbersome to translate this idiom word-for-word into Vietnamese with an explanation that Newcastle is a well-known coal-producing city in England (as was suggested by some Vietnamese translators), which would unduly interrupt the flow the text and greatly diminish the idiom's impact. By substituting similar Vietnamese idiom, then, the flow and the impact of the original text are retained in the translation.
2.3 Translation by paraphrase
When Vietnamese equivalents cannot be found, paraphrasing may be the best way to deal with an idiom or fixed expression. A good example can be found in an article on maternal mortality, which includes the sentence, "But before the new estimates replace the old as a way of packaging up the problem, it should be said that a mistake has been made in allowing statistics such as these to slip into easy language." The expression "packaging up the problem" presented problems in translation, as it was misinterpreted to mean "assembling" or "gathering together". However, even if this phrase were clearly understood, it would be difficult to find a correct equivalent in Vietnamese; in fact, it would be difficult to re-state concisely in English. This phrase is best dealt with by paraphrasing, which in English should read something like, “summing up the problem by referring to it simply as a number, which does not reflect its true magnitude or impact”. The expression “to slip into easy usage" is problematic for the same reasons, and is also best dealt with by paraphrasing, as a direct translation into Vietnamese would be nonsensical.

2.4 Translation by omission
As with single words, whole phrases may be omitted if they are not essential to the meaning or impact of the text. This may be done with phrases that would require lengthy explanations, awkward paraphrases, or literal and unnatural translations. This may also be done when a phrase has two meanings, and one of the meanings must be sacrificed for the other. For instance, a book entitled, “Being Positive - Living with HIV/AIDS” presents problems in translation because of the double meaning of "being positive". Here, the meaning is both that a person is HIV positive and, more idiomatically, that s/he should have an optimistic outlook on life. This may be clear to a translator, who may interpret the phrase to mean simply that this book is for and about people who are HIV positive. However, the double meaning should be made clear through collaboration with the commissioner, after which a choice must be made between the two meanings, for it would not be possible to translate both meanings by one Vietnamese phrase. As the emphasis is on a positive outlook towards life and not on the fact of being HIV positive, one translator has suggested the following translation: "Sống một cách tích cực". This expresses the notion of being positive about life without mentioning
anything about HIV status, which will be made clear in the rest of the title and in the content of the book.

STRATEGY 3: How to deal with voice, number and person

VOICE: The passive voice is used very frequently in English and poses some problems for translation into Vietnamese. Passive voice can be translated from English into Vietnamese in the following ways:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>a) English:</th>
<th>A to be done (by B)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Vietnamese:</td>
<td>(i) A được + động từ + (bởi B) positive meaning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A được / do + B + động từ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(ii) A bị + động từ (bởi B) negative meaning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A bị + (B) + động từ</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Example:

- This house was built by Frank in 1930.
  = Ngôi nhà này do Frank xây năm 1930.

- Tom is given a present by Mary.
  = Tom được Mary tặng một món quà.

- Tom was attacked by a stranger last night.
  = Tom bị một kẻ lạ mặt tấn công tối hôm qua.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>b) English:</th>
<th>A to be done</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Vietnamese:</td>
<td>(i) A được + động từ (positive meaning)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(ii) A bị + động từ (negative meaning)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(iii) Người ta/ai đó + động từ + A</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Example:
- Tom has been promoted recently.
  = Tôm mới được đề bạt gần đây.

- The CD has been broken.
  = Chiếc đĩa CD đã bị vỡ, or
  = Ai đó đã làm vỡ chiếc đĩa CD rồi.

The positive and negative connotation is not often conveyed in English, it can be difficult to know which verb to use in the Vietnamese.

Example: The children were given injections.
Vietnamese: “Các cháu được tiêm” or “Các cháu bị tiêm”

depending on whether receiving shots was considered a positive or negative experience. On the other hand, when the positive or negative connotation of the sentence is clear, it is more appropriate to retain the passive voice in the Vietnamese.

Example: The H'Mong people do not like to be called Mèo, they prefer to be called H'Mong.
Vietnamese: Người dân tộc Hơ Mông không thích bị gọi là dân tộc Mèo, họ thích được gọi là dân tộc Hơ Mông

Note: In Vietnamese, there are some cases where you see the word bị/được, but they are not passive sentences in English at all.

Example:
- Anh ấy bị ngã = He falls.
- Chi Lan bị ho = Lan has a cough.
- Hôm nay chúng ta được đánh chén no nên
  = We have an enormous and fantastic meal today.
NUMBER: Though both languages have similar notions of number and countability, each language expresses this in very different ways. In Vietnamese, number is often not expressed at all. In English, number is expressed as a grammatical category, that is, there are different grammatical forms for the singular and plural nouns. In Vietnamese, however, no such distinction is made grammatically.

Example: Phụ nữ = can mean either woman or women

In Vietnamese, some plural markers such as “các”, “những”, “tất cả”, “mọi”, “mỗi” ... can be used in addition to the noun. “Các” generally means all of a given category of things, whereas “những” refers to some of the total number of the things being discussed. “Mỗi” emphasizes the identity of the individual members of the category without connoting anything of their totality, while “mọi” expresses both the individuality of the items and the totality of the category. If it is clear from the English context which of these plural markers should be used in the Vietnamese, then the translator should choose accordingly.

Note: Some words that can be countable in Vietnamese but are uncountable in English. For example: information, equipment, furniture, potential, advice,...

PERSON: Participants roles and forms of address are expressed in Vietnamese through a very complicated system of personal pronouns based largely on kinship (mối quan hệ họ hàng) terms. Unlike their English counterparts, Vietnamese pronouns convey many different distinctions, depending on relationship within the family, familiarity, social status, and even one's particular mood or attitude in a given situation. These distinctions are not always clear in English and can usually be determined by the context, if at all. If it is not possible to determine the distinctions of the English pronouns, the decision should be based on consideration of tone and overall purpose of the document.

Example: a manual on health care contains sections written specifically for children and adults. In the section for children, “you” is translated as “em” or “các em”. In the section for adults, “you” should be translated as “chúng ta”, which is the inclusive “we” - that is, the speaker is including the listener in a group with him/herself. And in different contexts, “we”
can be translated as “chúng tôi” meaning “other people and I, but not you” or “chúng ta” meaning “you and I”

Note: In English, age is often not important in the addressing system. And, there is no distinction between the relatives of mother's side or father's side.

Hai anh em = two brother
Hai chị em = two sisters
Chú, Cậu, Bác = uncle
Cô, Dì, Bác gái = aunt
STRATEGY 4. How to deal with proper names

Geographical terms: either translated into another word in Vietnamese or translated phonologically (“s” becomes “x”) or remained unchanged.

Example:
- Beijing = Bắc Kinh
- Kingdom = Vương quốc
- Singapore = Singapore or Xin-ga-po
- Commonwealth = Liên bang, Liên hiệp, Khối thịnh vượng
- Australia = Úc or Óxtrâylia
- Socialist = Xã hội chủ nghĩa
- Brazil = Braxin
- Republic = Cộng hòa
- London = Luân-dôn
- People’s = Nhân dân
- United States of = Hợp chúng quốc

Names of organizations: translated into Vietnamese or unchanged or only translatable parts are translated or add the words “Công ty”, “Hãng”, “Tổ chức”, “Cơ quan”, etc.

Example:
UNDP = Tổ chức UNDP
ANZ Bank = Ngân hàng ANZ
Phillip Fox = Công ty luật Phillip Fox

Translation from Vietnamese into English: often using the reverse order or adjective + noun or noun + preposition + noun.

“Bộ”, “Sở” = Ministry of …, Department of…
“Ngân hàng” = Bank for …, or Adjective + Bank
“Tổng công ty” = Corporation
Proper names in medical texts: Tests, symptoms, diseases, syndromes, parts of the body are named after one 'scientist' in one language community and a different one, are given a more general term, in another. Check the spelling of all proper names - this is where misprints are most common. Remember that while English keeps the first names of foreign person unchanged, they may sometimes be translated in Vietnamese.

STRATEGY 5. How to deal with non-subject sentences
(Vietnamese – English translation)

In Vietnamese-written passages, some non-subject sentences are often come across. In this case, the following techniques of translation can be used:

1. Passive voice
2. It + to be + adjective + to do something
3. There is/ are
4. V+ing (S) + V + O
5. Put in the real subject that is often found in the previous sentence(s)

Example:
- Cần đẩy mạnh công nghiệp hoá, hiện đại hoá.
  = Industrialization and modernization should be promoted.
It is necessary to promote industrialization and modernization.

- Văn chưa có cách cứu chữa bệnh AIDS.
= There has been no cure for AIDS.

STRATEGY 6. How to deal with newspaper headlines

Some main characteristics of newspaper headlines:

1. Present tense = past tense
2. Present participle = event in progress
3. To + infinitive = future events
4. Past participle = passive voice
5. Nouns
6. Verb + Noun

Example:

1. **Chinese Professors Turn To Business.**
   Các giáo sư Trung Quốc chuyển sang kinh doanh
2. **US Secretary To State Visiting Vietnam**
   Ngoại trưởng Mỹ đang thăm Việt Nam
3. **Oil Price To Rise?**
   Giá dầu sẽ tăng?
4. **Three More Investment Projects Licensed This Year**
   Thêm ba dự án đầu tư được cấp phép trong năm nay
5. **Investment Boom**
   Bùng nổ đầu tư
6. **See You In Court**
   Hẹn gặp tại tòa
SESSION FOUR

4.1 WHAT IS INTERPRETING?
Interpreting is rendering information and ideas from one language into another language by means of speaking. Interpreters are concerned with the spoken word. They convey orally whether to an individual or a group the meaning of the spoken word, from one language to another.

4.2 MODES OF INTERPRETING
There are two main modes of interpreting: consecutive and simultaneous interpreting. All of these types will be dealt with in this session.

4.2.1 CONSECUTIVE INTERPRETING (Dịch đuổi)

Unilateral: 
   a) Sentence by sentence, paragraph by paragraph interpretation
   b) The whole speech, which may last five, ten minutes, up to half an hour or one hour.

Bilateral: 
   c) Liaison interpreting

In a consecutive interpreting situation, an interpreter gives a rendering of lengthy passages of speech after a party has finished speaking. S/he must give a structured and accurate rendering of the meaning of the statement with no major distortions of meaning, changes to the logical order of the statement or serious omissions of detail.

Consecutive interpreting is often used in the following situations:
- Escorting a non-English speaking group within a large gathering of English speakers at a trade fair or exposition.
- Conferences where smaller working parties meet in room which lack telephonic interpreting facilities. In this case, interpreters often sit alongside speakers and interpret at intervals.

The qualities required of a consecutive interpreter are:
   a) Proficiency in two languages and two cultures
   b) Quickness of speech and mind
c) Good techniques in memorizing verbal utterances and converting them rapidly, accurately and completely into another language
d) Power of Concentration
e) High moral standards
f) Sense of responsibility
g) High level of education and culture
h) Familiarity with a number of specific terms and situations, e.g. health, education, legal, social welfare areas, etc.
i) Remaining impartial and not taking sides.
j) Being able to take notes of segments of discourse if required
k) Being able to work under stressful conditions.
l) Note-taking skills of a very high order

Liaison Interpreting (dịch hội thoại, dịch tháp tùng)
In Vietnam, this form of interpreting is normally used by interpreters who work in and out of two languages, one of which must Vietnamese. These interpreters typically interpret between clients and professionals, who lack an understanding of each other’s language and culture.

Dialogues are often between:
- Doctors and patients
- Solicitors and clients
- Foreign investors and Vietnamese partners
- Officers of government authorities and clients
- Bank managers and clients...

What professional liaison interpreters do:
1. Familiarize themselves in advance with the likely content of the interview.
2. Evaluate whether the complexity of the interview is within their competence.
3. Obtain correct information on location, time and participants.
4. Make contact with the party requesting the interview in order to arrange introductions between all participants and, if possible, arrange pre-interview consultation.
5. Provide advice to the person conducting the interview on cultural implications/background of client.
6. Explain the interpreter's role in the interview to all participants.
7. Select appropriate interpreting mode (in almost all liaison interpreting situations, the dialogue-interpreting mode is chosen) and ensure participants understand mode to be used.
8. Arrange appropriate physical elements, e.g. tables, chairs, sound control, etc., to facilitate communication.
9. Render into A-language all that B-language speaker says, and vice versa.
10. Seek clarification, when necessary of terminology used to ensure accuracy and clarity.
11. Clarify specific role and responsibilities where more than one interpreter is present in an interview.
12. Arrange de-briefing, where possible, to clarify questions of cultural difference, or failure to establish intended level of communication.
13. Control length of questions and answers to maintain adequate level of communication and ensure full understanding by either parties.
14. Consult with individuals for additional information, e.g. cultural background, religious aspects, etc.

6.2.2. SIMULTANEOUS INTERPRETING (Dịch song song, dịch cabin...)

This type includes:

a) **Sight translation**: a written SL text is read aloud as if written in the TL text;

b) **Whispered interpretation**: e.g. at a meeting without interpreting equipment or in court;

c) **Electronic hook-up**: e.g. at a conference with microphones and headsets and booths for interpreters.

Simultaneous interpreters do not wait for a speaker to finish a segment and pause before beginning to interpret but follow the speaker and interpret what the speaker is saying. Advantages of simultaneous interpreting are that it saves a great deal of time and is less disruptive than other forms of interpreting. It is commonly practiced at international
conferences and forums. However, it is expensive to pay for electronic equipment and simultaneous interpreters. Due to its high level of difficulty, this type of interpreting is briefly introduced here for students' information only rather than being part of the training program at the University for undergraduate students.

### 4.3 INTERPRETING PROCESS

![Diagram of interpreting process]

- **I** = The input stage. The interpreter must have excellent hearing and receive the message without interference.
- **U** = Understanding. This is the most important stage of the interpreting triangle. Not understanding will result in a breakdown of communication.
- **D** = Deciphering. At this stage the interpreter gets rid of all the words, retaining the concept, the idea.
- **T** = Transference. The concept or idea is now transferred into the other language.
- **C+C** = Context and Culture. During the transfer stage the meaning is clarified by cultural and contextual considerations.
- **O1** = Output 1. The interpreter finds an equivalent idiomatic expression.
- **O2** = Output 2. The interpreter transfers the meaning.

**TASK:** Students work in pairs/groups and discuss some main problems that they may face in the interpreting process. Suggest possible solutions.
SESSION FIVE
HELPFUL SKILLS / ATTRIBUTES FOR INTERPRETING

5.1 Hearing Ability
For obvious reasons, it is essential that interpreters have acute hearing. Potential interpreters who have, or feel that they might have, a hearing disability should seek medical advice. In some cases hearing adequately compensate for hearing loss.

5.2 Public Speaking Skills
In any interpreting situation, an interpreter should not mumble, stutter or speak too quickly or slowly. It is obviously necessary to have a clear, well-modulated voice and a smooth style of delivery. Learners who feel insecure when speaking in public might consider joining a club to develop their public speaking skills.

5.3 Conversion Skills
Interpreters must be able to think quickly and “on-their feet”. Interpreting is an immediate process, which leaves little margin for thought before action must take place.

5.4 Memory Skills
The short-term memory is used for the temporary storage of segments of speech so that they can be decoded and re-encoded. Third year students (at the Hanoi University of Foreign Studies) are expected to interpret segments of up to 30 words in length and fourth year students must cope with segments of up to 40-50 words.

To improve short-term memory and speaking style, students are advised to do the following exercises:

a. Newspaper Translation
Take a newspaper article 75-100 words in length and study it for about one minute; then first, put the article face down and repeat it as precisely as possible (note: use the language of the article), second translate the article aloud. Speak evenly without pause or stutter. Do two passages a day until you can speak without hesitation. It is a good idea to use a tape recorder to record and check your performance. This may need frequent practice over 12 weeks or so.

b. Translating from Speech
Ask a friend or member of your family to read to you fairly slowly a passage of about 300-400 words. Make notes and then reproduce the passage as accurately and completely
as you can in the other language. Again use a tape recorder to check your performance. The reading should be as slow as required by dictation.

c. Radio Translation
Tape record short passages of speech in your language from the local radio stations and try to interpret as much as you can. Or tape-record news and science reports in English from VOA or BBC or ABC and reproduce these as accurately as you can in Vietnamese.
NOTE: VOA tapes are available in the Tape Library, ground floor, D1, Hanoi University of Foreign Studies, Thanh Xuân.

d. Interpreting Practice
Ask friends or members of your family to "act out" interview in which you work as the interpreter.

e. Observing High-level Interpreters
Take particular notice of high-level interpreters, such as Prime Ministers' interpreters, who appear on TV news, and observe their technique.

5.5 NOTE-TAKING SKILLS
The interpreter should begin taking notes as soon as one of the parties begins speaking. When taking notes, the interpreter should take as many notes as required to help the memory concerning all pertinent points but not so many that s/he is distracted from what is being said. The interpreter needs to remember what has been said rather than rely exclusively on notes, which should be a back up to the memory.

It is noted that there is no best note-taking system. Each interpreter needs to develop his/her own system of note taking. A system of arrows is often an integral component of a general system of notes. For example:

→ movement towards, tendency, trend, sending, conveying...

← receive from, import, return, and derive from...

∥∥ did NOT go send, convey, and export...

\| did NOT return, import, and derive from... progress,

↑ increase, rise, improvement, etc.
Some mathematical symbols are useful, e.g. $+ - = > <$ and so on.
Abbreviations are also used: $\$, kg, cm, EU, UNDP, UNIDO, FAO, UNFPA…
When a large figure is used, it would be less time consuming to record the thousand as k (25000 = 25k), million as m (25 million = 25 m) and billion as b (5 billion = 5 b)

SESSION SIX

**CODE OF ETHICS FOR INTERPRETERS**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PERSONAL BEHAVIOR</th>
<th>LINGUISTIC PERFORMANCE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>BEFORE Interpreting assignment</strong></td>
<td><strong>DURING Interpreting assignment</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Well presented</td>
<td>1. Introduce yourself</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Punctual</td>
<td>2. Complete impartiality</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Guidance to be given to social worker, doctor, etc.</td>
<td>3. Unbiased</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>on ethnic differences if desired</td>
<td>4. Not rushed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Pen and paper for notes</td>
<td>5. Direct the pace of the conversation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Suggest satisfactory seating arrangement.</td>
<td>6. Jot down notes if necessary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7. Integrity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>8. Dignity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1. Accurate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Faithful</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. No omissions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4. No alternations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5. No additions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6. Interpret short passages.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7. Understand fell meaning</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>8. Repetition and clarification as</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>necessary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>9. Concentration</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6.1 Some practical techniques for on-site interpreting:

1) Introduce yourself to both the professional and the client.
2) Explain you are from... (name of your organization), everything is confidential and everything will be interpreted with no additions or omissions.
3) Arrange seating: The ideal seating arrangement is a triangle with participants at equal distances from each other, so that eye contact can be maintained at all times.

4) First-person interpreting
5) Control pace
6) Ask for repetition if uncertain of what was said.
7) Ask for explanation or clarification if necessary
8) Concentration
9) Notes
10) Assertiveness.

6.2 PUTTING YOUR ROLE INTO PRACTICE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SITUATIONS</th>
<th>WHAT WOULD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>INTERPRETERS SAY?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>The client may be very emotional and distressed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>The client may be very confused.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>The client may accuse the interpreter of not interpreting correctly.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>The client may put pressure on the interpreter by asking him to be dishonest.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>The client may pour out his whole life history.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>The client may be angry.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>The client may refuse to cooperate with the interpreter.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>The client may be very suspicious.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>The client may want the interpreter’s opinion or advice or help later, e.g. “I think this doctor is not very good. What do you think?”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 6.3 INTERPRETING IN SPECIALISED AREAS

#### 6.3.1 Legal Interpreting

There are basically four legal situations in which an interpreter may become involved:

1) interview between lawyer and client (or witness);
2) interview between police officer and person suspected of committing an offence;
3) giving evidence in court; and
4) interpreting in court.

**The requirements for competent legal interpreting are:**

- technical fluency in English and Vietnamese;
- an understanding of the conceptual and cultural background to those languages; and
- an extensive knowledge of the social, economic and political organizations and conditions of Vietnam and the other country.

There are common requirements for all professional interpreting and to them must be added:

- an outline knowledge of the respective legal system;
- a broad comparative understanding of the most common legal concepts;
• a reasonable working knowledge of the relevant professional terminology; and
• an awareness of the expectations of lawyers, magistrates and judges.

The interpreter is there to enable communication between people of different cultures speaking different languages. Thus, where it becomes apparent to the interpreter that communication is being impeded by a language difficulty, different cultural concepts or the like, it is the interpreter's duty to bring that to the attention of the court, lawyer or police officer concerned.

6.2 Business interpreting

After the promulgation of the Law on Foreign Investment in Vietnam, many foreign investors have come to Vietnam to look for business opportunities. A good working knowledge of the Law will be helpful for an interpreter.

In business, clothes are important. Business people often wear formal clothes. So an interpreter should wear proper clothes (e.g. suit, jacket suit, tie, clean shoes…) to be in line with the formal setting of business meetings.

During meetings and discussions, an interpreter must interpret what is said to the best of his/her knowledge. If and when the interpreter does not understand any technical terms or jargons, s/he must ask for clarification.

An interpreter must not take sides and must keep confidential all information of the meetings and discussions.

The requirements of a good interpreter are:

a) Good fluency in both languages (English and Vietnamese).
b) Good understanding of the culture of the business partner and of Vietnamese culture in general, and an understanding of the differences between the two.
c) Extensive knowledge of business, economic situation of Vietnam (and the other country).
d) A large business vocabulary.
e) Well presented and punctual.
f) Accurate interpreting without omission, alteration and addition.

6.3 MEDICAL INTERPRETING

There may be occasions where the intimacy of the questioning may embarrass or confuse the interpreter or the patient but these questions are not asked in an idle fashion but are all very necessary in making a diagnosis.

A patient may feel cut off and feel that s/he is very secondary to a conversation between doctor and interpreter. A doctor gets a glimmer of this when the interpreter talks to the patient. The interpreter should, therefore, advise the doctor to look at the patient during the conversation to reduce the language barrier to a small extent.

Sex and age of interpreter can cause difficulties in many cultures. For example, an elderly English male may not wish to talk about his urinary problems in front of a young female interpreter, or an elderly Vietnamese lady may not wish to discuss her gynaecological problems in front of a young male interpreter. Generally, more mature interpreters seem more acceptable to most patients.

The best arrangement seems to be with the doctor sitting directly opposite the patient. The doctor should always try to talk directly to the patient and the interpreter should be sitting just to the side so the patient can face the interpreter if s/he wants to.

The interpreter must understand the difference between the patient giving a symptom and the patient giving a diagnosis, and that generally speaking a doctor is interested only in the patient's symptoms, not the patient's diagnosis.

The interpreter must render the patient's story completely and accurately without any omission or distortion. The interpreter must also be careful not to place undue emphasis on any of the parts of the history perhaps because of personal experience. It is the doctor who decides what importance to place on the various symptoms.
The interpreter should assist in handling grief and bereavement. It is extremely difficult for a doctor to try to console a patient or relative through an interpreter and particularly when the doctor has no knowledge of the patient's culture.

It is necessary for the interpreter to understand medical terms. However, a doctor should be able to explain to a patient in clear non-medical language and so the doctor should be able to do the same for the interpreter. A good interpreter must insist that the doctor makes himself clear.

An interpreter must avoid taking sides. His or her job is to interpret accurately and to provide guidance on cultural differences to patient and doctor, making a clear distinction on what is language interpretation and what is culture interpretation.

In short, the requirements of a good interpreter are:

a) Properly assessed fluency in the language of the patient (English) and Vietnamese.
b) Good understanding of the culture of the patient and of Vietnamese culture in general, and an understanding of the differences between the two.
c) Mature person.
d) Not squeamish.
e) Must not appear embarrassed or shy when very personal matters are discussed.
f) Must not appear to make moral judgements.
g) Relaxed attitudes, not impatient, quiet voice.

REFERENCE:
3. I/T Handouts of Auckland Institute of Technology (supplied by Dr. Sabine Fenton)


