ADVANCED TRANSLATION 2024-2025 Fall

NOTE 2

Translation Activities In Turkish Republic After The Ottoman Empire

The Turkish Republic was established in 1923 following the World War I defeat of the Ottoman Empire. After the constitution of the new Republic, the new government under the leadership of Government carried out drastic reforms to attain modern civilization that could develop the society. These reforms were intended to open a new world for Turkish people and to bring the society closer to the contemporary.

Atatürk did his best to establish democratic institutions for the people who had been ruled by an absolute monarch for 600 years. For the integration and communication with the West, the Arabic Alphabet was replaced with the Latin alphabet for written Turkish. This reform opened a new way through West on the transfer and production of Science and Technology (Yalçın, 1999).

Within this context, for the purpose of opening new modern universities, Atatürk planned to take advices of foreign experts and wanted to receive a report including the possible framework of the new higher education institute. 'Darülfünun' remained from the Ottomans had still been operating at that time. Darülfünun, was the first and unique higher education institute during the Ottoman period and the first ten years of Turkish Republic.

The 2252 Code aimed at building a modern university in 1933. In accordance with Malche's report and Atatürk's reform, European model of administration and education was accepted in the Turkish universities (Namal, Y. & Karakök, T. 2011).

Based on the report by invited Swiss Professor Albert Malche and by Atatürk's Consequently, universities became an excellent venue for the transfer, expansion and circulation of technical and scientific knowledge and laid the foundations for the establishment of technical innovations and advances throughout the country by way of translations such as the following in various fields depending on Istanbul University Library records as the source:

The translation of Prof. Dr. E.Finlay Freundlich and Dr. W. Gleissberg's *Astronomy* by Assoc. Prof. Dr. Fahir Yeniçay in 1937, Istanbul University Publication

The translation of Weiland Gattermann's book *Organik Kimya Laboratuvarı* (The original title does not exist) by Dr. Naci Bekir Ortabaşı-Assoc.Prof.Dr. Cemil DikmenLütfi Ergener in 1940, Istanbul University Publication,

The translation of Prof. Maunice Gignoux's *Stratigrafik Jeoloji* (no original title)by Prof.Dr. Hamit Nafiz Pamir in 194, Istanbul University Publication.

The translated works of science and technology which paved the way for the development of similar sciences in Türkiye are concrete examples of the enormous weight played by translations in recording the history of the development of science and technology in Türkiye. Another important feature that comes to the fore about the role played by translations in this direction is the translation manuals prepared by Istanbul University in various subjects.

Technical translation activities in Türkiye developed and accelerated along with the developments in science and technology in the country. With the establishment of institutions of science and technology and the opening of the universities, the formation of disciplines and the applications and production in industry necessitated vast amounts of translations for the transference of information and knowledge; as well as for having an access to the innovations in the west. Universities and institutions such as TÜBİTAK, Atom Enerjisi Kurumu and all the state run industry offices (MKE, SÜMERBANK, etc.) carried out extensive translation activities which were either published or not published in their own domain.

The present state of translation activities in technical field is prosperous and an immense amount of publications are available in that respect. Nowadays translations of such kind are being carried out mainly in private companies. The abundance of technical translation in Türkiye in the present times and initiatives in the fields of towards setting down standards in technical writing and technical translation promise the future researcher in the field of technical translation history a large number of data for studying an account of the accumulation of scientific and technical knowledge in Türkiye and will bring the study of a general history of translation a step forward.

THE CONCEPT OF INTERPRETATON

According to Gile (2018), interpreting was conceived in the early 1920s through the development of the telephonic interpreting equipment that was made by Edward Filene and Gordon Finlay. However, it made its first televised appearance at the Nuremberg Trials. Before this, interpreters at multilingual events had to take notes when the speech was being made and then, reconstructed the information into another language when the speaker was done.

SI involves the interpretation from one language to another at the same time with the speaker. Russell (2015) defines simultaneous interpretation as the practice of

interpreting the message into another language at the same time with the other one.

Simultaneous interpretation can be conducted with the use of electronic equipment, computer and etc., or sometimes with no at all. In conference interpreting, the speaker's microphone is usually electronically transferred to an interpreter's booth. The interpreter can see the speaker through clear views and then hears the source message through earphones and renders her or his interpretation of the target audience. The interpretation is then electronically transferred to the headsets of the listeners.

The Interpretation Process

The interpretation process has some basic procedures. An interpreter can identify a message through the means of audio and visual means. The listening capability of the interpreter and the surroundings such as noisy listening conditions affect the quality of the interpretation. Listening while interpreting is also very complex. For example, in situations where limited time is allocated to the speaker, the speaker has to deliver their speech rapidly hence making listening difficult.

TYPES OF INTERPRETING

There are different various types of interpretation that are thought to be essential to show and mention. There *are 4 types* of interperting;

1.Conference interpreting

As Munday (2019) mentions, conference interpreting thrived after the Second World War and as an outcome of the growth of the societies. It takes place in a particular format of interaction such as a conference speech or a high-level governmental meeting, where a highly polished paper, full of information, is read out non- stop and the interpreter is not allowed to interact with the speaker .

2 Business interpreting

According to Pöchhacker (2014), this type is implemented in business negotiations and management meetings. In any situation, interpreters are required to have a broad knowledge base in addition to mastery of the languages they work in.

This is especially true for business situations. Interpreters should be equipped with a good understanding of the economy and business practices as well as cross-cultural communication in order to be successful facilitators of business. Interpreters are generally evaluated on their accuracy, speed, and delivery. Besides, the interpreters are directly involved in the proceedings.

3.Court interpreting.

It is said that trials, discoveries, witness preparation at law firms are involved in this type. Accuracy and completeness are the most important attributes for interpreters working with the law. Training and experience are crucial since court procedures are formal and the language is specialized. Generally speaking, only those interpreters who have obtained a court interpreting certificate can work in court .

4 Community interpreting.

Scholars highlights that no technical expertise is required in this type of interpreting, and the interpreter is welcome to have free interactions to facilitate communication. Community interpreting includes a variety of situations, such as personal interpreting for visits to a family doctor or dentist, driver exam's tests, and meeting with immigration officers.

INTERPRETING MODES

Interpreting is traditionally regarded as a form of translation, and, therefore considered as a sub-branch. When we look back at Holmes's "map" (1975) in which interpreting is examined under the category of "medium-restricted" form of human/machine translation or to Toury's DTS (1995), it is possible to see that interpreting itself is not "described" as a category of its own but as a mode of translation, which falls into a category.

However, as the profession evolved and as more scholars started to work in the field of interpreting studies, it can now be understood that interpreting itself has different modes each of which has different challenges of its own and therefore requires different solutions whether these are different theories, strategies or training methods. In this sub-section, *three main interpreting modes are*.

1.Sight Interpreting

Sight interpreting is the mode in which the interpreter delivers the target text verbally while reading the source text silently. Due to its "hybrid" nature, it may also be called "sight translation" in some sources; the reason why the term "interpreting" is preferred in the present study is its oral output. Sight interpreting can also be integrated into simultaneous interpreting, which Gile (1995) calls "simultaneous interpreting with text", as the speeches delivered by the speakers in conferences are generally written beforehand which enables the interpreters to access the texts prior to the interpreting sessions and follow the speech by both listening and looking at the text they have in hand.

2. Consecutive Interpreting

Consecutive interpreting is regarded to be in existence since the ancient Egypt, where the interpreters served the political, religious or military authorities, due to

their position between two parties; however, the first example of 'classic' consecutive interpreting as it is accepted as different from "dialogue interpreting or "liaison interpreting" today was the one conducted in the League of Nations (Andres, 2015). Consecutive interpreting was one of the most commonly used interpreting mode until the Nuremberg Trials, which led to the rise of simultaneous interpreting, and is still a preferred way if the nature of the interpreting does not require more than one translator or language pair at a time.

3. Simultaneous Interpreting (SI)

In a broader perspective, *simultaneous interpreting can be divided into two categories*: *SI without equipment* and *SI with equipment*. The former can be practiced as "whispered interpreting" when the target audience is composed of just a few listeners, or sign language interpreters can simultaneously transfer a message in source language into a sign language system, which can also be rendered as simultaneous interpreting. The second, is to be referred as "simultaneous interpreting" throughout the study, requires the interpreter to be in a soundproof booth with headphones and a microphone. In today's intertwined world resorting to simultaneous interpreting in multilingual conferences or regarding international affairs have provided us with ease.

It can be concluded from here that there is a mismatch between two languages which causes one of the important problems in idiom translation. The greater mismatch between source and target languages is, the more difficult transference of a message is. Differences between the source and target languages and variations between the cultures they belong are a great challenge in translation procedure. Cultural featured idioms have to be considered not in the context of source text and culture but target culture.

Translator should interpret the idiom belonging to the source language carefully before transfering it to the target language. When idiom in the source language is similar to idiom in the target language as a form, there is a risk of interpretation.

ENGLISH VS TURKISH MORPHOLOGICAL DIFFERENCES FOR TRANLATON STUDIES

In a comparing and contrasting Turkish and English, even though their alphabets are both based on the Latin alphabet, their morphology, syntax, and vocabulary differ to a great extent. On the other hand, the consonants of both sound systems are similar except English has consonants that do not exist in Turkish. For example, the Turkish consonant inventory lacks interdental $[\Theta]$ as in 'thanks' and $[\delta]$ as in 'this'. The lack of these two sounds usually leads Turkish speakers of English to perceive and produce these sounds as [t] and [d].

Another consonant that does not occur in Turkish is [w]. The sound [w] is usually substituted with the nearest Turkish sound [v]by Turkish speakers. For example, Turkish speakers are likely to pronounce 'when'as 'ven'due to the absence of this sound in Turkish consonant inventory. Although there may not be major differences between these two languages' consonant inventories, it is mainly the differences between Turkish and English vowels that create difficulty for Turkish speakers in English pronunciation.

Turkish vowels are categorized into three main groups as rounded-unrounded, high-low, and front-back. On the other hand, English has additional classification for its vowels such as tense-lax.

Even though Turkish lacks this discrimination in its vowel list, it should be pointed out that because some vowels that are categorized in English as tense also occur in Turkish, they do not pose a difficulty in pronunciation. For example, while the vowel sound [a]exists in both sound systems, it is specified as tense in English in addition to low and unrounded.

Similarly, it is categorized as low and unrounded in Turkish. On the contrary, some of the lax vowels of English are among the most problematic areas in terms of pronunciation of English by Turkish speakers.

The vowel [æ]does not exist in Turkish vowel inventory. As a result of the absence of this sound, most Turkish speakers pronounce this vowel either [e]or [a]. For example, "pack"is usually pronounced as "peck"by Turkish speakers. Finally, the English sounds that do not occur in Turkish are diphthongs: [ai], [av], and [oi] (Varol, 2012).

Among these only [ai]occurs in Turkish although it is not classified as a distinct sound. For example, the diphthong [ai] occurs in the first syllable of the Turkish words 'ayna'(mirror) and 'aynı'(identical). Additionally a similar sound to [oi]also occurs in Turkish. For instance, it occurs in the word 'koy'(put) although its pronunciation differs slightly than that of [oi]. Because there is not any similar sound for the diphthong [au] in Turkish, when Turkish speakers encounter words that contain this sound they usually pronounce [au]as [a]. For example, 'how'is usually pronounced as 'hav'by Turkish speakers.

On the contrary, there are sounds of Turkish, which cause problems for English speakers. Another sound that seems to be problematic is the consonant sound $[\gamma]$ which corresponds to the letter ' \check{g} ' also called as soft g. There has been a debate over it. Some consider it a letter rather than a sound. However, International Phonetics Association treats it as a velar fricative consonant sound. The main function of soft 'g' in pronunciation is that it lengthens the preceding vowel sound.

For example, in the Turkish word 'yoğurt', 'ğ' lengthens the vowel 'o'and pronunciation of the word almost sounds like 'yoourt'. Though the letter 'ğ'does not exist in English, the word 'yoghurt' is presented in the language and, as a result of this simultaneous similarity and difference English speakers tend to pronounce it the same way as in English without consideration of lengthening effect of 'ğ'.

There are some Turkish vowels which are not shown in English, such as \ddot{u} , \ddot{o} , ι , and apparently not all of them have corresponding sounds. Their pronunciation can be an obstacle for English native speakers. The most difficult characteristic of Turkish language is that being an orthographic language, words in Turkish are "written the way they are pronounced and pronounced the way they are written "(Balpinar, 2011).

This type of relationship between letters and sounds does not exist in English, for example, and, therefore, learners with English background as mother tongue find it hard to get used to such way of pronouncing words. The same as Turkish learners have a tendency to pronounce words in English the way they are written. Finally, phonology is affected by mother tongue in many ways. Mother tongue influences not only pronunciation of the words, but also stress, intonation, pauses.

Thus, Turkish and English share some similarities in systems, and it causes problems for their learners. However, problematic issues can be reconsidered and solved when the sources of errors are defined. Acquisition of phonological aspects of second language is a disputable area, where theoretical investigation is on, and at the same time scholars are trying to work out the best approaches and techniques to ease the process of acquiring sound systems.

When speaking about impact of learners' L1 upon syntax and morphology of L2, researcher would like to review Turkish and English language systems, and concentrate attention on particular parts of language, which seem to be most significant in terms of this study as they allow tracing mother tongue influence. First thought that comes to one's mind when the word syntax is mentioned is word order (Haznedar, 1997). The underlying word order in English is SubjectVerbObject (SVO):

- a. He comes home late every Monday.
- b. We know that he comes home late every Monday.

This word order is the most common besides cases of inversion. Unlike English, Turkish language has a different word order with a verb-final: SubjectObjectVerb (SOV) (Haznedar, 1997). Consider the following examples provided in the research of Haznedar:

a. Ersin şiir-i sev-er. Ersin poetry-Acc like. 'Ersin likes poetry'

b. (Siz) Ersin-in şiiri sev-digi-ni bil-iyor-sunuz. (You) Ersin-Gen poetry like-Gerund-Acc know-PresProg-2SG 'You know that Ersin likes poetry'

The verb of the main clause and the embedded verb are positioned at the end of the sentence. These examples also show the agglutinative nature of the morphology (Haznedar, 1997). It is obvious when the verb *bil-iyor-sunuz*(know) is analyzed. It has a main root and the added morphemes *-iy* or /and *-sunuz*.

First morpheme refers to present tense, whereas the second one is related to 2SG form (Haznedar, 1997). These morphemes are organized in a strict sequence. There is another issue in regard to the word order. It has somewhat free sequence of words (Haznedar, 1997). Some examples are given:

- a. Ersin çiçek-ler-i Nilay-a ver-di. 'Esin gave the flowers to Nilay'
- b. Esin Nilay'a çiçekleri verdi.
- c. Çiçekleri Nilay'a Esin verdi.

Change of word order is more of colloquial language rather than formal. Word order is what confuses learners when they acquire language. Turkish native speakers tend to put the verb at the end of the sentences.

TRANSLATION FROM TURKISH TO ENGLISH LANGUAGE

As the present study focuses specifically on simultaneous interpreting in English and Turkish language pair, the present section is prepared to shed light on the syntax of each language and the challenges faced while interpreting between them with regard to their syntactic structures. Looking at the etymology of the word "syntax", it can be seen that the word originates from two words in Latin: "sun-" meaning "together" and "tassein" meaning "arrange" in English. By looking at how the words are arranged together to form sentences in English and in Turkish, it is possible to have an insight of one of the main problems that an interpreter operating between these two languages face.

While studying a language, all of its characteristics (i.e. its phonology, morphology, syntax, vocabulary and orthography) are taken into consideration. However, this section isolates the syntactic features of English and Turkish and

focuses on the notion of "verb" and the word order. Even when we do not know the meaning of the words in a sentence, the grammar and order used in a sentence can give us clues to understand what is being said. Here is an example taken from the *Little, Brown Handbook* of Fowler and Aaron (2020)

Looking at the sentences from the perspective of an interpreter, it would not be possible to transfer them in another language when either of them is given in an isolated way, as they both lack meaningful units. If each word was attributed a meaning or one of the example sentences was to be given in a context (i.e. imitating a little child in a speech), the interpreter could create a similar effect in the correct grammatical form.

However, regardless of the arguments that can be generated regarding the words or their meanings, these two examples signify a major challenge while interpreting between English and Turkish language pair: the "word order" or the "sequence" regarding the sentence constituent "verb". In the following two subsections, the sentence categories of each language are going to be presented with examples and their respective translations and in the last subsection the problems and discrepancies that may arise while interpreting are going to be discussed.

Syntax

1.1 English Syntax

In the present subsection, providing a general understanding of the syntactic features of English language is targeted. First of all, the sentence types and sequences in English are going to be touched upon with examples and their translations, respectively.

Then, negations and questions are going to be introduced in short.

English language is located under the West Germanic branch of the Indo-European family of Languages and the sentences in English can be grouped in two: simple sentences or multiple sentences. The former is composed of a single independent clause. The second, on the other hand, can either be a compound sentence with two or more independent clauses or a complex sentence with a subordinate clause (Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech, &Startvik, 1985).

Example 1 (Simple Sentences):

Koray waited for the bus. (Koray otobüsü bekledi.)

Example 2 (Compound Sentences):

Ivan called Alex many times but he never replied. (Ivan, Alex'i birçok kez aradı ama o hiç cevap vermedi.)

Example 3 (Complex Sentences):

'If you need anything, you can contact me.' (Herhangi bir şeye ihtiyacınız olursa benle iletişime geçebilirsiniz.)

The sentences in English can be constructed with three different forms of negation which are clause negation, local negation, predication negation. (Quirk et al., 1985). It is possible to negate the sentences with words in negative forms and/or negative meanings in English (i.e. never, no, no one, barely, seldom, scarcely, hardly, any(body/one), any longer etc.).

Example 4. Compound – Complex Sentences, contains two or more independent clause and more dependent clauses.

The man stole the jewelry and he hid it in his home until he could safely get out town. (Adam ziynet eşyalarını çaldı ve kasabadan güvenli bir şekilde çıkana kadar evinde sakladı.)

Example 5 (Clause Negation):

The students did **not** get good grades. (Öğrenciler iyi notlar al**ma**dı.)

Example 6 (Local Negation):

She sits **not** far away from me in the classroom. (Sınıfta benden çok da uzakta otur**mu**yor.)

Example 7 (Predication Negation):

You can simply not go there. (Oraya git**me**yebilirsin.)

Except for the declarative sentences given above, the examples of exclamations and imperatives, and interrogatives – yes/no interrogatives, wh-interrogatives including, and tag questions are as follows:

Example 8 (Exclamations):

How nice it is to see you! (Seni görmek ne hos!)

Example 9 (Imperatives):

Buy some milk on your way home. (Gelirken süt al.)

Example 10 (Yes/No Interrogatives):

Do you know how dangerous it is? (Ne kadar tehlikeli olduğunu biliyor musun?)

Example 11 (Wh-Interrogatives):

What time do you usually go to bed? (Genellikle saat kaçta yatarsın?)

Example 12 (Tag Questions):

You know how much this means to me, don't you? (Bunun bana ne kadar çok şey ifade ettiğini biliyorsun, değil mi?)

As for the possible sequences of the sentence constituents, English is not a flexible language with only one completely acceptable sequencing. Turgut (2019) exemplifies and defines different sequences in English as follows:

Table 1: Sentence Sequences in English

Sequence	English	Status
SOV	Orhan the money stole.	Not acceptable
SVO	Orhan stole the money.	Acceptable
OSV	The money Orhan stole.	Restricted use
OVS	The money stole Orhan.	Restricted use
VOS	Stole the money Orhan.	Not acceptable
VSO	Stole Orhan the money.	Not acceptable

1.2. Turkish Syntax

This section aims to offer an insight into the syntactic features of Turkish language so as to provide the reader with the basic knowledge to develop a better understanding of the challenges that an interpreter may face while working in English and Turkish language pair. First of all, the sentence types and sequences in Turkish are going to be explained with examples and their translations, respectively. Then, negations and questions are going to be introduced briefly.

In genealogical classification, Turkish language is located under the Turkic Languages branch of the *Altaic languages family*. Looking at the structure of the language, there are two main sentence types in Turkish: (a) simple sentences with just one main clause and (b) complex sentences with one main clause and one or more subordinate clauses.

Another possible sentence structure is the coordinated sentences, meaning that two sentences are linked together with their verbs weighing as of equal importance. The examples below are given to represent each type and constructed in positive forms since negation is to be discussed later.

Example 1 (Simple Sentences):

Ben dün gece film izledim. (I watched a movie last night.)

Example 2 (Complex Sentences):

Geçen hafta [eve giderken] [yeni açılan] kitapçıya uğradım. (Last week, [as I was going home] I stopped by a bookshop [which is recently opened].)

Example 3 (Coordinated Sentences):

Kızgın babamı gördüm ve heyecanlandım. (I saw my angry father and I got excited.)

Focusing on their predicates, the sentences can also be categorized under two headings: (a) *verbal sentences* – *the predicate of a sentence or a main clause of a sentence is a finite verb* - and

(b) nominal sentences – the predicate lacks an overt verb or the verb is a form of copula. The nominal sentences can also be divided into two as linking sentences –"x is y" – and existential sentences – "x has y", "there is an x (in y)" (Göksel and Kerslake, 2004)

Example 4 (Verbal Sentences):

Bu akşam partiye gelebilirim. (I can come to the party tonight)

Example 5 (Nominal Sentences):

Eskiden veba insanlık için ciddi bir tehditti.

'Black death was previously a serious threat for the humanity.'

Negation takes place at the end of the verb in Turkish language. Göksel and Kerslake (2004) point out three (f) negation markers (i.e. "-mA", "değil" and "yok") and other connectives and expressions such as "ne...ne", "hiç", "kimse", "hiçbir şey", "asla".

Example 6 (-mA):

Ona tüm olanları detaylı bir şekilde anlatırken bir gün tartıştığımızda bunları aleyhimde kullanacağını düşünmedim.

(While I was telling her everything that happened in detail, I didn't think that she would hold these against me one day when we have a dispute.)

Example 7 ("değil"):

Onu sayıyorum diye yaptıklarını **fark etmiyor değilim**. (It'**s not** that I **don't realize** what he does just because I respect him.)

Example 8 ("yok"):

Kardelen'in düzenlediği partide Gökçe **yoktu**. Gökçe **wasn't** at the party that Kardelen organized.

With regard to formal sentence classification, the examples given so far represent the declarative sentences in the language. Other major syntactic forms are exclamations and imperatives, and interrogatives – yes/no interrogatives formed with the clitic mI", wh-interrogatives including "kim", "ne", "nere-", "hangi", "kaç", "ne kadar", "ne zaman", "neden", "niye", "niçin" or "nasıl", and tag questions such as "değil mi? Or "öyle mi?".

Example 9 (Exclamations):

Ne yakışıklı damat! (What a handsome groom!)

Example 10 (Imperatives):

Gel buraya! (Come here!')

Example 11 (Yes/No Interrogatives):

"Anahtarı nereye bıraktığını gördün mü?" 'Have you seen where he left the keys?'

Example 12 (Wh-Interrogatives):

Hayatta en çok kimi görmüş? who-ACC Whom did (s)he see the most in life?

Example 13 (Taq Questions):

Onunla daha önce hiç tanışmamıştın, değil mi? (You didn't meet him before, did you?)

The aforementioned S+O+V sequence is the regular usage in Turkish; however, at this point, it is also noteworthy to mention that the Turkish language enables its users to order the words in a sentence in various forms when there is an exclamation or inversion or when a different constituent of the sentence is

stressed. To illustrate this, Turgut (2014 provides us with the Turkish equivalents of the sentences given in the Table 1 in the previous section:

Table 2: Sentence Sequences in Turkish

Sequence	Turkish	Status
SOV	Orhan parayı çaldı.	Acceptable
SVO	Orhan çaldı parayı!	Acceptable
OSV	Parayı Orhan çaldı.	Restricted use
OVS	Parayı çaldı Orhan!	Acceptable
VOS	Çaldı parayı Orhan!	Restricted use
VSO	Çaldı Orhan parayı.	Restricted use

While interpreting

As one can infer from the example sentences given above, the sequence of sentences in Turkish is in S+O+V order. In each sentence type – whether it is positive or negative – it can be seen that the predicate expands leftward, meaning that the verb is preceded by the complement. However, in English, the sequence of the sentences is acceptable in S+V+O order. Gile (2005) states that interpreting between the languages having different word-orders requires more processing capacity compared to the syntactically similar languages. Especially in complex sentences in Turkish, the speaker inevitably puts off the verb. Therefore, the interpreter is left with two options.

The first one is to wait until the verb is uttered by the speaker which expands the duration that the interpreter relies on short-term memory (Christoffels et al. 2006). Furthermore, waiting would increase the time lag while interpreting into English. The second option is to anticipate the verb. However, at this point, it is noteworthy to remind that anticipation can lead to errors in some cases. Negation markers' and person markers being at the end of the sentences in Turkish also pose a great challenge to the interpreters.

In an ideal world, an interpreter knows the subject of the sentence and whether the sentence is negative or positive before starting to construct the sentence. However, when the position of the verb and the demanding nature of simultaneous interpreting is considered, the interpreters may not be able to afford to wait until the end of the sentence to start producing the message in the target language. Therefore, the interpreters are bound to coordinate between the Listening and Analysis Effort and the Production Effort more or to rely heavily on the Memory Effort.

DIFFICULTIES IN IDIOM TRANSLATION

Translation is a functional interlingual transfer of meaning with the goal of communication. And translator is a mediator that helps individuals in two

different language communities make contact with each other on the language platform, too. So a heavy responsibility rests on the translator. Because he/she is expected to transfer the source text message to the target language community as much as possible without distorting.

In particular, the fact that Turkish and English have different lexical and grammar structures makes translation more difficult between these two languages. Each language has its own structure and while translating a message in the source language into the target language, the elements of the source language message may not fully or partially match the elements in the target language because of different rhythms, therefore there may be losses in expression. The more linguistic, cultural and social differences there are between languages, the more inavitable information losses become in translation. Due to the arrangement of meaning of the verbal signs, phrases and sentences we need to know that it is not possible to mention about an equivalence in translation between languages from different origins, and because of that reason loss of meaning is inevitable.

According to Baker (1992: 68), once an idiom has been recognized and interpreted correctly, the next step is to decide how to translate it into the target language. The difficulties involved in translating an idiom are totally different from those involved in interpreting it. Here, the question is not whether a given idiom is transparent, opaque, or misleading. An opaque expression may be easier to translate than a transparent one.

Idioms are not always clear. There are many types of idioms and some of them are easily noticed. It is possible to cite idioms, *bir taşla iki kuş vurmak, dişlerini göstermek*, which can be noticed although they have not a lexical meaning.

There are 4 main difficulties faced in translating idioms, as follows: a.An idiom or fixed expression may have no equivalent in the target language.

- b) An idiom or fixed expression may have a similar counterpart in the target language, but its context of use may be different.
- c) An idiom may be used in the source text in both its literal and idiomatic senses at the same time. Unless the target language idiom corresponds to the source language idiom both in form and in meaning, the play on idiom cannot be successfully reproduced in the target text.
- d) The very convention of using idioms in written discourse, the contexts in which they can be used, and their frequency of use may be different in the source and target languages.

STRATEGIES FOR IDIOM TRANSLATION

The way in which an idiom or a fixed expression can be translated into another language depends on many factors. It is not only a question of whether an idiom with a similar meaning is available in the target language. Other factors include, for example, the significance of the specific lexical items which constitute the idiom, i.e. whether they are manipulated elsewhere in the source language, as well as the appropriateness or inappropriateness of using idiomatic language in a given register in the target language.

The acceptability or non-acceptability of using any of the strategies described below will therefore depend on the context in which a given idiom is translated. The first strategy described, that of finding an idiom of similar meaning and similar form in the target language, may seem to offer the ideal solution, but that is not necessarily always the case. Questions of style, register, and rhetorical effect, must also be taken into consideration (Baker, 1992).

Baker emphasizes that Fernando and Flavell are correct in warning us against the strong unconscious urge in most translators to search hard for an idiom in the receptor-language, however inappropriate it may be.

There are 4 strategies for translating idioms;

1. Using an Idiom of Similar Meaning and Form

This strategy involves using an idiom in the target language which conveys roughly the same meaning as that of the source-language idiom and, in addition, consists of equivalent lexical items. This kind of match can only occasionally be achieved.

2. Using an Idiom of Similar Meaning But Dissimilar Form

It is often possible to find an idiom or fixed expression in the target language which has a meaning similar to that of the source idiom or expression, but which consists of different lexical items.

3. Translation by Paraphrase

This is by far the most common way of translating idioms when a match cannot be found in the target language or when it seems inappropriate to use idiomatic language in the target text because of differences in stylistic preferences of the source and target languages.

4. Translation by Omission

As with single words, an idiom may sometimes be omitted altogether in the target text. This may be because it has no close match in the target language, its meaning cannot be easily paraphrased, or for stylistic reasons.

Some useful expressions for translation

Table 1. Using an Idiom of Similar Meaning and Form

English Idioms	Turkish Translation
1.be in heat	Kızmak(sıcakta olmak)
2. sell someone out	birini satmak

Table 2. Using an Idiom of Similar Meaning But Dissimilar Form

English Idioms	Turkish Translation	
1.bust a gut	canını çıkarmak	
2.pound someone's tail	kapısını çalmak	
3.keep someone in hot water	başını belaya sokmak	
4.have a stake in something	avantası olmak	
5.give a damn	gözünün yaşına bakmamak	
6.pants is full of ants	siniri tepesinde olmak	
7.give someone the eye	yanaşmak	
8.feel someone out	birini tartmak	
9.take the rap	başını belaya sokmak	
10.get the eye	birine iş atmak	
11.set someone back	patlamak(mal olmak)	
12.pass the time	takılmak	
13.swing someone for	gözünü boyamak	
14.make it stick	Becermek	
15.yellow as a frog belly	süt dökmüş kedi gibi	
16.lit intil your fren (light into someone)	sataşmak	
17.crazy as a wedge	kaçık	
18.roll your hoop	oyuncaklarınla oyna	
19.put nothing over on me	yuttuğumu sanma	
20.ain't worth a greased jack-pin	beş paralık değerin yok	
21.eat someone	canı sıkkın	

Table 3. Translation by Paraphrase

English Idioms	Turkish Translation
1.jungle-up	kamp kurmak
2.go nuts	Çıldırmak (tepesi atmak)
3.work up a stake	para kazanmak
4.blow someone's stake	para harcamak

5.blow in someone's jack	burnunu viski bardağına sokmak (para harcamak)	
6.live off the fatta the lan	ihtiyacımız olan her şey kendi toprağımızda olacak (bir eli yağda bir eli balda)	
7.be burned	sinirden çıldırmak	
8.I ain't got the poop no more	eski halim yok artık	
9.bum steer	yanlış bilgi	
10.poke someone's big ears into someone's business	koca kulaklarını içeri dikmek	
11.put something over	saklamak	
12.get nosey	meraklı olmak	
13.what the hell's he got on his shoulder?	bu adamın nesi var böyle?	
14.get licked	yenilmek	
15.get canned	işini kaybetmek	
16.not to be set up	havası iyi olmamak	
17.get the can	kovulmak	
18.hit the pocket	para denkleştirmek	
19.tangle with	kavga etmek	
20.give a damn	ilgilenmek	
21.roll up a stake	para biriktirmek	
22.kick someone out	göndermek	
23.yellow jackets in someone's drawers	gergin	
24.pants is crawling with ants	sinirlenmek	
25.what's eating on curley?	niye gelsin ki?(endişelendiren nedir?)	
26.set on the trigger of the hoosegow	adamı hapse sokar	
27.flat busted	hiç parası yok (cebi delik)	
28.kick off	Vasiyetname (dünyadan göçmek)	
29.lay off someone	bir şey sorma	
30.take a powder	uzaklara gitmek (toz olmak)	
31.give a hoot	düşünmek <i>(takmak)</i>	