On Developing the Translation Competence: A Case of EFL Learners

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this research paper is to report a study, which has been conducted very recently. The study aimed at examining the feasibility of the direct teaching of translation in developing the translation competences of the Yemeni EFL students. The study is quantitative and qualitative investigation, so it adopted a quasi-experimental design as a method for data collection and analysis. A purposive sample of 40 subjects was selected from the students who registered at the department of English language, college of education in Seiyun of Hadhramout University in Yemen. Prior to the commencement of the classroom intervention, all the subjects were given a pre-test after which they were subject to classroom training sessions lasted for an academic semester, and then the subjects were given a posttest. In order to test the effectiveness of the direct instruction and classroom training sessions on the students’ translation competence, the two tests were analyzed and their analyses were compared using descriptive statistics such as mean and standard deviation. The results show very significant points, which are context-specific, so their generalization is questionable. Finally, in the light of the findings, the study recommended some suggestions concerning syllabus updating, teaching methodologies, learning facilities and staff professional development.

Key words: Translation competence, translation syllabus and EFL learners

1. Introduction

Teaching translation to undergraduate students as component of English language programmes is not taken seriously by most, if not all, people who are implementing such programmes in Arab world countries, although producing competent users of English, who will become bilinguals by default, is one of the major objectives of any programme offered by colleges of arts, languages or education. However, it has been noticed that during the recent years that there is an increasing interest and concern in developing the translation competence of university students who learn English as a foreign language, and regard it as a basic constituent of the students’ linguistic competence. Thus, this topic has become a hot issue on the discussion table of people who are concerned with translation education/training and practices. Consequently, the task of preparing translators in formal settings such as classrooms has received considerable amount of concern in the last years.
2. The Study

The general theory of translation has a forward jump concerning the issue of ‘translation competence’ (TC) when it puts the bilingual competence of the translators as a mandatory requirement for good translating. However, this study attempted to look backward and investigated two issues. The first issue is to investigate the current situation that deals developing ‘translation competence’ (TC) of Yemeni undergraduates at HUST. The second issue is to propose a pedagogical frame for classroom practice through which the ‘bilingual competence of EFL students, which is a very important part of TC, can developed.

2.1 Statement of the Problem

The problem of the present study has two facets; one is academic or professional and the other is strategic. Regarding the academic or professional facet, it has been noticed during the last years that from hundreds of graduates who have a Bachelor degree in English language and its literature from (HUST) in Yemen, very few number are involved in the profession of translation and interpreting. And those who work in this filed often lack the required competences of dealing with translation. Additionally, this has greatly affected the graduates who become reluctant to work as translators. Concerning the second facet, the area where the study was conducted is full of oil companies, touristic landmarks and many historical places, in addition to a wide sector of business institutions, so there is a rapid growing need for translators, tourist guides and interpreters. However, there is a few number of translation offices and translators in Hadhramout to serve such sectors. This leads companies, institutions and agencies to hire translators and interpreters from outside the area the matter that has a real negative impact on local industry and the entire community.

2.2 Questions of the Study

The present study aimed at answering the following questions:

1) To what extent does the classroom intervention affect the translation competence of EFL students at Hadhramout University for Sciences and Technology (HUST)?
2) What is the feasibility of using explicit classroom teaching on the translation competences of EFL students at Hadhramout University for Sciences and Technology (HUST)?

2.3 Methodology of the Study

The present study aimed at examining the effectiveness of the classroom intervention on the translation competence of the EFL students at Hadhramout University for Sciences and Technology (HUST). To achieve this aim, a quasi-experimental design was used which followed certain procedures including pre-test, posttest and classroom teaching. In addition to, the study used some secondary data such as university personal observation. Apurposeful sample of 40 subjects was selected from the population of the students who registered at the department of English language, college of education in in Seiyun of Hadhramout University. However, the classroom experiment was done at the community college of Seiyun where three computer labs were available for online training.

2.4.1 Instruments of Data Collection

The study followed specific procedures for data collection starting with the pre-test construction and administration, moving to the classroom intervention, and the last procedure was the posttest construction and administration

2.4.1.1 The Pre-test

The pre-test construction was based on some considerations. First, the major objective of the pre-test was to diagnose and evaluate the current translation competencies of the students as well as their language competence. This could show their knowledge of the two languages (English and Arabic) and their translation skills as they deal with source text’s (ST) distinctive features, and when they construct the sentences of the target text (TT). Second, the test covered a couple of units selected from “Ghazala(2008) Translation as Problems and Solutions: A Textbook for University Students and Trainee Translators”, Special Edition. Third, the test questions were designed in accordance with the objectives set for each topic or text they deal with. The test includes seven questions, two of them have A and B sections. Each question or section addresses a specific translation problem that needs special knowledge /skill with the application of certain technique or procedure to answer.
2.4.1.2 The Classroom Experiment

The design and implementation of the classroom intervention based on the following three stages;

**Stages 1: Materials Covered:**
A number of units were selected from “Ghazala (2008) “Translation as Problems and Solutions: A Textbook for University Students and Trainee Translators”, Special Edition. There were some reasons behind the selection of this textbook. First, it is a textbook for university students and trainee translators. Second, the book is written for university students of translation whose first language is Arabic. Third, the book adopts a practical approach to translation and considers the whole subject in terms of problems and solutions, rather than in terms of general theory and application, so it tackles translation as a subject that creates problems of different types such as grammatical, stylistic and phonological, which demand suitable, practical and possible solutions. This approach, which is composed of problems and solutions of translation, is completely practical, possible and natural for dealing with texts of different types. Finally, the book is designed on a way that enables students and trainees to go smoothly from one problem to another so this raises their translation awareness, which is a central part of translation competence.

**Stage 2: Classroom Teaching**

Prior to the commencement of classroom teaching, a lecture entitled "Translator’s Tools" was delivered to the students. The essential tools and resources, which are actually a part of the selected book, were discussed with the students in groups using predictive method so that the students themselves reach into that pack of resources. Then the resources and tools were shortlisted, and distributed to them in a soft format of dictionaries, internet links and others.

The study adopted workshop techniques for teaching the classes, which requires the students to be divided into small groups. Then, to handle the lessons, the Think-Pair-Share Strategy (TPS) was used. According to Mazur (1997), Think-Pair-Share (TPS) is a collaborative learning strategy in which students work together to solve a problem or answer a question about an assigned reading. This technique requires students to (1) think individually about a topic or answer to a question, (2) share ideas with classmates in a form of discussion and 3) they share their conclusions with other groups’ members. This triple process was supposed to have the impact of raising the language awareness as well as the translation competence since it is an opportunity for the students to express oneself and building the self-confidence.

**Stage 3: Lesson plan**

The duration of the classes was one semester (14 weeks approximately). All lessons were planned to follow six stages; i) setting objectives and topic, ii) dividing the class into groups, iii) giving /explaining instructions, iv) group practice, v) reflections and vi) feedback. Table I below shows these stages with their explanations.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1: Lesson Plan Stages</th>
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<tr>
<td><strong>1. Setting Objectives and Topic:</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Objectives:</strong></td>
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<td>- For each topic introduced, there were learning objectives that should be introduced so that the students know exactly their own destination as well as become familiar with objective behind each difficulty/problem to be dealt with.</td>
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<td><strong>Topics:</strong></td>
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<td>- The students were introduced to the new topic in advance with a little wider notification and explanation to familiarize them with the specific knowledge area (science and technology, social, institutional, economic and/or political topics, and literary or philosophical.</td>
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<td><strong>2. Dividing the Class into Groups:</strong></td>
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<td>- The students were divided into groups to give the students a chance to Think, Pair and then Share their own experience. Then they had chance to collaborate, cooperate and express their own thoughts.</td>
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<td><strong>3. Giving /explaining Instructions:</strong></td>
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<td>- The students were given instructions and they were guided to deal with the tasks and topics.</td>
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4. Group Practice: - The students were asked to Think individually, browsing the text (scanning, skimming) and identifying the text type and style and the difficulties/problems.  
- The students were to Read the whole text at least twice.  
- The students were to do the translation tasks as specified.  
- All students were to involve and share their ideas within their groups.  
- Each group was asked to produce their final translation.  

5. Reflection: - The whole class was to reflect on the task. The students were given opportunities to speak and reflect on their works as a conclusion of what each group had accomplished.  
- Each group was given a chance to present what they have discussed among them  
- Other groups asked questions or comment when possible.  

6. Feedback: - The instructor gave a feedback on the overall class including remarks, information and possible model translation.  

The rationale behind this lesson plan was to turn the teaching method from traditional method to training workshops method. By doing so, the students were given a wide space for cooperative and collaborative practice. Other significant point is that the students were given chances to speak, defend, and share their ideas. The thing that enables them to develop self-confidence and team work spirit. For extra outside classroom practice, the students were asked to benefit from printed materials, software programmes, websites links, and other supporting tools. In this way, the students become interested in the topic and build positive attitude towards the translating act.

2.4.1.3 The Posttest  
Like the pre-test, the posttest construction was based on the material covered by the classroom intervention, and followed the same format of the pre-test to achieve the same objectives.

3. Literature Review  
This section is divided into three parts; the first part highlights some definitions, types and methods of translation whereas the second part concentrates on the definition of translation competence and its models, and part three reviewed some related previous studies.

3.1. Translation: Definitions, Types and Methods  
The American linguist Eugene Albert Nida is considered as a pioneer in the field of translation studies because his early works are devoted to establish a theory of translation that is subject to scientific description. He believes that the act of transferring the messages from one language to another can be described applying certain scientific methods such as descriptive analysis, Nida (1964). The most influential contribution of Nida to translation theory is the concept of the ‘dynamic equivalence’ upon which he defined translation as “the closest natural equivalent to the source language message, first, in terms of meaning, and second in terms of style” Nida (1964). Because he believes that “each language has its own idiosyncrasy, and anything that can be said in one language can be said in another”, the translated text should achieve the same effect that the original text can do, Nida (1964). The ‘dynamic equivalence’ theory of the translation focuses on how the message of the source text is said in the target text and receives the same response from the target audience. Accordingly, the principles of translation are firstly to find the closest equivalent words, and secondly to merge these words in a new target text that convey the same message of the original text. Although the ‘dynamic equivalence’ theory has affected the field of translation studies for years, the concept of ‘dynamic’ is understood as just having the same effect of the original text on the readers, and only restricted to communicating the original text’s message. This understanding later led to introducing the term ‘functional equivalence’, which it was thought to be more precise and accurate. In addition, Nida’s theory of translation,
which focuses on this equivalence, was not considered as a ‘general theory of translation’ since it does not fit for all types of translation such as literary. As he was formulating a translation theory based the closest natural equivalents, Nida (1964) became convinced that

“...no two languages are identical, either in the meanings given to corresponding symbols or in the ways in which symbols are arranged in phrases and sentences; it stands to reason that there can be no absolute correspondence between languages. Hence, there can be no fully exact translations”.

Nida had changed his attitude towards the notion of the ‘same response’ that translation would achieve on the readers to the belief that there is no ‘identical equivalents’ in translating between languages. He identified two types of equivalences; formal equivalence, and dynamic equivalence. The former type is concerned with the source text’s message in terms of form and content. For example, in translating poetry, the translator's task is to find the corresponding form and content in the target language. To perform this task, translation becomes a reproduction of the grammatical structures and words meanings in accordance with the source language context. The latter type is concerned with finding a closest natural equivalent besides the stylistic manners that achieves the same response on the readers that the original text can do. In this sense, the dynamic equivalence focuses on one goal that is the response equivalence rather than form equivalence. On this basis, the translators should pay careful attention to the readers’ language (form and styles) and culture (context). Therefore, they may render the same texts into different forms and styles in different environments according to their focuses, purposes and the audience.

Catford (1965) described translation form linguistic point of view in his book whose title (A Linguistic Theory of Translation, 1965), indicates this view. In this book, Catford (1965) defined translation as “an operation performed on languages; a process of substituting a text in one language for a text in another”. He also stated, “…any translation theory must draw upon a theory of language, so translation studies must be considered as a sub branch of linguistics”. For Catford the theory of translation should be a branch of comparative/contrastive linguistics. Catford has developed a theory of translation that based on the principles of Halliday’s systematic functional linguistics as he described translation as “a replacement of the textual material in one language (SL) by equivalent textual material in another language (TL)”. He applied the concepts of levels, ranks/scales, units and structures from systematic functional grammar to classify the translation types into three types in terms of extent, levels and ranks (see table (1) below.

**Table 2: Catford’s Division of Translation Types (1965)**

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Extent</th>
<th>Levels</th>
<th>Ranks</th>
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<tr>
<td>Full translation</td>
<td>Total translation</td>
<td>Free translation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Partial translation</td>
<td>Restricted translation</td>
<td>Literal translation /Word-for-word translation</td>
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</table>

Compared to Nida’s equivalence, Catford (1965) who defined translation as an activity of “replacing the textual material in one language (SL) by equivalent textual material in another language (TL)”, the equivalent textual material dimension is more emphasized to the equivalence theory of translation. He also differentiated between textual equivalence and formal equivalence;

“...textual equivalence refers to any target language (TL) text or portion of a text which is observed on a particular occasion to be the equivalent of a given source language (SL) text or portion of it. A formal correspondent (equivalence) , on the other hand, is any target language(TL) category (units, class, structure, element of structure ...etc), which can be said to occupy, as nearly as possible , the ‘same’ place in the ‘economy’ of the target language (TL) as the given source language (SL) category occupies in source language (SL)”.

Catford’s theory of translation has added the textual markers as determinants of the equivalent texts. This theory has concentrated on the sentence as a meaningful unit of language- not the text, because the sentence is the only grammatical unit that directly links the speech function with the situation or context. In this sense, the translator focuses on the sentences and their lexical and grammatical elements of the source language text, finds their equivalents in the target language, and finally form these equivalents in TL text.
Moreover, Catford regarded translation studies as a branch of applied linguistics, but this idea received some criticism later because the activity of translation is more complicated, so translation studies should be seen as an interdisciplinary academic field in order to cover other disciplines besides linguistics such as cultural studies. Newmark (1988) defined translation as a process of “rendering the meaning of a text into another language in the way that the author intended the text”, Newmark (1988). Newmark emphasized that the text analysis which pays considerable amount of attention to the author of the source text and what he intends to convey to the reader. He defines translation as “rendering the meaning of a text into another language in the way that the author intended the text. Newmark (1988) classified translation into eight types and he called them methods. Table (2) below shows Newmark’s translation types/methods with their explanations.

Table 3: Newmark (1988) classification of translation types/methods

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Description</th>
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<tr>
<td>i) Word-for-Word Translation</td>
<td>This type is used to construct a text as a pre-translation process. According to this type, the SL word order is preserved and the words translated singly by their most common meanings, out of context.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ii) Literal Translation</td>
<td>In this type of translation, the grammatical structures are preserved, that is, they are copied to their closest target language equivalents but the lexical words are again translated singly, out of context, as a pre-translation process. That is, it involves the conveyance of denotative meaning of a text from one language to another as in the sentence.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iii) Faithful Translation</td>
<td>This type transfers what the source-language writer intends faithfully i.e. it transfers the cultural words with preserving the grammatical structures and lexical features. It also attempts to reproduce the precise contextual meaning of the original within the constraints of the TL grammatical structures. Therefore, it may give an appropriate transference for those non-equivalent aspects.</td>
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<tr>
<td>iv) Semantic Translation</td>
<td>In this type, the translator pays more attention to the aesthetic value of the source text “that is, the beautiful and natural sounds of the SL text”. Semantic translation attempts to render the exact contextual meaning of the original as closely as the semantic and stylistic structures of the second language allow. It also remains within the original culture and assists the reader only in its connotations if they constitute the essential human message of the text.</td>
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<tr>
<td>v) Adaptation</td>
<td>- used in literary works where themes, characters and plots are usually preserved, the SL culture converted to the TL culture and the text rewritten. In other words, this type is applied when something specific to one language culture is expressed in a very different way that is appropriate to another language culture.</td>
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<tr>
<td>vi) Free Translation</td>
<td>- Free translation reproduces the content without the form since the translator in this case is free to add or cancel when he thinks that this is necessary.</td>
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<tr>
<td>vii) Idiomatic Translation</td>
<td>This kind of translation is usually used while translating dialects or idioms. This type &quot;reproduces the 'message' of the original but tends to distort nuances of meaning by preferring colloquialisms and idioms where these do not exist in the original&quot;.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>viii) Communicative Translation</td>
<td>Communicative translation attempts to render the exact contextual meaning of the original in such a way that both content and language are readily acceptable and comprehensible to the readership.</td>
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</table>
Bell (1991) agrees with Nida in using the term equivalence. He defines translation as "the replacement of a representation of a text in one language by a representation of an equivalent text in a second language." Also, Venuti (1995) defines translation as "a process by which the chain of signifiers that constitutes the source-language text is replaced by a chain of signifiers in the target language which the translator provides on the strength of an interpretation". Then he describes the aim of translation as something that is indispensable of cultural consideration. Texts undoubtedly occur in their own situations and culture, which indicates that translation, is not only concerned with linguistic materials, but also the culture in which the text emerged.

Munday (2001) points out that "the process of translation between two different written languages involves the translator changing an original written text, the source text, (ST) in the original verbal language, the source language, (SL) into a written text (the target text or TT) in a different verbal language (the target language or TL)". What Munday indicates in his clarification of the term translation supports strongly the interlingual translation, which is one of Jackobson's categories of translation: interlingual translation, interlingual translation and intersemiotic translation, Jackobson (1959), cited in Munday (2001). Interlingual translation is "an interpretation of verbal signs by means of some other language", Jackobson (1959), cited in Munday (2001).

Translation as an occupation or skill started to gain recognition as late as in the 20th century with the emergence of translation studies. Initial attempts at defining translation and proposing a theoretical background for translation led to a study of the way in which it could best be taught, in order to enhance the different skills acquired in one or more foreign languages and cultures, in relation to and in conjunction with the mother tongue, for the purpose of more effective communication. However, even in present times "translators are not yet sure whether translation is a trade, an art, a profession or a business" (Baker, 1992).

3.2 Translation Competence: Definition, Types and Models

The notion of ‘translation competence’ (TC) is generally understood as the expert knowledge and skill that translators should possess to carry out a translation activity. Moreover, some scholars attempted to define the term translation competence. For instance, Albir (1994) cited in Hatim (1997), defined TC as "the ability of knowing how to translate". Also, Chesterman (1996), cited in Hatim (1997), described TC as;

"...translation competence refers to an inter-lingual sub competence which is based on a comprehensive knowledge of the receptive SL and productive TL, and includes the text-pragmatic dimension, and consists of the ability to integrate the two monolingual competencies on a higher level of bilingual competence".

Furthermore, there is an increasing concern to investigate the translation activities that occur in the translator’s minds during the translating act. The most notable examples are Gerloff (1988) and Klings (1986), cited in House (2009), who studied the mental activities that take place in the translators’ minds during their translation. This research concluded with the fact translation is a mental activity that needs an ability to perceive, understand a text, which is called source/ original text, and the ability to find out the equivalent elements of this text, and the ability to reproduce it in the target language. The sum of these abilities constitutes the basic elements of the translation competence.

Many scholars have described translation competence (TC) as a complex concept, which was addressed by a number of scholars and researchers in the field of Translation Studies. Different scholars have perceived the term translation competence differently, and given different names. For example, some called it translational competence, and for others it is ‘translational knowledge’. However, most translation authors have come to an agreement the notion of translation competence, when compared to Chomsky’s linguistic competence, is acceptable, and can be described as the abstract concept that can be measured by performance. Moreover, because this performance involves a combination of a variable set of activities, it follows that to describe translation competence as a single entity is nearly uneasy.

In the scope of translation studies, translation competence is mostly described as a complex concept that requires knowledge of two or more languages and usually consists of two or more sub competencies. In general, the term TC is used to refer to “the underlying system of knowledge, abilities and attitudes required
to be able to translate”. For Hatim et al (1990), the concept of translation competence can be understood in terms of knowledge necessary to translate well. In addition, Bell (1991) defined TC in terms of five types of knowledge;

i) Target language knowledge  
ii) Text-type knowledge  
iii) Source language knowledge  
iv) Real-world knowledge  
v) Contrastive knowledge.

However, one of the widespread misconceptions concerning translating act) is that any specialist with a decent knowledge of a foreign language translate and produce texts in his second language. Although knowledge of a foreign or second language is the basic prerequisite for translation, it does not guarantee that the resulting product will be adequate for its readership.

The present study tried to review the most common definitions of translation competencies (TC) as introduced in the literature. To begin with, Bausch (1977) proposed basic characteristics of a professional translator. These characteristics include:

i) Linguistic competences: which includes grammatical and communicative competences  
i) Specific competences: which is concerned with extra-linguistic reality.  
i) Translational competence: which is “an autonomous ability that surpasses reading and writing.

Albrecht Neubert (2000) defined translational competence (TC) a complex set of knowledge and skills that requires the translators to possess in order to deal with a variety of topics and texts. However, for him, translators cannot be fully competent in all the fields they have to deal with. He proposes the following translation competence that consists of five sub competences:

Table 4: Neubert (2000) Model of Translation Competence

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Sub-competence</th>
<th>Description</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1) Language competence</td>
<td>This sub-competence includes the knowledge grammatical systems as well as repertoires, terminologies, syntactic and morphological conventions.</td>
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<tr>
<td>2) Textual competence</td>
<td>This type of competence emerges from and is intertwined with the linguistic competence, and represents an ability to define textual features of e.g. technical, legal or literary fields.</td>
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<tr>
<td>3) Subject competence</td>
<td>This type of competence stems from textual competence, it represents the familiarity with what the particular text is about, this concept covers both knowledge about the world (encyclopedic knowledge) and specialist knowledge.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4) Cultural competence</td>
<td>This requires that translators need to be specialists on cultures, because they act as mediators between various cultural backgrounds and presuppositions “technical texts are often culture-bound too”.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5) Transfer competence</td>
<td>This type of competence encompasses the strategies and procedures that allow translating the text from L1 to L2; it is the ability to perform translation as quickly and efficiently as possible. This competence is superordinate to the previous four competencies and has a transient nature, because it is “triggered off by the nature of the text” or by different parts of a single source text (ST).</td>
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Other researchers concentrated their attention on psychological and personal aspects of translator’s competence. For example, Kelly (2015) determined the following sub-competencies

i) Strategic sub-competence  
ii) Interpersonal sub-competence  
iii) Psycho physiological sub-competence  
iv) Instrumental-professional sub-competence  
v) Thematic sub-competence  
vi) Cultural sub-competence
Communicative and textual sub-competence.

The above model was supported by Russian authors who determined the translator’s competency as the unity of linguistic competency which includes i) text creating competency, ii) communicative competency, iii) technical competency and the personal component that provides both a specific psychological organization of a translator and the moral and ethical characteristics.

Campbell’s (1998) model highlights six interrelated TC sub-competencies 1) communicative competence in two languages, 2) extra-linguistic competence, 3) transfer competence, 4) instrumental competence, 5) psycho-physiological competence and 6) strategic competence. This model claims that the transfer and strategic competences are very essential components of the translation competence. In doing so, the transfer skills integrate all the linguistic non-linguistic characteristics, and the strategic skills affect the other competences in avoiding and solving problems.

A group of experts has elaborated basic framework with the set of six sub-competencies of translator’s competence as the latest initiative of the European Union considering the professional training of translators has established a quality label for university translation programs at master’s level that meet the agreed standards in education. The sub-competences are;

1) Translation service provision competence: How to market services, negotiate with a client, manage time and budget or handle invoicing
2) Language competence:
3) Intercultural competence: how to understand presuppositions or allusions
4) Information mining competence: how to search terminology databases and familiarity with a series of databases
5) Technological competence: how to use a particular translation tool
6) Thematic competence: knowledge about a specialist field.

The given sub-competences are valuable as they are practically oriented to the quality of the translators. of course, there are other views concerning the translation knowledge and skills, but due to the present limits, this paper attempted to present the general characteristic features, which cover to more or less the basic characteristics of TC that can help in preparing student translators to become do their translation tasks competently.

3.3 Previous Studies

Many studies have been conducted around the world to investigate the translation competence from a variety of perspectives and to attain different objectives. In relation to the present study’s objectives, this section reviews some studies.

Al-Emara (2014) has set some questions about translation competence as a key issue in translation studies, through studying the translation process as manifested by the replication of Campbell’s (1988) translation model. The study focused on the investigation of the applicability of Campbell’s model, which comprises three components: textual competence, disposition and monitoring, and aimed to test the components of the model on their counterparts in translation into L1, to see how these elements of TC function in the process of translation from English as an L2 into Arabic as an L1. The participants of the study were twenty-five MA student-translators who were native speakers of Arabic taking their courses at university in the UK. The researcher used different tools such as pilot study, experiment conducted after ethical approval obtained from Faculty Research Ethics Committee at the University of Leeds. The study concluded that the results of the investigation reported in it correspond with Campbell’s attempt to assess the dimensions of disposition and they allow placing the participants in specific places according to the quantity they possess of those dimensions.

Magaia’s (2014) study aimed at investigating the status of translation competence development among university students in order to contribute towards improving its efficacy by focusing in two aspects; one is the poor quality of students’ work shown at the training stage, and the bad quality of their final work submitted. The study design used qualitative methods in mean of questionnaire and developing students’ errors typology by following macro and micro-textual analysis for their translation. The study concluded that it was motivated by the few number of studies in respect of translation competencies and that they mostly focus
on Portuguese as a target language with ignorance to English as a source language which appeared to be unsatisfactory. Besides, the analysis showed that even after three-semester training, the students could not provide quality work due to two types of errors; source-language oriented error and target-language oriented error, which reveal that the students have inadequate bilingual competency. The study recommended that: (1) the university should create an enabling environment by providing infrastructure, technology and other research and learning equipment and materials, and that the translation studies curriculum should be reviewed to make it more conducive to translation competence development.

Ruschiensky (2015) conducted qualitative study on multilingual translation students in Montreal to learn more about their diverse backgrounds. The study addressed competence and creativity in translation of the translators as a multilingual, historically grounded subject. The sample consisted 72 translation students in Montreal who had to answer questionnaire questions in both English and French. So, the students had the chance to write in any of the two languages and to respond electronically by email, which was obtained from the emails list in the university; this had given them a chance to write as much or as less they wanted. In addition, there were interviews conducted to the population of the study in order to bring to light the potential relevance to the questions of competence and creativity in translation. The interviews were done twice; once before the programme and the other after to see the effect of it. They reveal a clear portrait that students’ socio-cultural backgrounds, work histories had influenced their translation competence and creativity. Besides, the study results provide a rich portrait of multilingual translation students’ backgrounds, ideas and feelings about languages, about their sense of self and identity in different languages, and about how they relate their personal experiences and identities to larger socio-cultural contexts.

4. Analysis, Results and Discussion

This section presents the analysis of data collected by the pre-test and the posttest. To achieve this, descriptive statistics such as mean, standard deviation and the t-tests, were used to find out the results to which the discussion referred, and the link of the social statistics website was used for online analysis (http://www.socscistatistics.com/effectsize/Default3.aspx).

To begin with, Table (5) below is considered as the main table in this analysis since it shows the mean, standard deviation values and p-value for every single question of the two tests (pre-test and posttest). So, it will be used as a reference for getting the results. For the primary results, the mean and standard deviations of the two tests are compared to find out the p-value for each question. The comparison resulted in that for question 1, the mean and standard deviation values were 6.90±2.32 respectively, whereas these values significantly increased at posttest measurement to 11.83±2.05 with p = 0.001. The mean and standard deviation values of question 2 of pretest were 8.63±2.18 respectively at pretest measurement, whereas these values significantly increased to 11.58±2.40 at posttest measurement. In question 3 the mean and standard deviation values were 1.28±2.15 respectively at pretest, whereas these values significantly increased to 13.43±2.31 at posttest. For question 5 the mean standard deviation values were 2.15±3.10 respectively at pretest, whereas they significantly increased to 10.88±6.57 at posttest. In question 6 the mean and standard deviation values were 1.38±1.15 respectively, whereas they significantly increased to 6.80±2.16 at posttest. In question seven, the mean and standard deviation values were 40.03±10.32 respectively, where as they significantly increased to 70.7±12.09.

Second, the results of the above analysis show that the students have overperformed in the posttest except in question 4 where the mean and standard deviation values were 7.03±4.07 respectively in the pre-test. There was increase in the mean value and a decrease in the standard deviation to 11.13±2.65 respectively at posttest. This fact may reflect the nature of the question four itself.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tests</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>P Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Q1</td>
<td>Pre-test</td>
<td>6.90</td>
<td>2.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Posttest</td>
<td>11.83</td>
<td>2.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q2</td>
<td>Pre-test</td>
<td>8.63</td>
<td>2.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Posttest</td>
<td>11.58</td>
<td>2.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q3</td>
<td>Pre-test</td>
<td>1.28</td>
<td>2.15</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Third, from table (5) above, it can be elicited that the subjects did well in the posttest after they received direct instruction and training on translation skills and knowledge. However, the p-values show that the difference between the subjects' performance in the two tests is not that significance since the p-values are all less than 0.05 (p < 0.05). Moreover, table (6) which shows the p-value of the total questions of the two tests proves that the difference between the two tests performance is not significant (p = 0.011 < 0.05). Therefore, the results of this study although indicate that there is a feasibility of using the training and direct instruction methodology in translation classes, still the feasibility of such approach needs more research and investigation. However, taking the overall performance of the subject in the two tests as an evidence for the classroom intervention, the feasibility of direct instruction and training is clearly seen in the t-value (4.454) (table 6) of the two tests which indicate that there is a significant difference in the subjects' performance.

Forth, since the major objective of the present study is to examine the extent to which direct classroom teaching of translation competence affects the EFL students' performance in translating between English and Arabic languages. The effect size measure is used to find out the degree of such extent. Cohen (1992) defined effect size is as “a standard measure which can be calculated from any number of statistical output. One type of the effect size is the standardized mean difference between two groups using the units of standard deviation. This difference is referred to as d or Cohen’s d.”. The values calculated for the effect size are generally range between -3.0 to 3.0, and the interpretation depends on the research questions.

To calculate the effect size of the classroom intervention (independent variable) on the development of the students’ translation competence (dependent variable), Cohen’s d measure, Glass’ Delta and Hedges’ G were used. The rationale behind this was to get an accurate value of the effect size. This helps answer the major question of this study- to what extent does the classroom intervention affect the translation competence of EFL students at Hadhramout University for Sciences and Technology (HUST), Yemen. This website (http://www.socscistatistics.com/effectsize/Default3.aspx) was used to calculate the value online. The mean value (M), standard deviation units (SD) and the sample size (n) of the two tests (see table 6) were used to calculate the effect size. Accordingly, the three formula suggested by statisticians used as follows:

i) Cohen’s \( d = (70.7-40.03) / 11.239895 = 2.728673 \)

ii) Gates’ \( \Delta = (70.7-40.03) / 12.09 = 2.536807 \)

iii) Hedges’ \( g = (70.7-40.03) / 11.239895 = 2.728673 \)

By using the approximation procedure, the above values of effect size will be Cohen’s \( d = 2.7 \), Gates’ Delta = 2.5 and Hedges’ g = 2.7 respectively. Cohen (1992) offered three varied meanings of the effect size values; 0.8 large, 0.5 moderate, and 0.2 small or low.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Paired Differences</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Std. Deviation</td>
<td>Std. Error Mean</td>
<td>95% Confidence Interval of the Difference Lower Upper</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pair 1</td>
<td>Pre-test &amp; posttest</td>
<td>1.39</td>
<td>4.357</td>
<td>0.312</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6: Paired Sample t-test Results of the pre-test and the posttest
Table (7) Comparison of the total Performance of the Pre-test and Posttest

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Pretest</th>
<th>Posttest</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>P Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>Pass</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>40.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>30</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>10.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fall</td>
<td></td>
<td>28</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>70.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>70</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>12.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>40</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Finally, based on the above results, the effect size of this study is 2.7 which is considered as large, therefore, this proves that the direct classroom instruction and training has impacted the translation competence of the EFL students at Hadhramaut University for Sciences and Technology (HUST) to an extent which is reasonable in relation to the implications that accompanied the study implementation.

5. Implications and Conclusion

Although the results of the present study indicate that the direct instruction and training improves the students’ translation competence, there are some implications accompanied the implementation of the study. First, in order to adopt direct instruction technique and workshop-based training sessions as a methodology in translation classes, we need well preparation in terms of course design, materials, equipment and facilities. And this includes online and offline learning sources such as electronic dictionaries and translation applications. Second, there must be practical considerations for the large number of students who will be divided into small groups or sections, and this may need additional classes or sessions the matter may lead to hire more teaching staff. Third, the results of the study have shown that the students levels of proficiency of both of languages and translation need to be improved so as to better participate in workshop sessions and deal with translation tasks. Forth, the most important implication of this study is concerned with the feasibility if implementing such instruction technique and workshop-based sessions as a methodology for teaching translation to undergraduate students whose other types of competences such as linguistic and communicative are not yet well-developed. Finally, it has been noticed during the implementation of this study that the students, and perhaps some teaching staff, did not accept this methodology instead they suspected it as a formal approach of teaching and assessing.

However, in order to overcome such implications for future research and practice, the following recommendations are suggested by the current study;

1) changing the teaching methodology, at least in translation classes, from traditional teacher-centered to training workshop-based sessions and design or redesign the existing materials to suit such approach, and modify the learning activities and tasks.

2) Changing the students and the teachers’ attitudes towards the theory of cooperative and collaborative learning, and making them accept its pedagogical frame for classroom practice not only for translation courses but also for language and culture courses. This will enable learners develop intercultural and linguistic competences which are basic components of the ultimate translation competence.

3) The study implications have indicated that developing the translation competence of university students requires careful selection and presentation of materials that cover a wide spectrum of topics of different genres. Therefore, changing the existing material into interesting, enjoyable and challenging textbooks will help both teachers and students overcome such an implication.

4) Finally, in order to produce competent translators, the students should know that they need to develop fundamental skills such as reading and writing in the two languages. Besides, they must be technologically literate so as they become able to use and consult electronic dictionaries and translation websites and applications.

7. References

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