

TYPES OF TRANSLATION AND TEXT FORMS IN THE
ENVIRONMENT OF MACHINE TRANSLATION (MT)

J.C. Sager

Centre for Computational Linguistics
University of Manchester Institute
of Science and Technology

Human translation consists of a number of separate steps which begin with the identification of the text type, the purpose and intention of the text, the subject area, etc. As there are types of texts there are also types of translation, which do not necessarily match directly. Since the human and machine translation processes differ so must the criteria which determine translatability. What criteria are relevant for MT and can they be derived from observations of the human effort?

INTRODUCTION

This paper is basically concerned with efficiency of translation seen as one aspect of the effectiveness of interlingual communication. To this end we are mainly concerned with the product of translation and the adequacy of this product for its intended purpose. This product is, however, diverse, the diversity being the result of varying emphasis on the separate steps of the total complex process. In recent years this process has become variously assisted or amenable to assistance by information technology. A previous Aslib conference was concerned with the role of text processing in translation, this conference concentrates on the assistance offered by MT systems. In order to assess the right point of intervention, the degree of machine assistance or even the possibility, acceptability and cost-effectiveness of the replacement of the human product by machine output in particular cases, we have to analyze the various steps of the human process. We also have to relate the adequacy of the product to the cost of the mediation which should correspond both to the use made of and the significance attributed to this communication by the originator and the recipient of the message thus mediated.

We therefore start from two ends: our experience, however limited, of MT, and an analysis of human translation in its dual sense of process and product. We accept that various forms and systems of machine translation exist, and are fully used for limited objectives. We postulate that under certain conditions MT offers a viable alternative, partial alternative or supplement to human translation. Some systems are constructed with a controlled language and thus satisfy the limited expectations for which they have been planned. Experience with other forms of MT has shown that some systems produce different types of output (Qualities?) according to certain properties of the input texts. We can assume that an identification of these properties may produce criteria for the selection of texts suitable for optimal processing. The question is whether these

positive properties can be associated with readily identifiable text categories or even whether a 'grammar' of such properties can be constituted which may lead either to acceptable writing rules for existing text categories or alternatively to the selection of texts which conform to this 'grammar'.

Since MT is seen here as one of the possibilities of interlingual mediation - used in parallel with human translation - we must also identify the diverse types of translation produced by man and machine and attempt to correlate them to types of texts suitable for one or another form of mediation. It is, of course, possible that different types of translation may be applicable to the same types of texts and vice versa. For machine translation this approach is clearly tentative and speculative, but it should be possible to indicate areas of expectation and construct appropriate experiments to observe and direct research in MT in this light. The immediate objective is to provide orientation for MT work which is based on optimizing efforts and results so as to avoid the disappointments of the past which resulted from too broad a basis of research and too indiscriminate claims for the applicability of MT. The still widespread scepticism about the practical value of MT reinforces this pragmatic and problem-oriented approach.

In the same way as we distinguish different types of human translation, we can distinguish various forms of MT, defined here as follows:

Full MT: machine output without human intervention which goes directly to the end user;

Controlled language MT: the input text written according to certain rules which produces output of similar characteristics; the output used directly by the end user;

Partial MT or Machine-assisted MT: human editing applied before, during or after machine processing; the subtypes Pre-edited MT, Interactive MT and Post-edited MT may occur in mixed form.

These types have yet to be subdivided by function.

EVALUATION AND COMPARISON

Most comparisons between human and machine translation are misleading, others are simply unhelpful. If we consider them as two different methods of achieving similar objectives we may keep human translation separate from machine translation, each requiring its different types of mediator. The source text for translation may be the same, since all texts are in principle susceptible to human translation, but we are now trying to identify text categories particularly suitable for machine translation processing. Comparison of the target language product is gratuitous and has led to much dispute. MT currently aims at two products: output suitable for human post-editing, and immediately usable output which is clearly recognized as different in type from human translation. Nevertheless, by whichever methods one chooses to describe this information transfer between natural languages, the final objective of the two processes is the same, and comparisons will and must be made by the end user on the adequacy of the product for its purpose and on the cost-effectiveness of the operation.

A great deal of time has been spent on the comparative evaluation of the quality of MT. Much of this effort was misdirected because it was based on fallacious principles. There is no single standard for human translation with which MT output can be compared, and "standard" has been expressed as an abstract notion of quality which in practice does not exist. Quality of translation is as elusive a notion as quality of the source text and has to be replaced by the criterion of adequacy for the intended purpose which is applicable to various types of translation, and comparisons are only valid if the specific purposes and cost and time factors are comparable.

Adequacy comprises basic requirements such as fidelity or accuracy of transfer of information and intention, stylistic appropriateness and intelligibility, most of which cannot be globally assessed in a single operation as this would require an expert in the subject matter who knows the languages involved in the transfer, i.e. a human evaluator who does not need the translation and who would therefore not be a genuine user of the product.

Equally important factors are reading time by the end user where types of reading have to be considered, e.g. texts written for quick reading, cursory scanning, single reading, repeated reading, as well as the intended range of readers and the size of readership.

Economic factors of production cost are difficult to relate: there is insufficient information available on the true cost of MT system development, there are no data on running cost and maintenance, and, of course, there is little information on volume of translation carried out. Cost of production criteria alone are likely to favour full or controlled language MT, especially if the reading time for the end user is either not significantly longer than that for human translation or irrelevant to consideration. But we do not know whether reading skills of full or controlled language MT can be developed to allow quicker reading, and the time factor of speed of production of MT, i.e. the time a reader has to wait for a translation to be produced, may also be significant. There is in addition the factor of multilingual MT output which we know from TITUS heavily influences cost calculations.

In partial MT comparisons are only valid if edited MT is to serve as a full substitute to human translation and must take into account the entire process of MT, including maintenance of dictionaries. Various standards of MT editing may also produce new subtypes of translation which will further complicate comparative evaluations.

Methods of assessment are therefore as difficult to establish as criteria of evaluation. The most complete survey of existing thought on this subject has been produced by Georges van Slype as a result of a workshop organized by the Commission of the EC as part of its First Multilingual Action Plan. The Translation Bureau of the Federal Government of Canada in Ottawa is sponsoring a study of methods of evaluation of translations, a preliminary report of which appeared in the summer issue of META.

In the context of this conference the factor of acceptability of MT output to post-editors is important, but we must consider the effect on productivity of post-editors in the long term.

Experience in this field is limited at present and fully trained post-editors may add to our experience during this conference. The experience with translators and revisors in the Commission of the EC was on the whole negative, but the type of source text and consequently the types of translation used as samples may have been inadequate.

In general, editing of MT involves a variety of different skills and functions which are not comparable to revision of human translation. It can be performed, before, during or after machine processing of texts. It is generally assumed that editing is suitably performed by translators specially trained for the job. This claim has yet to be investigated and training patterns will have to be established. Systems designed for human intervention in the actual process or as part of the overall process of translation must take into account existing skills and training facilities or alternatively specify realistic job descriptions for these tasks.

There is no doubt that translators have a role to play in the performance of machine-assisted translation, in the post-editing of MT output from systems designed for this type of human intervention and possibly also in the selection of source texts for one or another form of machine processing. Whether translators can make a direct contribution to the actual development of MT systems is yet to be established.

Generally therefore, comparisons between MT and human translation are inevitable but should be made with great caution and only in areas where comparison is useful and productive. Evaluation of MT can only partly be made in relation to human translation as other factors also have to be considered.

TYPES OF TRANSLATION

Translation is a process of mediation applied to existing texts which are variously modified to generate derived texts. This concept of 'derived text' taken over from information science is useful here because it implies the continued existence of the original text, the possibility of envisaging different degrees of modification and, hence, a different function for the new product or products. By extending the concept we can also redefine the role of the translator as that of a language and communication mediator comparable to technical writers, abstractors, precis writers, etc - in practice many translators perform such a double role. We can also widen the concept of translation to comprise three categories of modifications to texts:

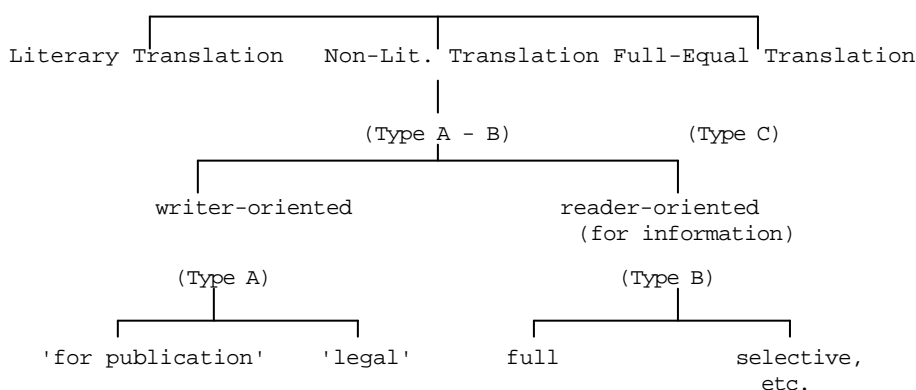
- a) those which are inevitable for linguistic and pragmatic reasons - the traditional notion of translation and the main concern of translation theory;
- b) those which are deliberate and planned according to the use intended for the derived text - the practical types of translation such as full, selective, abstract, gist; and, of course,
- c) those which are accidental; i.e. the errors produced through negligence or misunderstanding, to which we have to add those unforeseen by MT designers.

The type of mediation to be applied is determined by the status of the derived text in relation to the original and this status is generally fixed beforehand either by the writer of the original text or by the reader of the derived text, who in certain cases may act in agreement or as a single user. According to its status the derived text is considered as:

- Type A: - a full substitute, as if it were a new original with an independent status, possibly to be subjected to further derivation. This is the type usually specified by the writer, and produced by the translator in the absence of detailed specifications. This type is normally considered as the only genuine translation and all translations are usually evaluated by the criteria applicable to this type.
- Type B: - an alternative to the original with the same or different functions. This category is often specified in some detail by the informed reader and may require two forms of derivation simultaneously, i.e. linguistic transfer and adaptation, reduction, or selection of some sort. In this case the translator simultaneously works as an information scientist. This type of translation is probably the most widely used mode and offers scope for many subtypes some of which may be suitable for machine or machine assisted translation.
- Type C: - a full equal, coexisting with the original, so that after the process of mediation the distinction between original and derived text disappears. This category is frequent in international organizations and some legal documents but is otherwise not heavily in demand.

Any derived text is commissioned and the translator receives a request for mediation with a more or less detailed specification as to its purpose and can adjust his work accordingly. Such requests come either from writers of texts who want to send messages in another language or from readers who have received a message they cannot understand. We have characterized type A as writer-oriented and type B as reader-oriented; type C is neutral in this respect. These two positions are also represented, however roughly, in the conventional categorizations of translations as "for publication" and "for information", in that the former is specified for wider, often unknown, use and the latter for a limited number of, often known, readers and for specific uses which may be further qualified as annotated, reduced, selective, etc. This distinction is well exemplified by letters. Outgoing correspondence is writer-directed and requires a fully independent foreign language text; incoming correspondence is very often translated in gist form only, because the reader expects the translator to select the relevant information for him.

If we relate this general categorization of translations to the various types established by the profession, we find confirmation of these major types and further subdivisions within them, which cannot be fully discussed here. We also find some correlation between types of translation and broad categories of texts and subjects and can thus tentatively construct a mixed hierarchy of translation types, as follows:



We have made no attempt to characterize literary translation which is a well-established category of no particular interest to us here. This grouping/categorization is preliminary and has to be developed further to include types of MT output with different functions from those listed here.

The process of human translation has been divided by Bathgate (1980) into the following stages:

(SL text) tuning - analysis - understanding - terminology -
 - restructuring - checking - discussion (TL text)

This 'operational' model claims to represent the different activities undertaken by the human translator. They overlap and may alter in their order. 'Tuning' is explained as the preparation any writer needs to adjust to the task in hand and is thus part of the reading process for the production of derived texts. 'Discussion' with a subject specialist is a desirable part of the revision process.

Simpkin (1980) proposes a simpler model which, however, largely corresponds to the operational model and will serve our purposes.

Reading - Research - Dictionary Look-up - Translation - Revision
 dictation Editing
 Proofreading

It is obvious that the time required for each stage varies with the type of translation and the degree of specialisation of the human translator. We note that translation Type A is heavy on research, whereas a full translation of Type B usually requires less overall time, especially research, revision and editing.

According to the amount of re-writing conditioned by cultural requirements, Type A may lend itself to machine-assisted translation. The full translation of Type B may, in some cases, be replaceable by full MT if readers find factors such as immediate availability of the translation and lower cost outweighing the advantages of the time saved in reading a selective translation. Selective translation requires highly skilled mediators who may be too expensive and not

readily available. Type C is often carried out by teams of translators and legal experts but they, too, may find machine-assisted translation helpful as it may suggest consistency of terminology and phrasing analogous with previously translated documents.

From this analysis we also derive a number of other observations. Some translations are not translations in the conventional sense, but are concerned with the production of derived texts, i.e. versions into which a number of non-linguistically motivated changes are introduced by omission, addition, substitution or transposition which arise from particular conventions and special user requirements. This re-writing type of translation has to be identified as it does not readily lend itself to MT treatment. Alternatively MT may produce new low-cost types of translation which may satisfy a demand for information hitherto neither identified nor met.

It would be useful to quantify the types of translation for any large-scale user group in order to be able to estimate whether it is economically viable to develop purpose-specific MT systems for them.

TEXT FORMS

Translation types are applied to identifiable text categories. When we write a text or envisage the translation of a text we first identify the text form and adjust our subsequent behaviour accordingly, the tuning process defined by Bathgate above. We read a newspaper differently than a specific report and we also identify a text for translation as requiring this or that form just as a writer knows that he has to write, e.g. instructions for use and that these have a different form than e.g. a sales brochure for the same product. The text form signals the intention of the author. As soon as we have identified a text we have certain expectations of tone, mode of expression, deliberate redundancy, presentation of facts and arguments, even of layout into paragraphs and columns. The presence of these features assists our understanding, their absence may lead to a misinterpretation of the intention of the message or even the content.

The characteristics of particular text forms complement subject or vocabulary specifications so that we know that a certain subject field is usually represented by a limited number of text forms. We know that different linguistic communities, even the closely related European ones, have different categories of text forms and varying conventions even for those we consider parallel, such as business letters, scientific articles or contracts.

As readers we are thus more or less familiar with a number of text forms and can therefore understand them; as writers or translators we are better acquainted with a smaller number of forms and know the norms which govern the permitted variations. The injunction or practice of translators to translate only into their mother tongue is principally determined by the greater familiarity with text forms and their permitted variations that they have in their mother tongue.

While there are monolingual style sheets and writing manuals for a number of text forms, the field of text grammars has only recently been opened up by linguistics. On the interlingual level there are a few contrastive grammars but they are largely concerned with

phrases and sentences. No contrastive grammar has yet been written for text forms, and skills in translating or writing in a foreign language are therefore largely acquired by observation and experience.

While in theory several types of translation may be applicable to a given text form, in practice there are established patterns of translation which are often institutionalized and divided into outgoing and incoming material. Successful translation departments and freelance translators have analyzed their customers' needs and offer the services considered most appropriate to each circumstance. They know from experience which subject field and text forms require regularly a certain type of translation or mediation.

There are a number of questions which require further study. How, or by what features do we recognise a text form and can such a process be automated?

What are the adjustments we make before reading and translating? We understand a selective or gist translation only if we know what text form it comes from. The knowledge that we are dealing with a letter, a contract, a leader or an article is essential for interpreting the content of a selective translation and for attributing the correct intention to the message. Equally, it is clear that we must know how a letter is written in a target language before we can produce it. The source language original does not provide us with sufficient guidance; in fact, a glance at previous correspondence and a list of the points to be made in a letter may be enough to produce a satisfactory translation.

What is the correlation between subject field, text forms and translation types? Are there other areas with sufficient volume of demand beside the one identified by TITUS for such a subject, text form and translation type specific system? Our increased capacity for machine analysis of texts - a by-product of MT research - may indeed assist in the collection of the necessary data for the production of the monolingual and contrastive text grammars we need for improvements and further sophistication of MT.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, and at the beginning of this conference which will suggest many new ideas, I should like to draw attention to the implications of all those observations for MT evaluation and future MT development.

Different forms of mediation lead to new types of products (of translation). These products must be assessed for their adequacy, as the end user is rarely in a position to do so.

As there are different types - not qualities - of human translation, there are different types of MT, each designed for specific purposes. The present diversity of approaches to MT development should therefore be reflected in types of output for established or recognized uses.

For the practical purposes of assessing adequacy of translation, the division of texts by subject fields is of limited use and has to be supplemented by divisions into text forms and types of translation suitable for optimal information transfer.

Types of translation relate to forms of texts with their own grammars which are preferential subsets of general usage with some subject-specific forms established by norms of usage.

The lexical and syntactic choices made by the skilled human translator on the basis of his recognition of the subject, the text form and the translation type must be replicated in MT development either by allowing for human intervention, subdivision of dictionaries and grammars or by separate systems. Evaluation of human translation and MT will be facilitated by the development and definition of types of translation appropriate to each method.

Analysis and formalization of text-form-related types of translation will lead to categories of derived texts suitable for interlingual communication. The end user's knowledge of these categories will permit him to specify more clearly the type of translation suited for his needs and thus increase his satisfaction with the product.

The diversity of products of translation will increase with development of MT systems. The user must be given a choice of viable alternatives which he can only exercise if he has full knowledge of all the translation types available together with the various time and cost factors.

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