



The International Journal for  
Translation & Interpreting  
Research  
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# The application of consciousness-raising in teaching translation in a Vietnamese tertiary English language program

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DOI: 10.12807/ti.115201.2023.a10

**Abstract:** The study explores the application of consciousness-raising (CR), an effective teaching method in language teaching, into teaching translation. In language teaching, CR involves an attempt to draw students' attention to textual features. Studies present diverse evidence for the effectiveness of CR in language teaching. The current study incorporates CR in workshops on translation and investigates whether students are aware of specific aspects of the translation process after the workshops. The methodology was based on a contrastive examination of a qualitative analysis of students' written and spoken reflections on the translation tasks and students' translation solutions both before and after the workshops. The study demonstrated that after the workshops, the students commented on some text features that had been introduced which they had not expressed awareness of before the workshops. The students also showed an awareness of some translation strategies, such as foreignisation and domestication, that were taught during the workshops even though they did not use all of these when completing the post-workshop translation task. Students noticed and applied features that were less complex and more salient. This paper presents the practical implications of the study for translation material development and curriculum design within the research context as well as similar language programs.

**Keywords:** Consciousness-raising; teaching translation; translator education; translation process; textual features; translation strategies.

## 1. Introduction

Teaching translation often encounters methodological constraints in many contexts (Chen, 2010; Ho & Bui, 2013; Pham & Tran, 2013; Wongranu, 2017). With their view of translation largely influenced by the linguistic approach to translation, both lecturers and students tend to prioritise the semantic accuracy of translation over other requirements of a translation task. The lecturer may play a dominant role in a translation class where students are dependent on their lecturer's explanation of vocabulary and grammatical structures of the source text (ST) and as to what encompasses a "correct" translation or target text (TT). Examining the case of teaching translation in Vietnam, Hoang (2020) and Le (2018) attributed the aforesaid to many gaps including limited time spent on translation courses, lecturers' lack of intensive training in translation studies and out-of-date coursebooks. According to these authors, Vietnamese students seem to demonstrate a lack of involvement in the translation class which does not usually overtly present elements of the translation process to students. Students tend to lack a critical analysis of text features and their impacts on

translation decisions. Therefore, consciousness of text features and what is involved in the translation process should be taken into consideration when teaching translation. Consciousness-raising (CR) or drawing learners' attention to particular features has been utilised in many language teaching contexts due to diverse evidence that it develops learners' language competence. The use of CR in teaching translation should, therefore, be also examined.

In order to deal with problematic translation teaching practices in Vietnam and explore the effectiveness of CR in teaching translation, the author, a lecturer of translation at a Vietnamese university of foreign languages, implemented a study that incorporated the principle of CR to raise students' awareness of the translation process through CR workshops. In this context, translation is considered a skill rather than a means in language learning. This paper presents the function of CR in teaching translation or more specifically, how CR influenced participating students' identification of certain textual features and aspects of translation.

The findings may add to studies which have identified the mutual influence between language teaching and translation teaching practices. Findings from one field of practice have been implemented in the other due to similarities and closeness of the two fields (Colina, 2002). Language learning and translating both emphasise learners' ability to communicate (Carreres & Noriega-Sánchez, 2011; Colina, 2002). The two activities also require grammatical competence (knowledge of linguistic aspects of languages), sociolinguistic competence (understanding of the social contexts and cultures), discourse competence (knowledge of text types and text type conventions) and strategic competence (strategies to enhance communication) (Canale, 1983; Canale & Swain, 1980 cited in Carreres, 2014).

The main section of this paper starts with a discussion of the notion of CR in language teaching and the translation process, before presenting research methods used to collect data on the application of CR.

## **2. Consciousness-raising (CR)**

Explicitness plays a role in the framework of formal instruction (Ellis, 1998, as cited in Ellis, 2008, p. 869). "Explicit options" refer to direct explicit instruction (deductive approach) and indirect explicit instruction (inductive approach). In the former, the learners are provided with the metalinguistic explanations of rules of the target feature before practising the use of the target feature. In the meantime, the latter, which is known as inductive instruction, allows the learners to access data illustrating the target feature before discovering the rule(s) for themselves. Ellis' explicit options are in line with the definition of CR presented by Rutherford and Sharwood Smith (1988, p. 107): "the deliberate attempt to draw the learner's attention specifically to the formal properties of the target language". Ellis (2002) also differentiates between "consciousness-raising" and "practice". During practice, learners are asked to produce sentences containing the focused grammatical features and receive feedback on their production. During CR tasks, on the other hand, learners are provided with examples that illustrate the focused grammatical features and explicit rules about the features. They are expected to attempt to understand the features and may be asked to articulate the rules that explain the features.

There is evidence that CR, or explicit instruction, which has been used widely to develop students' language competence, is more effective than implicit instruction (Mitchell, Myles & Marsden, 2013). The effectiveness of CR has been demonstrated in a diverse range of research on the teaching of different aspects including grammar and syntax (Ansarin & Arasteh, 2012;

Fatemipour & Hemmati, 2015), vocabulary (Hadi & Iman, 2013; Mahvelati & Mukundan, 2012), pragmatic competence (Narita, 2012; Takimoto, 2006), communication strategies (Mosiori, 1991), as well as language learning strategies (Flaitz, Feyten, Fox & Mukherjee, 1995).

Studies in language teaching show a number of factors that hinder learners' awareness including low-frequency (where frequency denotes how often the item occurs), complexity, differences between first language (L1) and second language (L2), low perceived salience (where salience denotes how easy the feature is to recognise), and redundancy (where an item is not essential for conveying meaning) (Mitchell, Myles & Marsden, 2013). Among these factors, complexity needs clear elaboration (DeKeyser, 2017; Michel, 2017; Mitchell et al., 2013). Complexity can be subjective (caused by the learner's individual characteristics in acquiring a linguistic structure) or objective (concerned with the properties of L2 items) (Michel, 2017; Pallotti, 2015). This study elaborates on the dimensions of complexity and other factors which influence students' noticing of features and aspects of the translation process in answering the question: Which features and aspects of the translation process do the students consider while translating after CR workshops?

This study is situated in the field of teaching translation rather than language teaching. CR in translation teaching differs from that in language teaching in some respects. While CR in language teaching directly enhances learners' language performance including the use of vocabulary and structure in communication. CR in translation teaching indirectly impacts students' translation products through enhancing students' awareness of the features and processes involved in the translation process. For example, noticing some textual features may require students to make certain translation choices when undertaking a translation task. The next section presents how CR has been used in teaching translation and the features of the translation process that students were introduced to in the study.

### **3. CR in translation teaching and the translation process**

In teaching translation, students' attention has been drawn to many types of features in translation. Colina and Lafford (2018) illustrate examples of translation activities that focus on the effects of contextual features (e.g., text, author, reader, and function) on understanding and producing texts, which is applicable to both language learning and translating. The authors demonstrate how authentic texts are constructed in various genres, fields and contexts, exposing students to different purposes and target readership/target audience in translation. Petrocchi (2014) incorporates text analysis and extratextual elements based on Nord's (2005) model in his specific class procedures. The author indicates the need for "training students' minds and making them more flexible (through brainstorming) so that they can acquire the methods necessary to face any text" (Nord, 2005, pp. 100-101). Similarly, research by Chen (2010) aimed to make students "reali(s)e" and "identify" text types and text functions and increase students' awareness of textual differences in Chinese and English through pre-translation analysis. Generally, the issue of CR has been discussed in translation teaching. However, there has been a dearth of research to date as to how CR works in translation teaching, or which features of translation are more easily taught with the aid of CR. This article, therefore, discusses the factors influencing students' noticing of the translation process.

The study aimed to raise students' awareness of the translation process by means of CR workshops (please see section 4.3 for more detail). Gile (2009) explains that the actual translation process involves the translator reading the

whole ST to identify problems and then attempting to solve them; therefore, the translation process can refer to both identifying problems and problem-solving. A translation problem refers to a text segment (verbal or non-verbal) that is either at micro level (i.e., a text segment) or at macro level (i.e., at the text level) and that requires the translator to consciously apply a justified translation strategy (González-Davies & Scott-Tennent, 2005). Therefore, there are interrelated counterparts of problems and strategies. In translating, problems and difficulties can be identified in both phases: comprehending the ST and producing the target text (TT). The problems and difficulties are then solved by applying certain translation strategies. Translation strategies are classified as either comprehension or production/translation strategies (Chesterman, 1997). This study views the translation process or problem-solving process in general terms, incorporating text analysis (based on Nord, 2005) (ST comprehension phase), and the use of translation strategies (TT production phase). Accordingly, the study examines and compares students' attention to text features and translation strategies before and after CR workshops.

## **4. Research methods**

### ***4.1. Participants***

Thirty female Vietnamese students who were taking the introductory translation course (*Translation 1*) in a Vietnamese foreign language university were randomly recruited to participate in this study. These students were in their early third year of study, majoring in English. The *Translation 1* course is one of the three main translation courses offered in the English language program that aims to promote students' language competence as well as translation skills. Those students who had not done any translation course prior to the study had taken compulsory courses in integrated English skills which aimed to help them achieve level B2 (upper-intermediate level) (Council of Europe, Language Policy Division, 2009) after their second year.

### ***4.2. The research procedure***

This study was conducted within the first week of the *Translation 1* course, outside the students' program schedule. The students voluntarily participated in the study. They attended the author's briefing session about research aims, procedures and the voluntary nature of participation (the students were not from the author's classes). They had not been taught about verbalising their translation difficulties before. Firstly, the 30 third-year students performed Translation Task 1 in which they translated two texts and wrote about the difficulties they encountered during the translation process. Fifteen of the 30 students (labelled 1 to 30) voluntarily attended the interviews that took place after Translation Task 1. In 10 minute individual interviews (Interview 1/Int.1), students elaborated on their translation difficulties. They had been given 10 minutes prior to the interviews to peruse their translation task papers. The second procedure involved the participation of the same 30 students in three CR workshops that took place over three consecutive days right after the Translation task 1. Lastly, one day after Workshop 3, all of the 30 students completed Translation Task 2, which was similar to Translation Task 1 (see under 4.3 for more detail). Interview 2 (Int.2) was arranged with those who participated in the previous interviews. Since the author was undertaking the study in fulfilment of a degree undertaken at the School of Languages and Cultures, University of Queensland, ethical clearance was obtained from the University of Queensland under number 15-13.

### **4.3. The use of CR in translation workshops**

The workshops employed the CR principles of direct and indirect explicitness. Direct explicitness involves the teacher presenting metalinguistic descriptions of a target feature to be taught (deductive) while indirect explicitness requires students to infer the forms and uses of a target feature from examples about it (inductive). Specifically, the CR workshops introduced students to elements of the translation process including analysing a text, adopting strategies and reflecting on the translation. Textual analysis activities allowed students to discuss text type, extratextual features (author, text function, the target readership, medium, and place/time of communication) and intratextual features (subject matter, content, vocabulary, sentence structure, and non-verbal elements) (see Nord, 2005). The students were also introduced to foreignising and domesticating strategies (Aixelá, 1996; Venuti, 1995). Foreignising strategies include keeping the ST form, translating literally, transcribing, using footnotes or a glossary, and incorporating additions and explanations (along with the ST items retained or outside the translated text). Domesticating strategies consist of omission (the ST form omitted), addition (further information added), and substitution (the ST form changed or replaced with another TT neutral form).

In the workshops, the author presented the adapted model of text analysis from that of Nord (2005) before students began working on analysing texts of different kinds (deductive). The role of text features was then discovered by the students through activities about translation briefs, translation strategy choice and reflection (inductive). The author gave the students the chance to identify forms and uses of strategies in various given examples in individual work, or free pair and group discussions before commenting on students' ideas and providing a brief description of various strategies (inductive). Generally, the inductive instruction was presented over the course of the three workshops, allowing the students to actively think about different aspects of the translation process.

### **4.4. Translation tasks**

Before and after the translation workshops, students were asked to undertake similar translation tasks. Each translation task consisted of two smaller tasks (Task 1a [67 words] and Task 1b [68 words]—carried out before the workshops; Task 2a [60 words] and Task 2b [75 words]—carried out after the workshops). Each task sheet featured a text (e.g., Text 1a in Task 1a) for translation by the students, followed by a section for their comments about the problems and difficulties they encountered while translating. The translation tasks were similar in terms of structure, reference tools, time allocation and text length, translation direction (English to Vietnamese), text type, topics, text complexity, text features, and translation briefs (or instructions). The translation task design and the choice of texts, on the one hand, was appropriate to students' English proficiency to facilitate their comprehension and enable them to perform well within their capacity. On the other hand, the above-mentioned considerations allowed for an optimal investigation of students' awareness of the translation process.

### **4.5. Written comments**

After each task, the students were asked to write about at least five of the problems and difficulties they had encountered in doing the translation. Students were asked to note their difficulties and translation decisions before and after the workshops (Refl. 1 and Refl. 2). According to Gile, students' notes can reflect their thoughts during the translation process and provide

“information about students’ problems, both individual and collective, and information about their translation strategies” (Gile, 2004, p. 2).

#### 4.6. Interviews

Interviews in this study were employed to further explore students’ written comments about their translation problems. The students were able to clarify their comments and/or expand on what they were unable to write down during the translation tasks due to the time limit or their lack of proficiency in English. In the interviews, the students were prompted by clarification questions about what they wrote during the translation tasks.

### 5. Results and discussion

This section presents and discusses results related to students’ awareness of text features (ST and TT), and their use of translation strategies.

#### 5.1. Increased noticing of non-linguistic text features

The workshops presented text analysis activities in which the students were encouraged to discuss text type, extratextual features (author, text function, target readership, medium, and place/time of communication) and intratextual features (subject matter, content, vocabulary, sentence structure, and non-verbal elements).

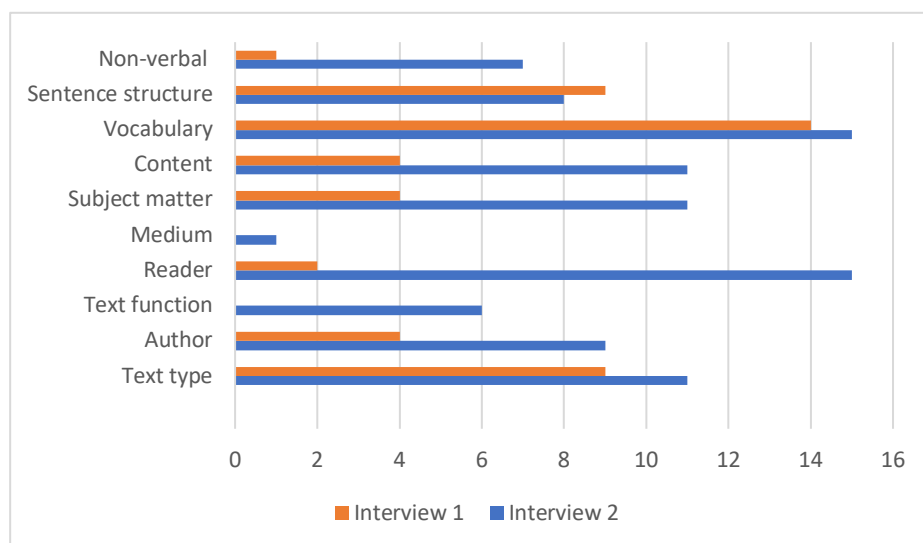


Figure 5.1: Text features raised by the students in interviews before and after the workshops

Many features (particularly the extratextual features) were noticed by the students after the workshops than before (Figure 5.1). Of the extratextual features, the reader was referred to the most frequently by the students after the workshops. Previously noticed by only 2 out of 15 students interviewed, it was later a commonly raised concept among the 15 students. Nine out of the 15 students clearly indicated who the reader was, such as “Vietnamese people in Australia” (Task 2a) and “(Vietnamese) children” (Task 2b)”: Reader is Vietnamese communities in Australia, so I used exactly the word “green cleaning” (Student 4, Refl. 2). The number of students who talked about the author after the workshops more than doubled (9 students, compared with 4 students before the workshops). Two students referred to the “government”

(Student 8, Int. 2) or “NSW government” (Student 10, Int. 2) in discussing the translation of Text 2a. Other extratextual features, including the *medium* and *text function*, were only referred to after the workshops (1 and 6 student(s), respectively). One student (Student 10) mentioned the website on which the text was published. Five of the six students who commented on the text function clearly explained it. For example, some students mentioned that the purpose of the text (Text 2a) was “to persuade people to turn to natural cleaning” (Student 1, Int. 2) or “to call for the avoidance of chemicals” (Student 11, Int. 2).

Similar to the trend observed with extratextual features, non-linguistic intratextual features, including content, subject matter, and non-verbal elements were noticed more frequently by the students after the workshops. The number of students commenting on non-verbal elements rose from 1 to 7 (out of a total of 15 students) and the figures for the students’ commenting on content and subject matter after the workshops nearly triple the numbers before the workshops (n=4). After the workshops, some students referred not only to the pictures presented in the texts but also to features such as capitalised words, — “Eden” (Text 2a), brackets, and a logo. Eleven of the 15 interviewed students discussed the specific content after the workshops, compared with the four out of 15 interviewed students who noticed it beforehand. These students talked more about what happened in the story (Text 2b) than what was written in Text 2a. For example, they described what the characters in the story were feeling and/or doing, what types of characteristics the characters displayed, or the relationships between the characters. The pattern for subject matter was similar to that of content. In the second interview, up to 10 of the 11 students who mentioned subject matter also talked about “natural cleaning” in different ways, depending on their understanding of the subject matter. I have added one such comment below.

I understand that if we use safe alternative cleaning products, cleaning will be natural and fresh. (Student 2, Int. 2)

Students’ attention was very strongly focused on vocabulary and sentence structures that caused linguistic problems. The number of students who discussed sentences and sentence structures in Interview 1 and Interview 2 were 9 and 8 (out of 15), respectively. The figures for vocabulary and expressions were 14 out of 15 in the pre-workshop interviews and 15 out of 15 in the post-workshop interviews. The differences in the students’ descriptions of linguistic features were not significant enough to draw conclusions about improvements in the students’ awareness of linguistic features. The students probably already had a strong belief that vocabulary was important in translation and this belief did not change much after the workshops. For other features, particularly extratextual ones, they went from a low knowledge base (based on their pre-workshop comments), therefore, a more marked change was evident.

After the workshops, the students increased their reporting of text features when they discussed their translation processes. This was because certain features had become more explicit and more salient to students after completing the CR workshops. The students were first introduced to text features by the author’s descriptive explanations and text analysis activities. They then understood the role of text features in strategy choice discussions and reflective activities in the later workshops. In other words, students’ attention to text features was easily facilitated through the direct approach in which they were provided with metalinguistic information around the features. However, their attention and awareness might easily fade away unless they were provided with extra opportunities to reinforce their initial attention. Therefore, when they were encouraged to make an effort to infer and understand the role of text features in

the actual process of translating, they were more likely to notice the features (particularly their functions and roles) and began to incorporate them in every stage of the translation process.

The students commented on some features more frequently than others due to the salience or availability of information about text features in a translation task. After the workshops, the target readership was the most noticeable feature commented on among extratextual features. Many students (9 of the 15 students) referred to the target audience as “Vietnamese people in Australia” (Task 2a) or “Vietnamese children” (Task 2b) partly because this kind of information was quite easy to locate in the translation briefs. Similarly, some students attended to the author due to the logo embedded in the text (Text 2a). Other extratextual features, including medium and place/time of communication, did not attract as much attention from the students. One possible reason for this was the lack of available information about these features in the translation briefs. Salience also applied to non-verbal elements. The students’ increased noticing of this feature could have been due to the availability of eye-catching pictures in the selected authentic ST texts (Text 1a and Text 2a). Salience could also be true for linguistic features. Students’ insufficient attention to specific types of vocabulary and sentence structures after the workshops may have been due to the author’s lack of emphasis on such features.

In addition to salience, the complexity of features influenced the students’ mention of certain features. While the information about both intended readership and author could be found in the translation briefs, author was less mentioned than reader, partly due to the fact that considering the author involves the students’ knowing who the author was and/or their writing histories. For instance, it may have been advantageous for the students to explore the writing style of Paul Jennings (the author of Text 1b and Text 2b) and understand his style before translating. The students’ few mentions of these details are also probably accounted for by the students’ lack of experience in reading literature in English and translating literature from English to Vietnamese. On the other hand, one reason why the students could easily figure out the backgrounds and characteristics of Vietnamese children/people lay in their common knowledge of Vietnamese culture. Robinson (1995) also agrees that “prior experience may predispose learners to attend, for example, to form or meaning in processing a stimulus” or that experience affects the types of information being noticed by the students (p. 296). This corresponds to the thematic competency in the classification of the (Australian) National Accreditation Authority for Translators and Interpreters (NAATI, n.d.). Complexity is dependent on students’ extralinguistic knowledge and experience, which influence their awareness of a feature.

Furthermore, the role of features and interaction between features could have affected students’ focus. Readership was the most frequently mentioned feature by the students. Translation has its own function or purpose which is largely determined by a specific type of readership. While text function was absent from the first interviews before the workshops, it was clearly raised by more than a third of the students (n=15) in the interviews after the workshops. Of the three main text functions (expressive, informative, and operative) (Reiss, 1981), operative function was mentioned by the students most frequently because it was closely linked to reader. Obviously, operative function is receiver-oriented, and it aims to induce the receiver or reader to act, react, or respond in a particular way. The informative function is also aimed at the reader. These types of interaction made the reader more noticeable. Similarly, some non-linguistic intratextual features including content and subject matter elements were also more frequently elaborated on by the students after the



workshops due to the interaction between text features. Many students considered subject matter with reference to the title and/or pictures (non-verbal elements) (Task 2a) regardless of their possible lack of in-depth knowledge of subject matter. Therefore, a low level of interaction between text features (i.e., information of a feature—e.g., author, cannot be inferred from other available text features) may indicate the complexity of a feature.

To summarise, the students attended to some non-linguistic extratextual (reader, author, and text function) and intratextual features (subject matter, content, and non-verbal elements) mainly due to the salience of these features achieved by the CR activities and the availability of these features in the translation task. In addition, the students' attention also depended on the subjective and objective complexity of features. The former means a feature may be complex within the students' extralinguistic knowledge and experience. The latter means a feature is complex due to its nature and/or its low level of interaction with other features.

### 5.2. Adaptation of translation strategies

This section presents the results relating to the students' translation strategies employed or considered by the students to deal with translation problems. In the workshops, the students were inductively introduced to ST-oriented translation (foreignising strategies) and TT-oriented (domesticating strategies) (Venuti, 1995) through examples of the strategies in the workshops. Some foreignising strategies introduced included retention of the ST form, literal translation, transcription, and footnotes. Some domesticating strategies included omission, addition and substitution. Table 5.1 below shows the number of students who adopted or considered using each type of translation strategy before and after the workshops.

Table 5.1: The students' strategies raised in interviews before and after the workshops (The total number of the students interviewed=15)

	Interview 1	Interview 2
<i>Comprehension strategies</i>		
Use of general reading strategies	4	11
Use of dictionary	12	6
<i>Stylistic strategies</i>		
Reflection on the style of the ST	6	7
Choice of appropriate target language in consideration of extratextual features	4	14
Consideration of emotive meanings	0	5
<i>Strategies to deal with vocabulary problems</i>		
Use of dictionary	7	5
Consideration of the general context	12	6
Focus on message of the ST	1	4
Consider translation variants	6	12
Word-for-word translation	6	5
<i>Strategies to deal with sentence structure problems</i>		
Word-for-word translation	2	3
Word order rearrangement	2	0
Consideration of the length of sentence	2	0

In dealing with comprehension problems, the students tended to use general reading strategies more frequently and were less dependent on dictionary use after the workshops compared with previously. Before the workshops, only students 5, 6 and 10 referred to the surrounding words and phrases to understand the context and most students mainly resorted to checking their dictionaries. After the workshops, a number of the students (11 out of 15 students) diversified their reported comprehension strategies and referred to more text features which had assisted their comprehension. Students 3 and 7 said that they needed to perform multiple readings in order to understand the meanings of words and phrases.

At first, when I had a quick look at it, I thought it meant “dọn dẹp một cách xanh” [BT: cleaning in a green way]. But when I read more closely and considered the circumstance, pictures, context, and the environmental protection, I translated into “dọn dẹp một cách xanh sạch đẹp.” [BT: cleaning in a green, clean and nice way] (Student 7, Int. 2)

Secondly, Students 1, 2, 6, 9, 10, and 14 focused on a variety of features of texts including non-verbal elements, content and subject matter in understanding the “deeper meaning” of texts. Student 1, for instance, explained that the picture enabled her to understand the subject matter of the text: “I looked at the text [Task 2a] and the picture provided implied cleaning using natural substances rather than chemical products, and cleaning involving a manual method rather than machines” (Student 1, Int. 2). When students made a good use of general reading strategies and consideration of the general context, they might not have had to check dictionaries for vocabulary comprehension.

In terms of stylistic strategies, even though the same proportion of students referred to the strategy of reflecting the style of the ST in both interviews, in Interview 2, more students had concrete ideas of how the text type influences word choices based on their awareness of the different types of translation (e.g., novels or scientific texts). For instance, Student 9 proposed the use of academic language in this context to suit the “scientific and instructional” text type. Student 9 added “if Eden [Text 2a] meant ‘heaven’, it sounded more like a novel translation than a scientific translation”. While taking into account the text type, the students also referred to related features, such as the text function (e.g., text persuasiveness) in reflecting the ST style. Student 1 considered the style most appropriate for conveying the text function which emphasises that “natural cleaning is effective” (Task 2a).

Before the workshops, four students took into account the choice of language, but they rarely described the language they used or should have used in any detail. After the workshops, 14 out of 15 students referred to the strategy of choosing appropriate target language in consideration of extratextual features and they elaborated further on the strategy. They described the influence of text function (e.g., compelling) and readership on the choice of language. Student 7 maintained that the language should be appealing to attract the reader or “communicating to people about cleaning or promulgating environmental protection among people to maintain their social responsibility” (Int.2). Student 11 indicated that because “the author tried to call for the avoidance of chemicals”, the translated language should be “compelling so that people should feel compelled to do so” (Student 11, Int. 2).

Consideration of emotive language, which was unfamiliar to the students before the workshops, was referred to by one-third of the students (Students 3, 4, 6, 10, and 13) after the workshops. These five students took into account the

connotative aspects of the words and personal pronouns in choosing the words appropriate for translation in consideration of the text content, the relationship of the characters in the story, and the type of character (Task 2b). For instance, Student 4 considered choosing between “strong”, “serious”, and “mild” Vietnamese personal pronouns depending on the content of the story (“the story was about hatred or dislike”). They found that “Anh ta” [a neutral Vietnamese pronoun for “he”] was not suited to the story because the pronoun seemed “light” while “hắn” [a negative Vietnamese personal pronoun] seemed more serious”.

Vocabulary and expressions remained the focus of their translation problems and difficulties; and, even though a third of the students still adopted dictionary use and word-for-word translation after the workshops, they were more judicious in their choice of dictionary definitions and opted to avoid word-for-word translation if they could. They justified their choices by referring to a variety of text features, such as content.

The dictionary definition of the word “mean” could not be used because it was not correct ... But when I later read the whole content as you suggested, I knew that the boy was not a good person and that he always made his friend miserable. So, I thought the words “hèn hạ” [BT: raffish] would be more correct in the context. (Student 13, Int. 2)

In fact, some students focused on the message of the ST although the number of students mentioning this strategy was still low after the workshops. It is interesting to note that more students were cautious in choosing the appropriate target equivalents among different translation variants after the workshops. Some other students (Students 3, 9, and 11) made their decisions among the translation variants for “cleaning” or “green cleaning” based on the subject matter (the environment), non-verbal elements, and translation briefs in Task 2a.

At first, I used literal translation with which “green” meant “màu xanh lá” [the color of leaves] ... But later, when I looked at the pictures and the requirements of the task, I thought of the words “dọn dẹp dùng những chất thân thiện với môi trường” [BT: cleaning using environmentally friendly substances]. (Student 9, Int. 2)

The attention paid to these features may explain the sharp decrease in the number of students considering the general context in translating vocabulary and expressions. Very few students, particularly after the workshops, described their strategies to deal with sentence structure (word-for-word translation, word order arrangement, and consideration of the length of sentence) with only three students talking about word-for-word translation.

Generally, the students had broadened their use of translation strategies and their adoption of more effective translation strategies (except for those used to deal with sentences), which was not limited to what they were formally presented with in the workshops. The greatest changes were noted in students’ use of general reading strategies, choice of appropriate target language in consideration of extratextual features, and consideration of translation variants. The fact that more students reported these strategies after the workshops shows that they were more cautious in both ST comprehension and TT production stages. It is also evident that the students took into account a variety of text features in adopting these strategies. Furthermore, after the workshops, the students seemed to be less reliant on dictionary use for vocabulary comprehension and even though they still used the dictionary to find appropriate

equivalents, they began to use it more efficiently by being able to evaluate the appropriateness of dictionary definitions while translating. A similar downtrend applied to their consideration of the general context in translating vocabulary and expressions. This may be due to the students' attention to the specific contexts of the ST and/or the TT (indicated by their more frequent referrals to extratextual features) rather than briefly mentioning the generic word "context" as before. Due to their limited linguistic ability, some students still adopted word-for-word translation after the workshops. Despite this, many students began to shift their strategies away from word-for-word translation after the workshops. In fact, an increasing number of students (approximately one-third) reported the strategies of considering emotive meanings and conveying the message of the ST which had rarely been discussed before that.

The extent to which the students applied the introduced strategies of foreignisation and domestication will be illustrated by the discussion of how students treated "green cleaning" (Title 2a: "Easy green cleaning—Create your own Eden"). While this ST item required an understanding of content, subject matter, and figurative language, it offered the students the opportunity to choose from different domesticating and foreignising strategies.

I explored the students' recognition and application of the taught strategies based on data in the interviews and written comments which revealed the students' actual thinking while translating. As students' translation practices did not really show what they were thinking, I examined the translation solutions that students mentioned and justified in the written comments or interviews. The students' exact application of the taught strategies after the workshops was limited. Among the strategies introduced in the workshops, a small number of students recognised and applied the strategy to keep the ST form (a foreignising strategy) in translating "green cleaning" and only Students 1, 4, 6 and 19 clearly indicated their justifications for their strategy use. They explained that the Vietnamese readers in Australia would be able to understand the original form. Furthermore, considering the target reader's comprehension, many of the students (9 of 15 students) interviewed referred to "green cleaning" and they considered and/or adopted the strategy to focus on the message of this ST, which can be described as domestication.

Despite the small amount of data, there was some indication that the students demonstrated a preliminary understanding of the strategies and an ability to use them. The students could have learnt that foreignising strategies aimed to preserve ST elements in the translation while domesticating strategies allowed them to making changes to ST forms, taking into account the Vietnamese target reader. Domesticating strategies seemed to be a little more frequently recognised and applied by the students, which was closely linked with their increased attention to the target reader and the function of translation after the workshops. Even when the students considered or adopted the strategy of keeping the ST form, they took into account the reader's understanding of "green cleaning".

Notably, the students broadened their use of translation strategies, some of which were not explicitly introduced in the workshops. The students did not always apply the exact strategies that they had been taught; however, the strategies they adopted shared certain logical connections with the taught ones. For example, students mentioned strategies to choose appropriate target language in consideration of TT extratextual features and strategies to consider emotive language. These strategies shared characteristics of domesticating strategies that aim to produce comprehensible translations to target readers. This finding aligns with research conducted by Pym and Torres-Simón (2015) in investigating students' adoption of strategies/solutions taught. The authors found that the students created new strategies based on the existing ones. Pym

and Torres-Simón (2015) explain that students “are able to use and assess the categories of the other, producing criticisms and suggesting improvements” (p. 13). It can be inferred that the students could have devised their new repertoire of translation strategies after the workshops, which showed independent thinking in regard to their learning. This was closely related to the way CR allowed the students to develop their own ability to process the knowledge. The knowledge taught was transformed in the students’ learning systems, which was facilitated by their increased awareness (noticing) and attention.

Students’ application of translation strategies seems to have depended on several factors: the type of translation strategies, students’ linguistic and extralinguistic knowledge, and length of training. Firstly, retention of the ST form, literal translation and omissions generally involve fewer linguistic actions (the actions of rendering the ST linguistic features) than using footnotes or explanations. The strategy of focusing on the ST message was also not so difficult for students as it can be implemented within the students’ linguistic and cultural resources. In fact, the students translated English texts that were comprehensible to them.

Secondly, the students could have been aware of a strategy but were unable to utilise it when translating due to their inadequate linguistic and extralinguistic knowledge. Even though Student 1 understood the subject matter of the text (Text 2a), they explained that they “could not identify the exact meaning” for “green cleaning in which cleaning is combined with colour green”. This explanation indicates their lack of linguistic and thematic knowledge of compound nouns and an understanding of the symbolic meaning of “green”. It is thought that the students’ application of translation strategies will potentially improve when they enhance their linguistic and extralinguistic knowledge.

Thirdly, as the time allocated for introducing translation strategies in the three workshops was short compared with that allocated for text analysis, the students might not have had sufficient time to process a number of strategies or successfully apply them in their translation solutions. In fact, time is an important consideration in teaching strategies. Teaching experiments in some studies including Pym and Torres-Simón (2015) lasted over several semesters.

While the students did not use the metalanguage for describing the strategies introduced in the workshops, they adopted strategies that were related to foreignising and domesticating strategies and they took into account the target reader in most of the strategies used. Students’ learning of translation strategies could be enhanced by the consideration of factors including the types of translation strategies, the students’ linguistic and extralinguistic knowledge, and the length of training. These factors can be objective (e.g., the nature of strategies) or subjective (e.g., the students’ perspectives).

## **6. Conclusion**

The article illustrates how CR was applied to one group of translation students who were learning about translation in the Vietnamese context. The study involved a contrastive qualitative analysis of students’ written and spoken reflections on the translation tasks they undertook, and students’ translation solutions both before and after the workshops. The study results show that after the CR workshops, the students had become more aware of extralinguistic features (e.g., reader, author, and text function) and some intratextual features (e.g., content, subject matter, and non-verbal elements) which were non-linguistic. The students’ application of translation strategies was limited but they did demonstrate an understanding of the ones they had been introduced to in the workshop, and demonstrated independent thinking in their learning.

Generally, features and aspects that were non-linguistic or less concerned with linguistic nature were more frequently noticed. The two main factors influencing the students' identification and application of the introduced features were salience and complexity, which involved both objectivity and subjectivity as explained above.

The findings relating to the students' identification and application of the features and aspects taught in the workshops, are expected to contribute to the understanding of how CR influences students' learning process and choice of teaching materials and methods in translation classrooms. The use of authentic texts and attention to text features, for example, should be encouraged to draw students' attention to various text features to promote their understanding of STs and their production of TTs as well as developing their confidence and independence in dealing with translation tasks. Text features can be introduced from the beginning of the training program and students' increased awareness of text features has a considerable impact on their translation choices as long as they increase their linguistic and extralinguistic knowledge. They should also gain greater thematic and sociolinguistic knowledge, as they cannot interpret what they do not understand (Crezee, 2013). However, translation strategies should be given more focus and timing in the curriculum for students to be able to adopt and adapt them as it would take them a while to digest translation strategies which are complex in nature. The evidence of students' translation competence is also still limited. Therefore, subsequent longitudinal research should aim to test observing the learning of translation strategies as well as the impact of students' awareness of the translation process on their products of translation.

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