Schema Activation Management in Translation: Challenges and Risks

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Abstract
The present paper investigates the powerful effects of schemata on the translator’s choices, and how translation theory and English as a foreign language (EFL) pedagogy can contribute to a better understanding and informed use of schemata. My principal research question is: to what extent could the study of the various types of schemata benefit translation students, professionals and trainers? Drawing on Grice’s cooperative principle (1975), Martin and White’s appraisal theory (2005), and Pym’s risk management analysis (2015), three English excerpts with their corresponding Arabic translations are thoroughly analyzed. This is followed by linking the findings to translator training. The comparative analysis demonstrates that activating schema seems to reflect the translator’s ideology and power relations as a result of asymmetric information that characterizes the relation between translators, commissioners and readers. It also shows that the lack of formal schema leads to an inaccurate employment of the linguistic schema and image schema. Finally, the paper argues that the same schema building techniques, such as semantic mapping, adopted in EFL teaching methods could be applied to translator training. The study, therefore, concludes with a call for empirical translation research into the functions of schemata, particularly the linguistic schema, in light of think-aloud protocols.

Keywords: English-Arabic translation, Grice’s maxims, risk management, schema, translator training

1. Introduction

The fact that Translation Studies draws on the knowledge and findings of neighboring fields, including psychology and cognitive sciences, has resulted in developing a myriad of process-oriented translation theories whereby researchers can better understand and reflect on the translator’s mental processing of the source text (ST). They believe that keying into “what goes on in translators’ heads while they are translating is crucial to an understanding of translation” (Bernardini, 2001, p. 241). A case in point is the think-aloud protocol technique which has been imported from cognitive sciences. By the same token, the concept of schema, which is the pre-existing knowledge in memory, was originally developed by such cognitive psychologists as Barlett who defines schema as “an active organization of past reactions, or experiences” (1932, p. 201). This concept appears to lend itself to being studied from a pedagogical, translational perspective with a view to understanding the interaction between pre-existing knowledge in the translator’s mind and the new information in a given translation task.

Drawing on Grice’s maxims (1975), Martin and White’s appraisal theory (2005) and Pym’s risk management analysis (2015), this paper develops a theoretical framework to investigate the motivations that lead translators to activate their schemata. First, the maxims function as a model of understanding the knowledge gaps that compel the translator to seek an external, complimentary source of knowledge. Second, Martin and White’s appraisal theory explains the possible reader’s (translator’s) responses to a text as being compliant, resistant and tactical. Third, Pym’s risk management model provides the theoretical underpinning for apprehending the decision making process and risks associated with activating schemata.

The paper investigates the powerful effects of schemata on the translator’s choices and decisions for many reasons, the most notable of which is the potential clash of ideologies and beliefs between writers and translators as a result of the latter’s pre-existing knowledge or even their willingness to interfere with ideas that may collide with their established schemata. Additionally, inaccurate schemata could be activated to fill in knowledge gaps without prior verification. With this in mind, the current paper lays great emphasis on the role of theoretical knowledge in explaining the concept of schemata from a translational standpoint. Detailed examples are discussed from different texts, including academic religious texts, in a bid to open up new vistas for perceiving what could motivate translators to activate their schemata and the subtle implications for the reception of translation.

The structure of this paper can be seen along the following lines. Section one gives a brief, contextualizing introduction whereas section two outlines the different types of schemata. The theoretical framework underpinning this paper is then discussed in section three. Section four illustrates the research methodology and features a comparative analysis of selected excerpts. Section five highlights the implications of this paper for translator training. Finally, section six comprises the concluding remarks.

2. Typology of Schemata

In 1926, Jean Piaget, the Swiss psychologist, contended that “children learn using existing schemas that are either accommodated or assimilated. Accommodation is when an existing schema is replaced. Assimilation is when you add information to your schema” (Crane, 2017, p. 12). In other words, schema is a cognitive database that continues to be updated and enriched by means of a wide
range of reliable and unreliable sources. Nishida (2005) defines schemata as “generalized collections of knowledge of past experiences which are organized into related knowledge groups and are used to guide our behaviors in familiar situations” (p. 401). For the purposes of this study, schema is categorized into four main types: content, linguistic, formal and image schemata. It should be noted here that although linguistics and Translation Studies copiously comprise established terms which almost describe the same functions of these schemata, the present study builds on a selection of schemata imported from EFL pedagogy in an attempt to stimulate interest in applying the same methods to translation research and teaching.

Content schema signifies the translator’s background knowledge related to the content area of the text. According to Zhao and Zhu (2012,), it involves “many things, such as topic familiarity, cultural knowledge, conventions and previous experience of the domain” (p.113). This type of schemata could be ideologically or culturally oriented. As for linguistic schema, it refers to “readers’ prior linguistic knowledge, including the knowledge about phonetics, grammar and vocabulary as traditionally recognized” (Zhao & Zhu, 2012, p. 112). Linguistic schema and content schema are closely interdependent, so much so that “lacking enough cultural background knowledge, readers’ linguistic schema can’t make an interaction with the relevant content in the text” (Zhao & Zhu, 2012, p. 114). The same holds true for translation where the lack of cultural background knowledge might hinder the translator from invoking the lexicogrammatical potential specific to the ST. In Halliday’s (1978) terms, linguistic schema could be the lexicogrammatical potential “that involves a range of options that is characteristic of a specific situation type” (p. 109).

As an example, consider a situation in which you agree with someone who has already made the following statement (1a) about the 2016 presidential elections in the United States:

[1] a. I’m not sure who is going to win this election.
   b. It’s complicated. Many red states have turned orange now.

Notice that for translators unfamiliar with the US color-coded electoral maps, understanding and transmitting the pragmatic level of meaning could be far from easy. Although translators may have strong linguistic schema to communicate the conventional level of meaning, content (cultural) schema would still be needed in order to decode the discursive layer of meaning. This leads us to another relevant type of schemata, which is formal schema.

Formal schemata (see examples in Section 4.1) are “our knowledge about genre, rhetorical structure of the text and discourse” (Zarei, 2012, p. 88). This type of schemata is key to an effective, informed employment of the linguistic knowledge. Viewed from this perspective, formal schema analyzes the structure of the text at hand and taps into the linguistic schema to seek apposite resources which would blend in with the genre and register of the ST. Hence, formal schema could be seen as a buffer or shield against irrelevant high-flown rhetoric (high-flown linguistic schema) that might be tempting for the translator to incorporate into the target text (TT) without necessarily ensuring if the invoked lexicogrammar caters for the text genre.

For example, compare these corresponding sentences extracted from a hockey handbook.

[2] Shave tackle – when running next to the ball carrier at pace and knocking the ball out of the ball carrier’s possession using the momentum of the ball.
The Arabic rendering above may indicate a lack of formal schema in the area of sports writing. Finally, image schemata can be defined as “conceptual metaphors which allow many concepts in the source domain to be mapped onto corresponding concepts in the target domain” (Ahrens & Say 1999, p. 95). Image schema optimizes the linguistic schema by expanding the lexicogrammatical potential through creating conceptual metaphors. Consider this example:

[3] Our discussions about morality, ethics and politics were thought-provoking and inspirational.

The activation of schemata above depends, to a large extent, on other stimuli and translator’s reading positions.

3. Theoretical Framework
Given that schemata would usually be activated to work out implicatures, the science of pragmatics provides a rich ground for the investigation of schemata, shifting the debate from the narrowness of text-based approaches to the extratextual factors which facilitate the decoding of the implicit messages or cultural values underlying the linguistic surface. Partly, this stems from the fact that pragmatics concerns the study of meaning as communicated by a writer and interpreted by a reader. As Baker (2011) notes, “pragmatics is the study of meaning, not as generated by the linguistic system but as conveyed and manipulated by participants in a communicative situation” (p.230). Translators, by definition, are part and parcel of this communicative situation since translation involves a communication among the communicator, translator, and recipient. Driven by an interest in understanding the stimuli for activating schema, we will restrict ourselves to considering one of the most important theories in pragmatics: Grice’s cooperative principle and the maxims of quantity, quality, relation and manner.

3.1 Grice’s Cooperative Principle
As Paul Grice puts it (1975), “cooperation stipulates that language users make [their] conversational contribution such as is required, at the state at which it occurs, by the accepted purpose or direction of the talk exchange in which [they] are engaged” (p. 45). The maxims underpinning this cooperative principle are quantity (be as informative as possible), quality (be truthful), relation (be relevant) and manner (be clear, brief, and orderly) (Grice, 1975, p. 46). However, this cooperative principle might not be the norm in all communicative situations, many of which could violate one or more of these maxims.
Schema Activation Management in Translation

The maxims explain the cases of non-cooperation on the part of the writer, thereby delineating the motivations that drive translators to interfere with the interpretation of the ST. It follows that they would draw on their schemata to fill in knowledge gaps arising from the writer’s failure to abide by the very same maxims. For example, schema functions as an efficient tool for conforming to the maxim of quantity if the ST offers insufficient details that need to be enhanced or interpreted in light of external, relevant sources of knowledge. Highlighting the functions of the four maxims, Hatim (2012) maintains that they are “theoretical postulates which state ideal norms that, in practice, may be broken, violated, or flouted intentionally, giving rise to implicatures” (p. 290). In this context, it can be quite safely assumed that all participants in a given communicative situation should have similar schemata so that they could make sense of what is being said.

From a translational perspective, schemata are key to bringing coherence to a given target text (TT) because “whether a text coheres or not depends on the ability of the reader to make sense of it by relating it to what he or she already knows or to a familiar world, whether this world is real or fictional” (Baker, 2011, p. 233). As a result, the translator assumes the reader’s role in trying to “uncover the ST writer choice and re-encode that choice as appropriate in the target language” (Munday, 2009, p. 16). Huang (2009) argues that “comprehending words, sentences and entire texts requires the ability to relate the material to one’s own knowledge” (p. 139). While Grice’s cooperative principle allows for a better understanding of the ST-based triggers, Martin and White’s appraisal theory, particularly the reader positions, defines the translators’ stances towards the ST and their interventions to overcome the assumed non-cooperation on the part of the writer or to accomplish certain communicative purposes.

3.2 Appraisal Theory: Reading Positions

This research will only investigate the different reading positions which can be taken up towards knowledge gaps in translation. Martin and White (2005) suggest three types of reading positions: compliant, resistant, or tactical reading, and define them in the following terms:

By a tactical reading we refer to a typically partial and interested reading, which aims to deploy a text for social purposes other than those it has naturalized; resistant readings oppose the reading position naturalized by the co-selection of meanings in a text, while compliant readings subscribe to it (p. 62).

Interestingly, both schemata and textual features trigger in the translator these reading attitudes. Identifying a knowledge gap in the ST, content schema, for example, would usually trigger a tactical reading position to drive away ambiguity while at the same time maintaining faithfulness to the ST. Munday (2012, p. 38) argues that this phenomenon of reading and interpreting “is obviously of special import for translation since the reading supplied by the translator will decide for the formulation of the TT and thus strongly condition the reaction of the TT reader”. That being the case, reading positions explain how far translators subscribe to or dissociate themselves from the ST. It is the frequency and severity of changes that partly indicate the translator’s subject-position. Pym’s risk management analysis provides a model whereby schema-associated risks could be evaluated.
3.3 Pym’s Risk Management Model

Anthony Pym has proposed a rationalist model of risk management with which to study the potential impacts of translators’ choices and interventions in terms of the varying degrees of risks. According to Pym (2015, p. 1), “some of the theoretical tensions and occasional deadlocks can be resolved by drawing on the rich array of ideas offered by risk analysis, particularly when the translator’s decision making is seen in terms of risk management”. His model comprises three main risks: credibility, uncertainty, and communicative risks. A crucial point to note here is the move beyond the binary of equivalence and non-equivalence which conflicts with the indeterminate nature of translation. Pym looks at translation as a transformation of utterance rather than a repetition of utterance (equivalence), and thus excludes essentialist concepts, which brings his approach closer to pragmatic approaches. Explaining the credibility risk, Pym (2015) indicates that “it is of particular pertinence to translation because the relations between translators, their commissioners, and end-users are typically characterized by asymmetric information” (p. 4). This means that the translator’s knowledge of the ST supposedly surpasses that of end-users and commissioners. It is noteworthy here that Pym still considers “fidelity and equivalence […] to be common ideas bolstering the trust relationship” (2015, p. 5). He then underscores another type of risks, which is uncertainty. The uncertainty risk is the main trigger of content schema, with translators tending to explicate ideas and remove ambiguity in order to ensure the readability of the TT. As Kunzli notes (2004, p. 34), “when translators are not sure of something in a text, they are taking risks”. In Pym’s view, professional translators respond to such challenges by employing different techniques that include engaging commissioners in the translation process by means of direct consultation or in-text notes, and adding footnotes at the bottom of pages. He opines that professionals gain credibility through enhanced visibility, thus effectively transferring some of the risk onto the commissioner. Lastly, communicative risk means that “some elements are high-risk, others are low-risk, and most other cases lie at various stages in between” (Pym, 2015, p. 7). What is striking about this kind of analysis is that it “involves not just probable losses, but also the possibility of gain from communicative exchanges” (Pym, 2015, p. 7). Recognizing this, schema activation could reap gains along the lines of making the TT more comprehensible and reducing the reader’s cognitive effort through some intervention strategies.

Pym (2015) lists many intervention strategies in the case of uncertainty, and divides the strategies into three categories, the first of which is risk aversion by using omission, simplification, generalization, attenuation, or literalism. The second category is risk transfer through consultation with the commissioner, adding footnotes in the text, or conscious literalism through reproducing the ST ambiguity at key points. The third category, which he recommends, is risk taking whereby translators assume risks and reap consequences, based on gathering enough information to make an educated guess. This is where schemata come into play to minimize the risks. Drawing on this model, this paper analyzes a set of diverse excerpts from different types of texts.

4. Methodology and Comparative Analysis

Drawing on the theoretical framework above, the present study investigates a corpus made up of three excerpts from diverse texts rendered from English into Arabic. In order to delimit the scope of research, the analysis will be restricted to examining the knowledge gaps, translators’ reading positions and risks associated with their decisions. It follows that we will study translation as a...
process and as a product. What is at stake here is that the excerpts selected might not be representative or that they might not illustrate other important characteristics of translation. That being said, the purpose of this analysis is by no means to assess the quality of translation but to expand our understanding of how schemata work in various contexts and from diverse angels. Then, implications for translator training and teaching methods will be discussed in light of the analysis findings. The analyzed extracts below cover content, linguistic, formal, and image schemata. In the examples below, critical points are highlighted in bold for the purposes of facilitating analysis.

**Example 1. Content Schema**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source Text</th>
<th>Target Text</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Many of the characters in the Qur'an are extreme, either in a positive or negative way, and it might be said that Iblis is punished because he is totally convinced of the superiority of creatures made of fire, as opposed to those of earth (like us) which makes it difficult for him to acknowledge the wisdom of the divine plan. Even though God says he knows why he is acting in the way he does, Iblis ignores this and suffers as a result. Even Musa in the experiences he has with Khidr falls foul of a lack of moderation since he is told not to question what he sees happen.</td>
<td>نلمظملاش الخير يه ونله لي ونصللخصلل ح  ونني عيظا  في النقران الکريم اف، جلح جيجحةًح أو لللللل يًح، ويلبي ونقوب جن جة     د رو لم ة لللللليم و نعحر وننحم ةافئی ونبحمعح ونلخ و ی لي ونعيظ ونبحمعح ونلخ و ی لي ي ظيعي ونيصلللام، لح ئك لي ونصلللئم ر    ولإ اور ةحبلی وقلا ولإنةي. ولع أن الله أخيا جال يئ م ونحبللی لللح ي ئ ل،، ان ييئاض ري عنلل وتكون عاااتهتااط المر  حم    اا بالطرف، إما إيجابًا أو سلنا، ويمكن القول إن إبليس قد عوقب بسبب افتتاااعه التام برفعه الكائنات المخلوقة من النار وأفضلاتها على الكائنات المخلوقة من طين (كبني البشر)، ما جعل من الصعب عليه الإقرار بحكمه الأمر الإلهي. ومع أن الله أخبر أنه يعلم الحكمة مما يفعله، فإن إبليس يعرض عن ذلك وكون عاقبته الطرد من رحمة الله. وحتى موسى في قصته مع الخضر - عليه السلام - قد وقع في مياله الوسطي والاعتدال، إذ نصحه الخضر ألا يسأل عن شيء ما يراه حتى بيته له.</td>
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This example has been extracted from a religious, philosophical text written by a well-known Jewish writer. Before analyzing the critical points highlighted in bold, it is worth pointing out that the structure and register of the ST clearly show that it is an academic paper, with the writer's name appearing on the cover page. Overall, the ST register is generally simple, direct, and clear. Yet, in some few cases, ambiguity arises from the use of implicating language.

First of all, it is pertinent to consider the clash of beliefs between the writer and translator which could be attributed to their different religious backgrounds. For example, the translator added Islamically loaded items such as holy to Quran and (may Allah’s peace be upon him) to the names of the prophets Musa and Khidr. Another striking point to note is why, in the ST, the meaning of suffering is not elaborated in further detail. The answer is most probably because the intention of the ST is to connect to specialist readership (academia in this case). Interestingly, the explicitation of
the non-specific *suffering* proves to be crucial in the positioning of the translator to the TT non-specialist reader. By rendering *suffering* as the specific (*driven away from Allah’s mercy as a punishment*), the translator went to great lengths to reduce the reader’s cognitive effort, targeting a wide range of readers and tailoring the message to fit their religious, content schemata. The requirement for an explicitation procedure arises from the flouting of both quantity and manner maxims in the ST because of the lack of details and ambiguity surrounding the meaning of *suffering*. The translator’s response to the ST could be regarded as tactical on the grounds that explicitation is a repositioning aimed at bringing the translator closer to the non-specialist reader, while at the same time retaining the semantic and syntactic core of the ST.

From a risk management perspective, it could be assumed that the translator viewed the ambiguity of *suffering* in this religious context as a high communicative risk, and invested tremendous effort to meet the challenge. The technique adopted is schema-based explicitation which presumes the homology of the schemata of both the translator and reader without necessarily considering the writer’s knowledge background. However, such a strategy could incur a credibility risk if the additions are inaccurate or irrelevant. For translators handling such sensitive texts, the purpose of translation is to enable readers to understand the meaning clearly by consulting specialized sources and their own schemata when encountering implicatures. Thus, the failure to do so could cause high-risk consequences such as complaints from the reader or commissioner. Recognizing this, Becher (2011) states that “if the reader – for whatever reason – has difficulties in understanding the translated text, she will be quick to blame the translator” (p. 62). In this case, dissatisfaction could lead to an incredibility risk. With that in mind, the translator chose to assume the risk of drawing an inference, and reap the consequences. Although the translator is likely to reap positive consequences from his explicitation technique, negative consequences might arise from incorporating the said Islamically loaded items, which violate faithfulness to the ST.

This example shows the importance of translators comparing their schemata to those of readers and writers. Explicating the meaning of *suffering* seems to be in line with the schemata of the reader and writer. Nord (2006) speaks of this intercultural communicative interaction:

Due to their familiarity with both cultures, only translators are in a position to discover the conflict potentials and either avoid them or find a satisfactory solution. They could easily deceive their partners without anybody noticing – sometimes just by faithfully translating what the source text says (, p. 35).

Perhaps the decision making strategy is built on specifying the possible renditions and going with the low risk solution. Literalism was, therefore, viewed as a high risk. The maxims of quantity and manner are highly accounted for, as manifested in the activation of content schema to resolve obscurity and ambiguity. Yet, the maxim of quality is violated in translation as a result of adding the aforementioned Islamically loaded items which probably run counter to the writer’s content schema. Such an intervention could be justifiable if the translation skopos (brief) allows the addition of such items. By and large, the example above shows a high consideration of the target readership.
Example 2. Image Schema
The second example has been taken from a less sensitive text, this time involving content that requires transcreation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source Text</th>
<th>Target Text</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I have truly felt welcomed by all whom I have encountered.</td>
<td>كما أحسست بذاتي الحزب من جميع من التقريتهم.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>The mission of the Academy is not only seen on the walls</strong> throughout the school, but is evidenced by the many hours our dedicated faculty and support staff offer every day. <strong>The yearbook is a reflection of the memories</strong> created over this past school year. It documents for all past, present, and future students this period of time; it is about who we are and who we hope to be.</td>
<td>إن رسالة الأكاديمية ليست مجرد شعارات ترتدان بها جدران المدرسة بل وافقت تشهيره للمساءات الطويلة التي يقضيها يوميًا أعضاء هيئة التدريس وموظفو خدمات الدعم المتقدمون في عملهم. كذلك يعد الكتاب السنوبي بمثابة مرآة تعكس على صفحتها الذكريات التي تراكمت على مدار العام الدراسي، إذ يوثق الكتاب هذه الفترة الزمنية من أجل طلاب الماضي والحاضر والمستقبل، فيعرض من نحن وطموحاتنا للمستقبل.</td>
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[Lit. the mission of the academy is not mere mottos adorning the school’s walls [...] the yearbook is a mirror on which memories created over this past school year are reflected]

The style of the ST can be seen as plain; it does not rely heavily on figurative language. Yet, the translator’s reading position is tactical as evident in the employment of transcreation, in a few positions, in order to beautify the TT and make it stylistically more appealing to the target readership. As a premise, the translator understandably considered the maxim of manner to have been flouted, inasmuch as the ST lacks creativity although it is originally intended to stimulate the readers’ memories of past events. In dealing with such types of content, translators would sometimes have to build on their image schemata to create mental metaphors based on textual triggers from the ST. Indeed, the ST involves two textual elements which generate corresponding images from schema. That is, the proposition (the yearbook is a reflection of memories) invokes the image of a mirror. Another image is triggered by means of the clause (the mission of the academy is not only seen on the wall) which conjures up the image of the mission being not only mere mottos adorning the academy’s walls but also a reality.

By using risk management as a theoretical framework to analyze the example in question, one could argue that the translator most probably considered transcreation to be central to communicating the writer’s intentions, and invested tremendous effort to accomplish this communicative goal by constructing mental metaphors. Assuming that the decision making strategy is built on hedging bets, literalism (risk-aversion) was viewed as a high risk solution that could cause uncertainty risk on the part of the reader, which could ultimately bring credibility risk to the translator. On the contrary, transcreation by virtue of triggering mental metaphors engages the reader’s imagination and interest, and grants the translator absolute credibility. It can be contended that the scene depicted in the TT would probably produce a positive reaction in the target readership as a result of incorporating images that appear to be firmly grounded in the source and target cultures alike.
Example 3. √ Linguistic Schema  
√ Image Schema  
× Formal schema

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source Text</th>
<th>Target Text</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The slowdown has pushed into our consciousness the challenges and tensions that many knowledge economies have been managing. Disputes over intellectual property have become increasingly bitter and seem to dominate the agenda in far too many organizations and across too many industries. The battle between Samsung and Apple has been widely reported.</td>
<td>أ خ التهاطؤ التتتاااااا وعطونا تحديات وتوترات تحول العديد من الدول التخلص منها عبر الاقتصادات المعرفي. وقد اشتعلت المصارعات وعمى وطيساااها حول حقوق الملكية الفكرية ولا شك أنها ستكون الشحل الشاعل الأول في أجندة العديد من المنظمات وعبر قطاع عريض من الصناعات. خير شاهد على هذه المعركة، الحرب الضروس التي تاجرت نيرانها بين شركة سامسونج وأبل وسمع بها القاصي والداني.</td>
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\[\text{Lit. The economic slowdown has drawn its curtains upon us, pushing into our hearts and minds the challenges and tensions that many countries try to overcome through knowledge economies ... the most telling example of this battle is the fierce fight that has broken out and its fire has increased in intensity between Samsung and Apple and has become well known to everyone}\]

This example, from an economic report, shows how the meaning potential could be affected by the translator’s linguistic schema. Stylistically speaking, the TT shows a resistant reading position towards the ST genre and register, particularly in view of the high-flown linguistic schema invoked without the activation of formal schema to cater for the rhetorical structure and genre of economic reports. The translator arguably approached the text with a predetermined strategy, namely aesthetic amplification through “beautification and over-sizing” (Smarandache, 2014, p. 10). To the extent that this view is valid, the aesthetic amplification might reflect a general ideology in dealing with all types of texts with similar linguistic schema. As a result, the TT produced echoes the register of literary translation. This is also a good example of how high-flown linguistic schema could lead to strong evaluative meanings created by activating image schema as shown in likening stagnation to (a night that has drawn its curtains) and (the battle between two companies) to (a fierce fight). All these images create forceful attitudinal meanings in the TT.

Following Pym’s line of risk management analysis, aesthetic amplification in this low-risk area of business writing could be regarded as an effort-increasing measure, but would be justifiable if this register is required by the commissioner. For a specialist reader, such highly inflated rhetoric could incur credibility risk on the part of the translator. In this context, amplification seems to be an ideology that motivates translators to showcase their linguistic competence and gain the approval and appreciation of both the commissioner and reader.

The activation of high-flown linguistic schema to amplify and beautify the TT indicates that the ideology behind the linguistic schema is either to impress the commissioner and target audience or cover up inaccuracies by deploying lexicon that could hardly be processed by an average reader.
This raises the issue of power relations between the three main players in this context: the translator, commissioner, and reader. Such a relation is characterized by asymmetric information. That is, the translator knows more about the ST and language than the other parties, and because of this asymmetric information, commissioners usually cannot determine the quality of a translator (Pym, Sfreddo, Chan, & Grin, 2014, p. 15). Recognizing this, not only would a well-written, fluent target text secure result in the satisfaction of the commissioner and reader, but would also bring credibility to the translator.

Results and Discussion

The corpus-based analysis outlines diverse ways in which schemata are invoked. It is noteworthy that translators generally preferred explicitation to implicitation, and thus made every effort to understand and explicate the underlying meaning in a bid to come to terms with the challenge of uncertainty or commissioner satisfaction that seems to have overwhelmed them. The examples show that schema-driven explicitation is a key device used as a repositioning technique to bring the translator closer to target readership. To this end, the translators activated their diverse schemata to explain further or incorporate more aesthetic features in order to make the TT more inviting to target readers. Interestingly enough, image schema plays a pivotal role in optimizing the linguistic schema by expanding lexicogrammatical choices. Another pertinent note is that both linguistic and formal schemata are interdependent in that the latter is key to connecting the former to the corresponding meaning potential. Otherwise, linguistic schema could lead to rhetorically defamiliarizing effects. Schemata are, therefore, risky and hard to manage unless the interdependency between them is made explicit.

The three risks outlined in Pym’s model seem to be interconnected as uncertainty usually leads to communicative risks which, in turn, might cause credibility risks. More to the point, when translators summon up inaccurate schemata, this could give rise to communicative risks. As a consequence, the reader or commissioner may distrust the translator. In light of the examples discussed above, it is argued that schema greatly influences translators’ decisions and guide their actions in some cases. For instance, the activation of high-flown linguistic schema is sometimes motivated by a translator’s willingness to achieve greater idiomaticity by avoiding simplification. Schemata, in general, trigger in the translator a willingness to conform to the target culture. It is little wonder that most of the examples above show a tendency to take risks, and reap the consequences. With that in mind, it might be profitable to link this analysis of schema management to translator training by drawing on schema building activities anchored in teaching and assessing reading comprehension among students who, for example, learn EFL.

5. Implications for Translator Training

The various challenges arising from schema activation management could be considered in training translators and developing teaching methods. As a point of departure, this research calls for conducting empirical research into the diverse types of schemata in an attempt to thoroughly understand their impact on translators’ decisions and choices. To this end, the same schema building techniques adopted in assessing reading comprehension among EFL students could be applied to translator training and translation research. Such techniques include semantic mapping which entails “drawing a diagram of the relationships between words according to their use in a particular text” (Zahedi & Abdi, 2012, p. 2274). By extending this strategy to translation, semantic maps may help...
trainees visualize and formulate how their pre-existing knowledge intersect with the choices emanating from the ST. In other words, such maps would clearly display the interaction between the ST and schemata. An equally important strategy is KWL charts (“know”, “what is in the text”, “learned”) to record thinking before, during, and after translation. All these methods have the potential to divert trainees’ attention to the role of schemata in shaping their choices. From this, it follows that they would make a habit of building their schemata as part of handling translation tasks.

Drawing on schema building activities in teaching and assessing reading comprehension, translators or students could be divided into two experimental and control groups, with the former receiving content schema-building material closely related to the topic of the ST. The control group would not receive schema building material. On the one hand, formal schema can be developed in translators by educating them beforehand about the specificity of each translation assignment in terms of genre and register. Image schema, on the other hand, can be instilled through using schema-building material that involves images. Then, trainees would be asked to translate a text with linguistic triggers that correspond with these images, thus stimulating trainees’ imagination to conceptualize bodily experiences such as emotions and non-bodily experiences such as values. This type of research would raise our awareness of how schemata function, and the significance of incorporating schema-building activities in teaching methods. Such activities can be instrumental in bridging knowledge gaps in the ST and moving beyond literalist approaches to more focus on mobilizing translators’ knowledge of the world to produce functionally adequate translations.

The findings of such empirical research would lead to identify the training needs of translators which could also be considered in designing teaching material for students. In other words, exploring professional translators’ ways of building and managing schemata could be utilized in directing students’ attention to the importance of developing their own schemata. This, in turn, attests to the great benefits that can be gained from engaging translators and students in researching translation and generating practice-based knowledge. Additionally, they can be guided to how to account for the various risks associated with activating schemata. Furthermore, more focus on teaching schemata would educate translators and students on their role and position as active agents in society who not only transmit what is in the ST but also give meaning to it thanks to their schemata and awareness of both the source and target culture.

6. Concluding Remarks
To sum up, thinking of the translator’s choices in terms of schemata shifts the debate from the textual analysis to the study of extratextual, cognitive factors which significantly affect the translator’s decisions and choices. Grice’s maxims discussed above establish a method of understanding the ideal rules of communication although some of these maxims are usually flouted in some contexts. However, it is assumed that translators would conform to these maxims to produce an adequate translation. Additionally, Pym’s risk management analysis is adopted to analyze the potential risks that arise from activating schemata and translators’ decisions and strategies in addressing such risks. Based on the corpus-based analysis, uncertainty risks seem to stimulate the translator’s content schema, requiring high effort to drive away ambiguity and ensure accurate rendering. Otherwise, the lack of schema-based explication might result in credibility risk, which is the greatest risk.
This paper by no means adopts a prescriptive approach. Rather, it highlights a host of challenges that could be better understood in light of cognitive sciences, Translation Studies, and EFL teaching methods. The study calls for conducting empirical research into the functions of schemata in the context of translation. By way of conclusion, two major points hold in this regard. First, the issue of schema could be further investigated through think-aloud approach. Second, the interdependency between linguistic and formal schemata need to be deeply researched so as to establish effective training practices. It is hoped that this study will arouse more interest in applying various theoretical models, from within Translation studies and beyond, in a bid to bridge the gap between theory and practice and test out more translation theories in relation to practice.

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