

How to Treat Implicatures in the Translation of Political Speech: A Relevance-theory Perspective

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ABSTRACT

Discourse types that contain implicatures as their typical feature, such as the political speech, demand more cognitive effort from the audience than other types of discourses. The problem even gets greater in translation as target readers come from different cognitive backgrounds and might require extra effort to perceive the meanings. The present article seeks to investigate, through an audience-based survey, how the translator could reduce this effort and make the translation more relevant to the target audience. Gutt's relevance account of translation, supported by Pym's cognitive account of explication, and van Dijk's cognitive account of context serve as the theoretical model for the study. The data consists of a selection of Barack Obama's political speeches with their corresponding Persian translations. As regards the translations, a non-explicated version is adopted from the website of the US Department of State and another explicated version is provided by the author. The findings of the research reveal that explication of implicatures reduces the target readers' cognitive effort to a certain degree, hence relevance enhancing. Generally, the crucial role of cognition in pragmatic translation is highlighted in this article, and it is shown that translation is truly a triad cognitive interaction between the communicator, the translator and the recipient.

Keywords: Implicature, relevance theory, politics, translation, explication

1. Introduction

Implicature is a distinctive feature of political discourse which is typically used intentionally by politicians (van Dijk, 2002) particularly in political speech (Schäffner, 1997; Rut-Kluz, 2005; 2009). Working out political implicatures often requires a wider range of contextual and encyclopedic knowledge from the audience. The situation gets even more complicated when the speech is translated into a distant culture and/or language, where the target readers may share less with the original audience due to being members of a different community with a different style of communication. In such cases, the translator is the one who – on an assumption that target readers lack the necessary contextual information to understand the implicatures – is expected to make adjustments to compensate for the implied meanings, reduce their mental effort and make translation more relevant to them. That is what is theorized in the relevance account of translation. However, this account is criticized in that more contextual information might bring extra mental effort to the target readers as they need to process more linguistic codes (Scott, 2006). As such, what should the translator do to make his translation more relevant to their target readers? In other words, it is not known if the

translator's addition of extra contextual information makes the translation more relevant to the target readers and is recommended or brings them extra processing effort and is not recommended. To address this problem, the target audience needs to be surveyed. This has not been empirically researched with target readers, neither in political speech nor in any other text type. Gutt (1991) in his thesis deals with textual analyses of biblical texts and, though he is highlighting the role of target reader's cognition in a more effective translation, he does not put it on trial with the target readers. Reviewing the literature on the translation of implicatures further, reflects that translators have often employed the more traditional literal translation approach to be faithful to the original intention of the target text and to put the correct interpretation on the shoulders of the receptor. However, in literal approach, the translator merely pays attention to the textual content and the target readers' cognitive environment is almost neglected. Translators, in all periods, have faced this problem and have strived to tackle it and have even theorized about it. Examples are St. Jerome's sense-by-sense translation, Newmark's communicative, or Nida's dynamic equivalence. However, the problem of neglecting the target readers' cognitive environment was still there. This is because in such theories, there is hardly a cognitive trace of the target readers and they handled only the textual meaning. Thus, the present article seeks to investigate if explication would render implicatures in political speech more relevant to the target readers and to what extent.

2. Literature review

2.1 Explicit and implicit meanings

There are two dominant views of explicit and implicit meaning, one by Grice and the other by Sperber and Wilson. For Grice, explicit content is a set of decoded assumptions and, reversely, implicit content is a set of inferred assumptions. Sperber and Wilson (1995) deny this view and argue that no assumption can simply be decoded without elements of inference. According to Sperber and Wilson (1995: 182), "An assumption communicated by an utterance *U* is explicit if and only if it is a development of a logical form encoded by *U*". Thus, the concept of *explicature* is wider than Grice's *what is said*. However, implicatures are derived purely from context-based inferences. As Sperber and Wilson (1995: 182), propose, "An assumption communicated by *U* which is not explicit is implicit [hence implicature]". Thus, for Sperber and Wilson (1995), explicature has degrees of explicitness so that one can define implicature as zero explicitness. They conclude that any communicated utterance which is not an explicature is an implicature, but not the other way round, i.e. any utterance which is not an implicature is not necessarily an explicature. This follows from Sperber and Wilson's (1995: 182) assumption that "any assumption communicated which is not explicit must be implicit, and thus must be an implicature."

2.2 Implicature in political discourse

Pragmatics and the study of implicature, in particular, have always been beneficial to the study of political discourse (cf. Sanatifar, 2015). Chilton and Schäffner (2002) refer to the implications of Gricean maxims and implicature in political discourse analysis. Politicians appeal to implicatures and are plain uncooperative, e.g. lying, evading, etc., because they can easily be disavowed (Chilton, 2004). Wilson (1990) characterizes political talk as hinging on the relation between what is explicit and what is implied. Lycan (1986 as cited in Wilson, 1990) defines pragmatics as the study of implicative relations and outlines three types of implicative relations in political discourse: secondary meaning, implicature and presupposition and believes that politicians can make use of implicative relation in order to direct a hearer's interpretation and make people believe in certain things. In his political pragmatic analysis, he provides examples of the use of scalar and conversational implicature and presupposition in parliamentary debates. Van Dijk (2002) describes implicature as a distinctive feature of political discourse. Chilton (2004) claims, "implicatures are crucial to political speech because they let the politician convey messages implicitly without assuming responsibility for what they have implied." In short, according to Chilton (2004), implicatures involve exploiting listeners implicit mental frames and in this way direct them to infer information that was not explicitly stated, and adopt a certain set of values suggested by the speaker. In a quantitative-qualitative relevance-theoretic analysis, Rut-Kluz (2005; 2009) has extracted distinctive features of political speech among them implicature. Rut-Kluz (2005) believes there are fewer implicatures used in political speech. Working within a relevance-theoretic framework, she concludes that relevance theory together with its tools has enabled conducting a detailed analysis of the political speech of the kind present in the political programs she has studied. Van Dijk (2005) examined some of the properties of the speeches among them political implicatures, as pragmatic inferences that are specifically based on political context, as well as the general and particular political knowledge of the participants in any political interaction.

2.3 Translation of implicatures (in political discourse)

Translation of implicature has been studied and discussed from various perspectives (cf. Newmark, 1988; Robinson, 2003; Fawcett, 1997; Venuti, 1998; Malmkjær, 1998; Pym, 2005; Neubert & Shreve, 1992; Baker, 1992; Hatim and Mason, 1990, 1997; Gutt, 1991). Pym (2014) reminds us that language is a set of communicative clues with recoverable implicatures and recommends translating them for the target readers as to lessen any misinterpretations. This is the view taken originally by Gutt (1991) inspired by the relevance theory of Sperber and Wilson (1986). In relevance-theoretic terms, enough communicative clues should be provided for the target readers to maximize their contextual effects at the cost of minimizing their processing efforts (Gutt, 1991). This mechanism, which Gutt (1992) calls explication, is defined variously in relevance theory framework: according to Gutt (1991; 1992), the translator's main attempt should be to achieve maximal interpretive resemblance between source and target texts and create optimal relevance in the target readers. In direct translation, this may be achieved through the addition of paratextual tools such as footnotes, introduction, preface or

margin, out of the main body of the text, and in indirect translation, it would be achieved through projection of extra contextual materials, in this case, in-text explication, to the main body of the text, hence the term contextual enrichment. However, it is noticeable that Gutt (1991), more or less, devalues excessive communicative clues or explication as over-translation. He rather prefers less enrichment or explicitation, namely more direct translation. Gutt (1991) looks at the strategy of explication from two points of view: first, he believes that explication is a preferable relevance-based measure in the translation of implicit meaning and implicature because it can provide more communicative clues and can help to communicate more of the intended meaning of the original. Ideally, this increases the contextual effects and requires less processing effort. Second, he devalues explication and views excessive communicative clues in terms of over-translation – this may require more processing effort. In relevance-theoretic terms, Gutt (1991) claims, implicated meaning cannot usually be communicated explicitly without some distortion because explication often narrows the range of the intended meanings conveyed. According to Gutt, explication will be useful as long as the readers lack (biblical) contextual knowledge; as soon as they acquire more contextual knowledge, explication becomes increasingly less helpful. There is a point where the distorting influence of explication prevents readers from a deeper knowledge of the original intended meaning. More simply, explication may make the original and receptor contexts more relevant or less relevant. This requires the translator to embed the translations in a wider framework of communication to close the relevance gaps appropriately; otherwise, the translation will remain unread (Gutt, 1992). Hoyle (2005) defines explication as textual amplifications or supplementary help such as notes, introductions, or glossaries to make a text more cognitively comprehensible to target readers. He contends that each level of explicitness is appropriate for a certain audience and translation purpose. As Hatim (2006) remarks, to achieve optimal effect in communication, any effort has to be rewarded. In translation, he believes, the translator can deliver this reward through contextual justification or the reader needs to deal with the pragmatic force to prevent communication from breaking down. Pym (2005) also offers cognitive explanations for explicitation and claim that they gain credence from an application of relevance theory. As Pym (2005) argues, the translator should provide more communicative clues than non-translators should because their readers have fewer shared cultural and contextual assumptions than readers do in the source text, and this is explicitation.

Few studies exist on improving the quality, relevance or resemblance of political texts through explication. Within a relevance framework, Sanatifar and Jalalian (2015) have revealed through a similar survey that intertextual allusive implicatures render more relevant to the target Iranian readers after explication. From a textual point of view, Gumul (2010: 108) has concluded that explication “might serve to communicate an altered point of view to the target text readership” although none of the texts in his corpus projected a fundamentally different ideology. Due to the nature of the analysed materials and the product-oriented research design, Gumul (2010: 108) finds it hard to determine whether such textual modifications are a result of translators’ conscious or unconscious choices, though he speculates that such shifts might reflect translators’ personal opinions and

attitudes and/or might be assumed that they are fully conscious choices of the translators. He clearly states “explicitation might be a powerful tool in the hands of translators” (Gumul, 2010: 109) and the “seemingly innocent language mediation might have a considerable ideological impact.” This would be in conflict with interpretive resemblance addressed in relevance theory.

3. Theoretical framework

The theoretical framework serving the present study is Gutt’s (1991) relevance account of translation, which is grounded in Sperber and Wilson’s Relevance Theory (1986/1995). Based on Gutt’s cognitive account, the translator should provide enough communicative clues for the readers to maximize contextual effects and minimize processing efforts to create optimal relevance. In the design of the questionnaire to investigate degrees of relevance, the study follows Gutt’s (1998) proposal to create contextual effects at the cost of reducing the processing effort. Van Dijk’s (2002) context models is adopted as a complementary part of the theoretical framework to justify the discursive aspects of the conceptual framework and fill relevance theory’s gap of the social aspect of discourse analysis. In other words, context models define the notion of pragmatic relevance theorized by Sperber and Wilson in relevance theory. In relevance theory terms, explication – inspired by the explicitation hypothesis in translation – can provide more communicative clues to the target readers and can help them to communicate more of the intended meaning of the original than a more restricted translation which more closely represents the original (Gutt, 1992). Through explication, the translator can link up the receptor’s assumptions with original writer’s intentions. Pym (2005) also has cognitive justifications for explicitation and claim that these explanations gain credence from an application of relevance theory. He explains that in relevance theory the speaker (or writer) has to provide more communicative clues for the hearer to enable him to infer the best interpretation. By the same account, in relevance model of translation, as Pym (2005) argues, the translator should provide more communicative clues than non-translators should because their readers have fewer shared cultural/contextual assumptions than receivers do in the source text.

4. Data collection procedure

As explained earlier, in-text explication as a relevance-enhancing process is chosen to treat the identified implicatures in translation. To answer the first two research questions, two non-explicated (direct translation) and explicated (indirect translation) translated modules of the selected speeches were provided. In the former, the identified implicatures were left intact and in the latter, some contextual information were embedded. The translation modules were developed into a questionnaire with an aim to survey the respondents’ opinion on the degree of explicitness (operational definition for the degree of relevance) of texts before and after explication. The questionnaire was then validated and piloted. The data were

collected and quantitatively went through relevant descriptive and inferential statistical analysis. As the present study aims at a systematic observation of the situations deliberately explicated by the researcher to investigate the contextual effects under pre-defined conditions, the questionnaire survey was supplemented with an interview. During the interview, a sample of the same respondents (about 50), based on their type of rating, was questioned (12 questions) for their opinions on why they rated the items on the questionnaire as such (cf. Appendix I).

The transcripts of Obama's selected speeches were retrieved from the website of the US Secretary of State. Two stages of sampling were employed: text sampling and respondent sampling. As for the former, a *purposive* sampling method was adopted. The main survey consists of a sample of ten internationally critical speeches and ten cases of implicatures within each. Then, the first identified implicature in each speech was *systematically* selected to be included in the questionnaire. However, due to the limited scope of this article, the first three speeches were selected and analysed. As for the latter, a *purposive* sampling method was employed. Except for the age and educational background, no other restrictions were exerted onto the respondents. A sample of 373 respondents was selected adequately and randomly for the study. The study population was chosen from the Iranians (n=373). The subjects were purposively chosen above eighteen years of age and with the minimum educational background of diploma for matters of competency in and credibility of political literacy and understanding. The population consisted almost equally of males and females and was selected from among both non-students and students with a variety of previous and current educational backgrounds.

5. Results and discussion

5.1 Case 1 analysis (Obama, Victory Speech, 5 October 2008)

a) *Non-explicated (A₁)*

If there is anyone out there who still doubts the point that America is a place where everything is possible, who still doubts that the dream of our founder fathers is still alive in our time, who still questions the power of our democracy, tonight is your answer.

b) *Explicated (B₁)*

Obama introduces himself as a national hero like Martin Luther King – one of the forefathers and activists against racism in America – and finds his victory the realization of Martin Luther King's *dream* and realization of the *one day* that this nation will rise up and see the realization of human innate equality. So,] if there is anyone out there who still doubts that America is a place where all things are possible, who still wonders if the dream of our founders is alive in our time, who still questions the power of our democracy, tonight is your answer. [...]

c) Results (A₁ & B₁)

Figure 1 displays the percentages of A₁:

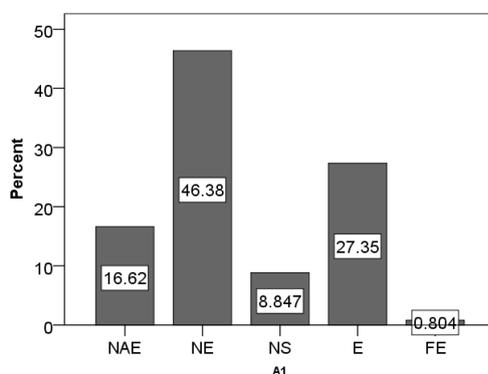


Figure 1 Percentages for the non-explicated translation

As Figure 1 displays, out of 373 respondents rating A₁, 62 respondents (about 17%) rated it as ‘not at all explicit’ (NAE), 173 respondents (about 46%) as ‘not explicit’ (NE), 33 respondents (about 9%) as ‘not sure’ (NS), 102 respondents (about 27%) as ‘explicit’ (E) and 3 respondents (about 1%) have rated it as ‘fully explicit’ (FE). Based on the results ($M=2.49$, $SD=1.08$), the average number of responses is between options 2 and 3. Figure 2 displays the percentages for B₁:

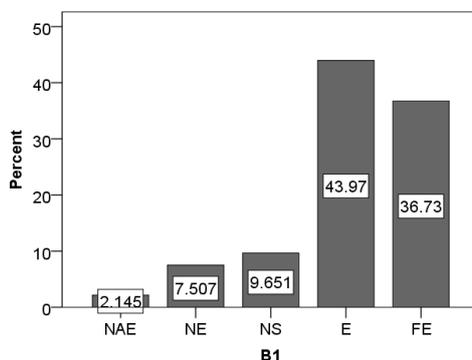


Figure 2 Percentages for the explicated translation

As Figure 2 illustrates, of 373 respondents rating B₁, 8 respondents (about 2%) rated it as ‘not at all explicit’, 28 respondents (about 7%) rated it as ‘not explicit’, 36 respondents (about 10%) as ‘not sure’, 164 respondents (44%) as ‘explicit’ and 137 respondents (about 37%) as ‘fully explicit’. Based on descriptive statistics ($M=4.05$, $SD=.97$), an average number of responses is around option 4.

The parametric dependent paired *t-test* is used to test the significance of the differences between the two modules. Table 1 displays the results run for A₁ and B₁. Table 1 displays the results computed for A₁ and B₁.

Table 1 Paired sample t-test (A₁- B₁)

Paired Differences	tt	ddf	Sig.
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	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				(2-tailed)
				Lower	Upper			
A ₁ -B ₁	1.58	1.36	.07	-1.72	-1.44	22.42	72	.000

Based on the above results, $t(372) = -22.42$, $p < .05$, the respondents' preferences for more explicit options in the second module (B₁) express a higher level of explicitness than they do for the first module (A₁).

Regarding that all the features of the two translation modules in the questionnaire, namely non-explicated and explicated, are the same except for the added contextual implications in module B, the difference between the means of the two translation modules can be confidently attributed to the explication fulfilled in module B.

5.2 Case 2 analysis (Obama, A New Beginning, 4 June 2009)

a) Non-explicated (A₂)

Thank you very much. Good afternoon. ... We meet at a time of great tension between the United States and Muslims around the world - tension rooted in historical forces that go beyond any current policy debate.

b) Explicated (B₂)

Thank you very much. Good afternoon. ... We meet at a time of great tension between the United States and Muslims around the world - tension rooted in historical forces that go beyond any current policy debate. [Disparity between the world of Islam and the United States is born by the inappropriate policies of the previous governing authorities against Muslims and has nothing to do with Obama's current policies and government.]

c) Results (A₂ & B₂)

Figure 4 displays the percentages for A₂:

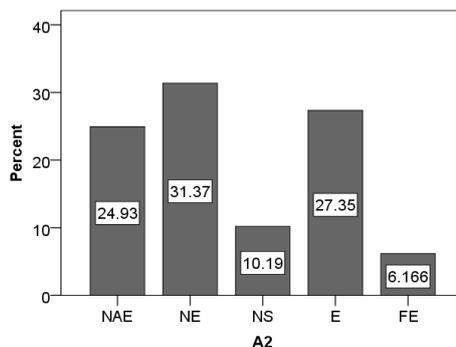


Figure 4 Percentages for non-explicated translation

As Figure 4 displays, out of 373 respondents rating A₂, 93 respondents (about 25%) rated it as ‘not at all explicit’, 117 respondents (about 31%) as ‘not explicit’, 38 respondents (about 10%) as ‘not sure’, 102 respondents (about 27%) as ‘explicit’ and 23 respondents (about 6%) have rated it as ‘fully explicit’. Based on the statistics ($M=2.58, SD=1.29$), the average number of responses is around option 3. Figure 5 displays the percentages for B₂:

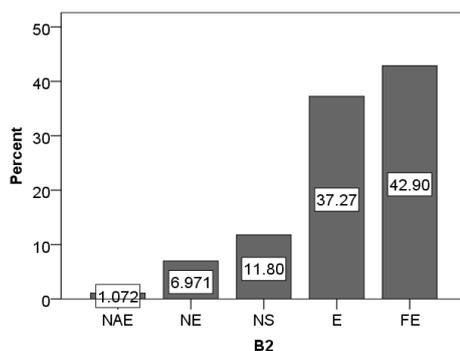


Figure 5 Percentages for explicated translation

As Figure 5 illustrates, out of 373 respondents rating B₂, 4 respondents (about 1%) rated it as ‘not at all explicit’, 26 respondents (7%) rated it as ‘not explicit’, 44 respondents (about 12%) as ‘not sure’, 139 respondents (about 37%) as ‘explicit’ and 160 respondents (about 43%) as ‘fully explicit’. Based on descriptive statistics ($M=4.14, SD=.95$), an average number of responses is between options 4 and 5. Table 2 displays the results computed for A₂ and B₂.

Table 2 paired sample t-test (A₂ - B₂)

	Paired Differences					t	f	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
				Lower	Upper			
A ₂ - B ₂	-1.55	1.63	.08	-1.72	-1.38	-18.33	72	.000

The respondents’ ratings for module B express a significantly higher level of explicitness than they do for module A, $t(372) = -18.33, p < .05$. Therefore, the difference between the means of the two translation modules is attributable to the ‘explication’ embedded in the second module.

5.3 Case 3 analysis (Obama, Inaugural Speech, 20 January 2009)

a) Non-explicated (A₃)

Forty-four Americans have now taken the presidential oath. The words have been spoken during rising tides of prosperity and the still waters of peace. Yet, sometimes the oath is fulfilled in the middle of gathering clouds and raging storms. At these moments, America has carried on not simply because of the skill or vision

of those in high office, but because We the People have remained faithful to the ideals of our forbearers, and true to our founding documents. So it has been. So it must be with this generation of Americans.

b) Explicated (B₃)

Forty-four Americans have now taken the presidential oath. The words have been spoken during rising tides of prosperity and the still waters of peace. Yet, sometimes the oath is fulfilled in the middle of gathering clouds and raging storms. At these moments, America has carried on not simply because of the skill or vision of those in high office, but because We the People have remained faithful to the ideals of our forbearers, and true to our founding documents. So it has been. [Obama is trying to portray the current situation in America - when he is taking the oath and stepping into the office - inappropriate]. So it must be with this generation of Americans.

c) Results (A₃ & B₃)

Figure 7 displays the percentages for A₃:

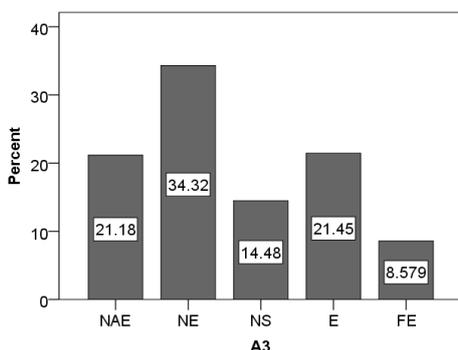


Figure 7 Percentages for non-explicated translation

As Figure 7 displays, out of 373 respondents rating A₃, 79 respondents (about 21%) rated it as ‘not at all explicit’, 128 respondents (about 34%) as ‘not explicit’, 54 respondents (about 14%) as ‘not sure’, 80 respondents (about 21%) as ‘explicit’ and 32 respondents (about 9%) have rated it as ‘fully explicit’. Based on the statistics ($M=2.61$, $SD=1.26$), the average number of responses is between options 2 and 3. Figure 8 displays the percentages for B₃:

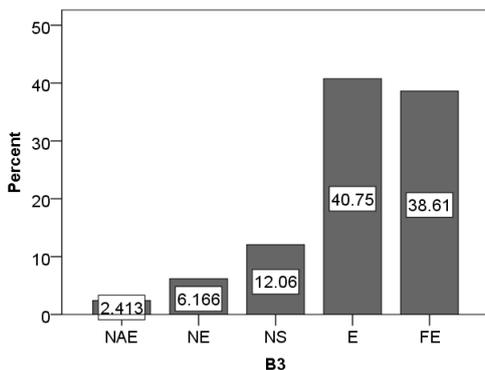


Figure 8 Percentages for explicated translation

As Figure 8 clearly illustrates, out of 373 respondents rating B₃, 9 respondents (about 2%) rated it as ‘not at all explicit’, 23 respondents (about 6%) rated it as ‘not explicit’, 45 respondents (about 12%) as ‘not sure’, 152 respondents (about 41%) as ‘explicit’ and 144 respondents (about 39%) as ‘fully explicit’. Based on the statistics ($M=4.06$, $SD=.98$), an average number of responses is around option 4. Table 3 displays the results computed for A₃ and B₃.

Table 3 Paired sample t-test (A₃-B₃)

	Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
				Lower	Upper			
A3 - B3	-1.45	1.54	.08	-1.60	-1.29	-18.10	372	.000

The respondents’ ratings for module B express a significantly higher level of explicitness and relevance than they do for module A $t(372) = -18.10$, $p < .05$.

5.4 Interview results

As to support the quantitative results, 25 respondents were interviewed for their opinions on evaluating the two non-explicated and explicated texts with different degrees of explicitness. The following nine codes were extracted from their opinions:

- knowledgeability
- contextual enrichment
- more demanding / less demanding
- pointlessness
- comprehensibility / incomprehensibility
- coherence / incoherence
- strengthening / narrowing original assumptions
- puzzling / overloading information
- naturalness / flow

In the non-explicated module (A’s), the translator assumes that his target readers share the necessary contextual information for grasping the implicatures and messages underlying them, for example, what the words *dream* or the *founders* in case 1 refer to. Therefore, the translator has kept the implicit as in the source text and has not provided any contextual information or communicative clues within or out of the text. In fact, the translator has kept interpretation of the implicatures a responsibility of the target readers. The lower rate of the respondents’ preferences

for the more explicit options in the first modules evidently proves that the respondents lack the necessary contextual information assumed initially by the translator. A Modules, therefore, have rarely helped the respondents achieve the intended interpretation of the implicatures due to the absence of any contextual effects; based on the ‘processing effort’ criterion and following the principle of relevance, A modules have posed extra processing demand on the respondents to reach the intended interpretation of the implicatures. In relevance-theoretic terms, A modules are not consistent with the principle of relevance, hence not able to help the respondents meet the expectancy of relevance to interpret the implicatures, thus less relevant to them. Unlike A modules, in B modules the translator – as a member of the same target community – assumes that the target readers do not share or share little contextual information with him/her about the messages of the implicatures; for example, the translator assumes that the target readers have little or no knowledge of what Obama is referring to when he uses the words *dream* or *founders*. With this in mind, the translator has inserted the most relevant interpretation of the message into the body of the text and has assumedly made it more explicit to the target readers by the provision of enough contextual information. In relevance-theoretic terms, the translator has linked up the translation with the readers’ cognitive level. The higher rate of the respondents’ preferences for more explicit options in B module confirms that the translator’s assumptions have been more effective. Based on the processing effort, this is believed to have reduced extra effort from the respondent and facilitated their task in working out the implicatures. According to the results of B modules and consistent with the principle of relevance, it is justifiable that the explication (of the implicatures) has linked up the translation with the target readers’ cognitive level, enabling them to meet the expectancy of relevance and grasping the implicatures in an easier way. As such, the translation proves to be more relevant to them.

A possible explanation for the above results is of a cognitive type. The findings support the role of the explication of implicatures under contextual enrichment as a contributing factor for enhancing the relevance of the translated texts to the target readers. In line with Pym’s claim (2005) that explication is a cognitive mechanism and gains its credibility from an application of relevance theory, the study reveals that translators should enrich the readers’ cognitively (provide enough communicative clues for them in translation) as they have less shared cultural and/or contextual assumptions than the original readers have. The study supports Pym’s claim by revealing that the contextual enrichment provided by the translator has a significant influence on the respondents’ evaluating the B translations as more explicit, hence relevant. The interview results, further, verify this cognitive explanation. A majority of the interviewees claimed that the addition of extra contextual information to the B translation helped them to rate it as more explicit. In compliance with Hatim (2006), who claims that relevance in translation is a matter of the balance between effort and reward, the findings prove that the explication of implicatures enhances the degree of explicitness in the B translations (reward) while minimizing the respondents’ mental processing (effort). This is further consolidated by the interview results. The findings, further, conform to Hoyle’s (2005) cognitive explanation on the relationship between the degrees of explicitness and the readers’ cognitive environment. In agreement with Hoyle’s

conclusions, the findings of the study confirm that each level of explicitness is suitable for a certain type of audience (from initiated to uninitiated) and that the process of explication can benefit different groups.

The findings disagree with Gutt (1992; 1996) as far as he firmly asserts that explicating the implicit meaning murders the original meaning (Gutt 1996), is likely to change the meaning of the translated text (1996) and should, therefore, be avoided. The statistical results, confirmed by the interview results, however, prove that explication has not distorted the original meanings. It is explained that explication of political implicatures has a facilitative role in generating sufficient contextual effects, hence the relevance of translation to the readers; therefore, it does not necessarily need to be avoided as claimed by Gutt. In general, the findings of the study tentatively reveal the opposite of Gutt's assertion because Gutt, more or less, devalues excessive communicative clues as over-translation, and rather prefers less contextual enrichment or explicitation (direct translation). The view taken by the researcher in claiming very tentatively against Gutt relates to and leaves space for the explanation of the unexpected findings. Though negligible in size, some respondents have shown a retreatment from an explicit position in A module to a less explicit one in B module. In such cases, as Gutt insists, explication has performed a detrimental effect so that it makes the respondents fall back to a less explicit, if not implicit, position. One possible reason for this retreatment, also supported by the findings from the interview, is the incomprehensibility of the B translation. It is assumed that the extra information has rendered it incomprehensible posing more processing effort on the respondents. The interview results confirm yet another possibility: lack of coherence in the B translation. This is consistent with Gutt's (2006) claim that implicitness is a necessary factor to make a text coherent. Another possibility, which is highly supported by the interview results, is that the translator has narrowed the interpretation more than its original intended implication, requiring deeper knowledge or more meaningful implications from the respondents, hence the problem of communicability. Not only the translator has been unable to create adequate contextual effects in the mind of the readers, but also he or she has posed an extra burden of processing to them.

6. Findings, implications, and conclusion

The present study offers a number of theoretical and pedagogical implications as follows:

Explication is perceived as a 'cognitive norm' especially in the translation of the implicatures; inspired by Chesterman, this conclusion is based on a logical determination that explication can be considered as a communication norm because it helps in optimizing communication including translation. According to Chesterman, communication norms are pragmatic in nature and have much to do with cooperative and relevance maxim of Grice; therefore, explication can be considered as a pragmatic norm. On the other hand, Malmkjær (2005) argues that the Gricean pragmatic maxims are cognitive in nature as they are rules of conversation in the mind of the receptor. As the result, explication is considered as

a cognitive and more precisely a cognitive-pragmatic norm in the translation of implicatures. In the light of van Dijk's cognitive model of (political) discourse analysis, this study models a cognitive 'readership' model in translation. In other words, this modeling is thought to fill in the gap in the current concepts and models of translation. This study is a step forward in realizing Yang's (2012) theory of 'political equivalence' in political translation. As the cognitive notion of relevance is replacing the textual notion of equivalence in translation, it is proposed that translators who translate political texts/talks should seek 'political relevance' for the target respondents. Evidenced by the findings, explication is one strategy towards achieving this goal. Therefore, political knowledge should be part of the translation competence of any political texts/talks translator and that such texts/talks be translated by a translator who has expertise in politics or a political expert who has studied translation academically.

Translating political speech is one of the most provoking aspects of translation as the politicians prefer lots of implicatures into their speech. Translators cannot confidently decide if unpacking these meanings in translation would make it more relevant or less relevant to the target readers. This question is empirically investigated in this article from a cognitive point of view. In-text explication was employed to treat some implicatures used by Obama in his political speeches. Analysis of the data and the findings reveal that explication, if fulfilled appropriately and specially by political experts, significantly enhances the degree of relevance of translation to the target readers in the context of political speech.

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Notes

- ¹ As Scott (2006) maintains, “in certain circumstances, something [an implicature] is so salient in the context that it demands less mental effort from the hearer to work it out by inference.”
- ² *Relevant translation* is a kind of translation which benefits from the *relevance account of translation* theorized by Gutt (1991).
- ³ Relevance Theory of Sperber and Wilson (1995) revolves around the cognitive notion of ‘relevance’. In this view, an utterance in the context of *C* is said to be ‘relevant’ if it makes connections with some pre-existing assumptions in *C* and ‘irrelevant’ if it does not or cannot. Thus, the notion of relevance heavily depends on the notion of ‘context’, which refers to assumptions, beliefs, backgrounds, and the cognitive environment that may invoke an intended interpretation. As Sperber and Wilson (1995:609) explain, relevance is governed by ‘contextual effects’ and ‘processing effort’ that may be assessed in terms of a cost-benefit relationship. Relevance is a graded concept. The degree of relevance is determined by the balance of contextual effect and processing effort.

Appendix: Interview Questions and Type of Questions

Questions	Type of question
1: Why do you think translation A is more explicit?	Open
2: Why do you think translation B is more explicit?	Open
3: Why do you think translation A has not changed in B?	Open
4: Why do you think translation A has improved in B?	Open
5: Why do you think translation A has retreated in B?	Open
6: Why do you think translation A is more acceptable?	Open
7: In what ways do you think B would improve in acceptability?	Open
8: Why do you think translation B is more acceptable?	Open
9: In what ways do you think A would improve in acceptability?	Open
10: Do you think that the added information made you choose B as acceptable?	Open
11: What sources of information (linguistic, encyclopedic, socio-political, cultural, historical, economical, biographical or diplomatic) do you think would improve on the acceptability of the non-acceptable translation?	Closed
12: Did you find any change of meaning from translation A to B?	Closed