

**DEVELOPING TRANSLATORS' SKILLS:
A DIACHRONIC CASE STUDY**

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ABSTRACT

Taking into consideration the calls for different translation training approaches in order to equip translators with the theoretical knowledge necessary to empower them in their role as cultural mediators, this study will investigate how and to what extent following a training programme at postgraduate level affects trainee translators' perception of translation problems and the way they justify their decisions. This study explores how trainee translators describe the strategies they used to identify translation problems and the justification of the decisions made, as well as to what extent trainee translators integrate the theoretical knowledge acquired throughout the course into translation practice. The one-year master's degree programme in Translation Studies at the University of Birmingham was used as a case study to undertake this research. Data was collected at different stages throughout the academic year (2012-2013). The research techniques used in this case study consisted primarily of a translation task completed by trainee translators and accompanied by forms to comment on translation problems and translation strategies. The task was followed, in some cases, by retrospective interviews. Textual analysis using the appraisal system developed by Martin and White (2005) was used to examine the stance trainee translators adopted in describing their strategies. This study suggests that translation training, in particular theoretical knowledge of translation acquired throughout the programme, has an impact on the trainees' perception of translation problems and the manner in which they justify translation strategies. This research indicates that trainee translators' understanding of translation problems changes from being merely linguistic to multidimensional after following a translation training programme. It also suggests that trainee translators develop their way of justifying their translation decisions from focusing on meeting the target language rules towards attempting to produce a clear and coherent target text. The present study also advances a new hypothesis: trainee translators become more objective and assertive in the justification of their solutions as a consequence of following a translation training programme.

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DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to my mother and father for their love and support.

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

DF	Degree of freedom
H₀	Null hypothesis
H₁	Alternative hypothesis
HE	Higher Education
L1	First language
L2	Second language
L3	Third language
M	Mean
P	Probability value
RF	Raw frequency
SD	Standard deviation
TL	Target language
TS	Translation Studies
UoB	University of Birmingham
x²	Chi-square statistical test

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1. Introduction

The aim of this thesis is to contribute to the development of translation training programmes and help trainee translators develop their translation competence, in particular their ability to identify translation problems and justify translation decisions. Translators are currently required to acquire different skills in order to be able to solve various translation problems in different domains to meet market requirements. Despite the still limited research on translation training (González Davies, 2004: 3), many approaches to translator training have been introduced, such as the Cognitive (Kiraly, 1995), Interpretive (Gile, 1995/2009), Functionalist (Nord, 1997/2005), Task-Based (Hurtado Albir, 1999 and González Davies, 2004) and Socio-Constructivist (Kiraly, 2000) approaches, as well as the Holistic approach (Robinson, 2003). These approaches call for developing the trainee translators' linguistic, intercultural and instrumental skills. Although these approaches to translation training differ in their emphasis, they all agree on the importance of providing translators with the competence to solve translation problems and take responsibility for their decisions while translating. These approaches to translation training also suggest that translator training programmes should integrate both theory and practice. Integrating theory and practice in translation training programmes can enhance trainee translators' active social role and help them develop their communicative and interdependence skills. This can be achieved by engaging them in authentic translation tasks within groups. Many researchers (e.g. Chesterman, 2000 and Lee, 2006) have called for providing trainee translators with both theoretical knowledge and vocational practice while also training to better meet market requirements. However, there does not seem to be any agreement in Translation Studies over the nature and role of translation theory courses in developing translators' translation competence in translator training programmes (see Chesterman and Wagner, 2002).

Despite the lack of research on the acquisition of *translation competence* (Hurtado Albir, 2007: 171), several models have been suggested by many authors in Translation Studies in order to define *translation competence* and identify its components, including Adab (2000), Beeby (2000), Kiraly (2000), Robinson (2003), Mackenzie (2004), Kelly (2005), Nord (2005) and Gile (2009). Although there does not seem to be an agreement among these models on the sub-competences constituting *translation competence*, these

models agree on the multi-componential nature of *translation competence*. Different models highlight different types of sub-competences including bilingual (communicative and linguistic), non-linguistic (general and specialized, cultural and intercultural knowledge) and instrumental competence (the ability to use technological tools), as well as the importance of providing trainee translators with theoretical knowledge about translation and aspects of the profession. They thus call for developing the necessary skills required by the current market in translation training programmes and for their curricula to reflect the multi-componential nature of *translation competence* which reflects the complexity of the real life profession.

All of these models emphasize the need for equipping translators with the ability to solve translation problems and adopt appropriate strategies. PACTE group (Process of Acquisition of Translation Competence and Evaluation)¹ refers to this as the “*strategic sub-competence*” and defines it as: “procedural knowledge to guarantee the efficiency of the translation process and solve problems encountered” (2011: 319). This procedural knowledge includes the ability to evaluate translation strategies and apply the most appropriate one confidently. The term *strategic sub-competence*, and PACTE’s definition will be used in the present study; however, it is important to note that other terms have been used by different authors to describe this type of sub-competence. Robinson (2003: 50), for example, uses the term *intelligence*, while Mackenzie (2004: 33) and Gile (2009: 9) refer to it as *management competence*. Many other scholars have used the term *transfer competence* to refer to this sub-competence, including Orozco (2000: 199) and Nord (2005: 12). Despite the different terms that have been used, most researchers (e.g. Neubert, 2000, Orozco, 2000, Robinson, 2003, Mackenzie, 2004, Gile, 2009 and PACTE, 2011) argue that it dominates, controls or integrates other sub-competences needed by the translators, such as the bilingual and intercultural.

Many studies have focused on the importance of developing bilingual, intercultural and instrumental competences (e.g. Presas, 2000 and Rodríguez-Inés, 2010). However, while, in Göpferich’s words, “strategic competence has been considered a central component of translation competence” (2012: 240), it “has not yet been the object

¹ This is a translation of the Spanish and therefore the acronym does not match the name of the group.

of systematic investigation” (*ibid*). This point is also made by Gregorio Cano (2014) who stated that the development of *strategic sub-competence* has been given little attention in literature in Translation Studies. This study will attempt to provide empirical evidence concerning the effect that following an academic translator training programme has on the trainee translators’ *strategic sub-competence*. It will also attempt to demonstrate the importance of combining both theoretical knowledge and practice in acquiring this competence within a translation training programme.

1.1 Research Questions

Taking into consideration the calls of different translation training approaches for equipping translators with a theoretical basis for translation in order to empower them as communicators between the source text’s author and the target text’s readers, this study will address translation training in an academic translation training context which combines both theory and practice. This study will endeavour to answer the following main research questions:

- 1) How does following a translator training programme at postgraduate level affect trainee translators’ perception of translation problems?
- 2) How does following a translator training programme at postgraduate level affect the manner in which trainee translators justify their solutions to translation problems?
- 3) How does following a translator training programme at postgraduate level affect the stance adopted by trainee translators when discussing their strategies?

The last question was raised as a result of a preliminary analysis of the data collected to answer the first two questions. The transcripts of the interviews, added to the data from the forms, constituted a body of text that was too large to be analysed without the help of a methodological tool in order to filter relevant linguistic features. Their degree of confidence seemed to be a particularly interesting area to explore, and the Appraisal theory developed by Martin and White (2005) seemed to be the only model suitable. The results are discussed in terms of degrees of assertiveness and objectivity because these

two parameters are the two most logically linked to the key categories of the Appraisal Theory.

1.2 Research Methods

To answer the research questions, we used primary as well as secondary research methods. More specifically, a case study was used to follow the progress of trainee translators in a translation training programme. Case studies provide the researchers with the opportunity to examine the complexities of a certain phenomenon, as they “provide a very thick description” of the case under study (Hale and Napier, 2013: 113). According to Saldanha and O’Brien (2013: 209), case studies “can make contributions to knowledge beyond the particular in three different scenarios: (1) in exploring questions of how and why, (2) for hypothesis generating (as opposed to hypo-thesis testing), and (3) for testing the viability of a theoretical framework”. The present research constitutes an example of the first scenario: a case study allowed us to investigate how following a specific MA programme affects trainee translators’ perception of translation problems and the way in which they justified their decisions while translating. Acquiring the ability to justify translation decisions would help trainee translators not only to develop their *strategic sub-competence* and consequently their *translation competence*, but also to be able to work confidently and autonomously after graduation. In addition, the present study represents an example of the second scenario: a case study helped generating a number of hypotheses concerning trainee translators’ development of *strategic sub-competence* as they followed an MA programme in Translation Studies.

The one-year MA in Translation Studies programme at the University of Birmingham was used as a case study because of logistical constraints including limited time and resources. A close comparison between different MA in Translation Studies programmes based on the material they have available on their websites, discussed in more depth in chapter three, shows that this programme shares many characteristics with other UK programmes:

- 1) It follows the UK higher education system.
- 2) It offers core and optional modules which are based on theory as well as many which are based on practice.

- 3) It includes national, European and overseas students.
- 4) Lecturers are of different nationalities and have professional translation experience.
- 5) It allows students to work with a variety of languages.
- 6) It gives the students the opportunity to work on research and translation projects to complete the programme.

The data in the present study was collected in cooperation with the trainee translators who followed the MA in Translation Studies programme at the University of Birmingham in the academic year 2012-2013. A combination of research techniques was employed for the purposes of collecting quantitative and qualitative data. The data was collected at three stages throughout the academic year, as follows:

- *First stage:* at the beginning of the academic year in the Autumn term, a questionnaire was initially used in order to collect background information about the students and define the context of the study. The questionnaire constituted a set of open and closed questions in order to gather data concerning the participants' age, gender, and linguistic, educational and professional experience. This was followed by a translation task, which included translating a brief text, a tourist brochure, and simultaneously commenting on the translation according to a pre-prepared form. This form allowed the participants to record the translation problems identified, the types of problems, the information sources used, the solutions, the strategies applied and justification for these strategies.

The translation task was then followed by semi-structured interviews with few participants in order to explore in more depth some of the questions raised by the data collected in the translation forms.

- *Second stage:* in the middle of the programme in the Spring term, the participants were provided with texts belonging to the same text type and of a similar length to translate. They were also asked to comment on their translation, using the form. As in the first stage, this was followed by semi-structured interviews.

- *Third stage:* at the end of the programme in the Summer term, another text with similar characteristics was given to the participants to translate and comment on the translation decisions according to the form. This was also followed by interviews.

The purpose of replicating the data collection process was to examine and explain the trainee translators' progress throughout the programme. The analysis in the current study involved a comparison of data across the three stages of the data collection process. A textual analysis of the language offered by the students in the translation forms and interviews was also carried out in order to investigate the third research question. For this purpose, the Appraisal system developed by Martin and White (2005) within the theoretical framework of Systemic Functional Grammar (SFG) was used, as previously mentioned, because it reveals the way the trainee translators express their attitudes, negotiate their propositions and articulate their viewpoints while justifying their decisions.

1.3 The Objective of the Study

The aim of using forms and interviews was to allow me to understand the way trainee translators following the MA in Translation Studies programme at University of Birmingham perceived and solved translation problems, and whether their perception of what constituted a translation problem changed after following the translation training programme; in other words, to answer the research questions one and two. The aim of the textual analysis of the students' responses was also to help in investigating to what extent the students' attitudes towards their role changed as a result of following the MA in Translation Studies at University of Birmingham. It was expected that examining the language used by the trainee translators would also help me to examine whether the students used the translation theory they had received while attending the MA translation training programme at University of Birmingham. Thus, the main objectives of the current study can be summarised as follows:

- Investigate the students' understanding of translation problems, strategies and justifications and how it developed throughout the academic year.

- Examine the students' adoption of terms from the translation theories, models or approaches offered in the programme and investigate the extent to which the students applied the theoretical knowledge acquired as part of their training programme.
- Study the students' attitudes and, in particular, their degree of assertiveness and objectivity as reflected by their use of evaluative language and whether this developed throughout the academic year.

1.4 Thesis Outline

The thesis has further seven chapters. **Chapter two** presents the debate between practice and theory in terms of translation training at an academic level. This chapter also provides a description of the major approaches to translator training and an overview of various models of *translation competence* which constitute the basis for many approaches to translator training. It also includes a discussion of the existing literature on translation problems and strategies that are the primary focus of the present study. **Chapter three** provides a rationale for employing a case study. This chapter also contextualises the case under study by providing background information on translation training programmes in the United Kingdom (UK) and Higher Education in the UK.

The general design of the current study is described in **Chapter four**, which also offers a justification for the use of mixed methods. It describes the steps taken in the recruiting process in the current study and related ethical issues and challenges. It also presents a description of the research instruments employed in the present study including the questionnaire, the translation task and the interviews. It also provides a detailed explanation of: the questions and format of the questionnaire, the texts to translate, the forms to complete, the instructions as part of the translation task, and the interview schedule and guide. Additionally, this chapter offers a rationale for the data collection and analysis procedures used in the case study and describes the pilot study which preceded the main study. **Chapter five** offers a description of the procedures followed in analysing the data provided in the questionnaire and forms. It also offers a discussion of participant students' profiles using the answers to the questionnaire. Moreover, it presents a discussion of the data in order to examine the way students perceived translation problems, applied translation strategies and justified their translation decisions. This

chapter also includes an analysis of the respondents' use of language when filling in the translation forms as part of the translation task and interviews, in order to examine whether they use any translation-related theoretical jargon or terms.

The theoretical framework used to carry out the textual analysis in order to examine the trainee translators' attitudes and positions while discussing the translation decisions they made is described in **Chapter six**. This chapter introduces Systemic Functional Grammar and offers a rationale for using the Appraisal system developed by Martin and White (2005). It also offers a description of the three sub-systems of the Appraisal theory: *attitude*, *engagement* and *graduation*, as well as the coding system used to analyse the data provided by the students in the forms and interviews. In addition, this chapter discusses the sub-system of *attitude* in more detail, and the data provided by the students in the forms and interviews accordingly. **Chapter seven** introduces the other of two sub-systems of the Appraisal theory: *engagement* and *graduation* in more detail before discussing the data obtained from the forms and interviews according to these two subsystems. The final chapter (**Chapter eight**) summarises the main findings of the present study, and discusses the research limitations and implications for further research.

2. Translator Training in the Academic Context

This chapter presents an overview of translation training at academic level. Additionally, it offers an overview of various models of *translation competence* which constitute the basis for the major approaches to translator training. Since the ability to identify translation problems and apply the most appropriate translation strategies is an important component of *translation competence*, as will be evident throughout this chapter, this is followed by a discussion of the existing literature on *translation problems* and *strategies*.

2.1 Translator Training as an Academic Discipline: The Theory-Practice Debate

Translator training at university-level is a relatively recent phenomenon dating from the second half of the twentieth century (Pym, 2009). Since the emergence of academic translation institutions, there has been conflict between the world of academia and the requirements of the real world market. Translator training outside university was typically based on practical activities which did not exist in most academic settings at the time (Kearns, 2008). On the other hand, academic standards at university-level were based on providing students with general theoretical knowledge rather than specific vocational skills, which were taught at specialised technical colleges. Therefore, there appeared to be a challenge in integrating practice within the realm of academic intellectualism and, consequently, in training translators at universities, as explained by Kelly:

“Universities in systems with a strong academic tradition will not formulate their overall aims in the same way as those with a more vocational tradition.

One might indeed question whether the former would actually be interested in translator training programmes as such at all!” (2005: 23)

This strong academic tradition has been described by Kiraly (2000: 20) as “transmission”: where certain practices are maintained by academics who refuse to change or develop them to meet market requirements and who tend to see the curriculum content as an end in itself.

However, professional translators challenged the theoretical basis which was central to academic translator training programmes (Gile, 2009). Professionals criticised

these programmes as being not useful for trainee translators because they considered the theoretical modules included in these programmes as too abstract and remote from professional translation practice (Gile, 2009: 16). Academic institutional training was criticised as it was not considered to help students to master the skills that would enable them to join the translation profession after graduation. Professional translators argued that, unlike vocational training contexts, translator training programmes at academic level did not prepare students for real life professions (Klein- Braley, 1996: 23). They claimed that a lack of vocational skills resulted in graduates being under-qualified in practical terms (Kearns, 2008). This basic dichotomy between the world of academia and the real-world profession, reflected the social division between the use of theoretical knowledge, which used to be associated with an intellectual elite, and the skills that tended to be associated with the working class by whom translation was considered to be a practical undertaking.

However, many of the rapid economic and social changes taking place throughout the world affected this debate between the world of academia and the translation profession. Those changes increased the need for translation services and more qualified translators to facilitate these services (Dollerup, 1996: 20). As a result, the number of academic translator training institutions increased in order to fulfil this need. This increase was also in response to the need for more professional translators in the light of the internationalization of the economy. Self-taught and informally trained translators continued to join the profession; however, their numbers are decreasing as obtaining a university degree in translation has become one of the market requirements, as noted by Kelly (2005). Curriculum design and development were affected by these changes at the academic level (Kearns, 2008). Universities faced increasing demands from stakeholders (students, parents and employers) to innovate curricula in order to provide students with practical skills and theoretical knowledge applicable in the field. As a consequence, universities started to integrate more vocational courses into their curricula in order to produce translators who were qualified to join the professional world after graduation. Moreover, research that sprang up from technical colleges weakened the division between universities and technical colleges leading to a further integration of practice at universities.

Despite the changes, the debate between the theoretical and vocational aspects of

translator training has always been one of the fundamental debates in the field of Translation Studies. This debate has been crystallised in the perennial dispute over the nature and role of translation theory courses in developing translators' skills in translator training programmes (see Chesterman and Wagner, 2002). Professional translators, on the one hand, tend to criticise translation theorists for refusing to examine the application of their theories and for not being able to keep abreast of the rapid developments in the real-world market. Academics, on the other hand, seem to be alarmed as the requirements of professional translators may mean that the translation programme syllabus would be defined by market needs which may prevent research or intellectual reflection (Kearns, 2008).

However, the professional translation community, who have always believed that translation training has to be mainly vocational (Kearns, 2008), seem to have changed their attitude towards the academic translator training programmes. They have realised that most lecturers in the academic translation institutions worked in translation-related areas (e.g. translation, localisation, project management and interpreting). Furthermore, within the increasing technological, social and economic changes, a realisation began to grow that market demands are only one of many other dimensions within society which translator training programmes who are preparing students must be able to meet (Pym, 2001). The purpose of translator training in the university context is to provide translators with transferable skills which facilitate students' mobility between different jobs, rather than equipping them with specific vocational skills. Thus, the professional community became aware of the broader nature of academic practice.

Many researchers (e.g. Chesterman, 2000, Bernardini, 2004, Ulrych, 2005 and Lee, 2006) have also called for the dismantling of the dichotomy between theoretical knowledge and vocational practice. Academics in higher education acknowledged that a significant part of learning can take place in the job market, emphasising the importance of including practice and internship in academic programmes (Kearns, 2008: 195). They have called for the work environment to be considered as a source of knowledge rather than merely an arena in which to apply the theories taught at universities (Hager and Hyland, 2003). Assiter notes that "even if the core skills *are* market driven, it is very difficult for anyone to argue against it *also* being good for individual learning, for personal development, and for life" (1995: 15, emphasis in original). He also argues that

“‘problem-solving skills’, ‘management skills’, or ‘interpersonal skills’ all rest upon considerable knowledge and understanding” of the world (1995: 13).

Other researchers, who have also called for integrating theory and practice in translator training programmes, have argued that such training can affect translators’ professional standards and social status. Gile (2009) argues that translators whose level of performance is low, and who have not been engaged in such training before joining the profession, dragged down the status and working conditions of professional translators. He points out that this type of training can help prepare skilled translators and consequently raise the professional standards and social status in the translation market (*ibid*). Such training, according to Gile (2009), can help professional translators to fully realize their potential and develop their skills more rapidly than self-instruction or field experience. Translation training courses integrating a theoretical basis can enhance translators’ understanding of the methodology they use. According to Bartina (2005: 178), “[a]ny translation choice, any translation judgment reveals a theoretical position.” Equipping translators with theoretical tools can assist translators in systemising the translation practices and simultaneously enhance their ability to rapidly solve the translation problems and confidently justify their decisions. This type of training, according to Gile (2009: 7), can also enhance translators’ professional status by introducing them to international organisations and other institutional clients and giving them opportunities for research in translation. It may also develop their self-esteem as professional translators by giving them the feeling that they belong to a genuine profession (*ibid*).

2.2 Major Approaches to Translator Training

As academia began to take stock of the complexity of the translation profession, approaches to translation training in the field of Translation Studies also changed. Traditionally, research on translator training has mainly been focused on individual aspects and cases, such as teaching terminology or planning a course in a specific area of study (Sawyer, 2004). However, more recently, many approaches to translator training have been introduced and successfully applied to translation training classrooms, such as the Cognitive (Király, 1995), Interpretive (Gile, 1995/2009), Functionalist (Nord, 1997/2005), Task-Based (Hurtado Albir, 1999 and González Davies, 2004) and Socio-

Constructivist (Kiraly, 2000) approaches, as well as the Holistic approach (Robinson, 2003). In the following section, these approaches will be introduced and their most important aspects will be discussed. This discussion will provide the historical and theoretical background of the current study.

2.2.1 The Cognitive Approach

Cognitive approaches to translation are based on a view of the knowledge-construction process according to which translators have innate-linguistic abilities, which they develop during their life through practice and exposure to different tasks (Krings, 1986). The focus of this approach is on what goes on in the translator's mind. In particular, Kiraly's cognitive model is significant for its attempt to use this cognitive approach in order to train novice translators to become competent translators. According to his model, while translating, translators use both controlled (conscious strategies) and uncontrolled (intuition) processes. Translators use intuitive processes most of the time, but tend to use conscious strategies when uncontrolled processes fail.

Kiraly (1995) argues that the difference between trainee translators and professional translators lies in their conscious processing (identifying problems, resolving them and evaluating the solution) which can be taught in class through studying the strategies used by professional translators. These strategies are considered as artefacts stored in the mind of professional translators, who retrieve them from their cognitive resources when faced with translational problems. The traditional (teacher-centred) method of memorisation can be used to teach trainee translators the professional strategies that are found to be efficient in translation (*ibid*). However, Kiraly (1995) points out that it is not guaranteed that the strategies learned by trainees will be efficient for every translator when they interact with his/her own intuitive resources, recommending them to develop their intuitive faculties through practice in order to improve their speed and quality. Every translator has also his/her own way of solving the translational problems related to a certain situation. Trainee translators use the strategies they've learned in order to create new strategies instead of employing these strategies as they are (Schön, 1987).

Kiraly (1995) argues that translation training programmes have to raise students' awareness of their metalinguistic processes in order to enable them to reflect on the strategies used and evaluate their efficiency according to specific situations. He

emphasises that teaching methods should accentuate the relationship between learned strategies and translation intuitions. He suggests the use of talk-aloud activities, whereby students translate a text individually or in groups, record their thoughts on audiotapes, and then assess the translation in terms of the effectiveness of strategies used. These activities help students focus on the process of translation, and the discussion of a particular situation among learners develops their personal interdependence. Such activities also help translators build their self-concept, that is, their responsibilities and duties as professional translators (*ibid*).

Students cannot be taught how to acquire understanding of a self-concept. However, it is possible to engage them in realistically simulated or real professional experience which raises their awareness of what it means to be a professional translator and to translate professionally (Kiraly, 1995: 114). Such activities allow trainees to be confronted with the profession's complexities and constraints and the target audience's demands. Engaging learners in such assignments rather than simulated tasks increases their motivation and enhances their sense of responsibility. This model emphasises that translation tasks and activities should be selected carefully and in accordance with the trainees' learning needs. It encourages translation programmes to include instruments for testing trainees' relevant translation competence at the beginning of the course in order to define their needs. The trainee translators' self-concept can also be enhanced through following a course of contemporary translation theories accompanied with translation tasks (*ibid*). Such a course would encourage learners to read about various topics (discourse analysis, text types, intercultural communication, etc.), discuss them in groups and present them to the entire class to help them evaluate this information and judge its suitability to a specific task.

According to this model, error analysis is an important teaching resource as it helps teachers understand the types of problems (linguistic, cultural, textual, comprehension and production) that occur during the progress of training (*ibid*). It will also allow them to identify the kind of strategies (recognition, resolution and evaluation) trainees need to learn in order to improve the process of recognition of intuitive skills, simultaneously developing their translation competence.

Kiraly (1995), however, points out that the empirical description of the intuitive and conscious processes is not enough for creating a complete pedagogy in the domain

of translation. This cognitive model of translation training also tends to consider the teaching process as a mere transfer of strategic knowledge from teachers to students and consequently translators as information processors (Bednar et al, 1992). Moreover, it is impossible to identify all the strategies used by professional translators and define the circumstances under which they may emerge. We would also argue that this model seems to discourage any interaction or negotiation between the students and their teachers, thus denying the social identity of learners. Scholars (e.g. Dreyfus and Dreyfus, 1986) who see translators as cognitive processors have also tended to overlook the surrounding socio-cultural factors affecting the process of translation. The cognitive approach ignores the fact that trainee translators acquire professionalism in solving problems as a result of their social interaction in the real world (Brown et al, 1989: 33).

2.2.2 The Interpretive Approach

The Interpretive approach to translation training introduced by Gile (1995/2009) is significant for its greater emphasis on translation as a process rather than the final product. For example, instead of considering translation strategies as artefacts that can be transmitted from professional translators to trainee translators, as was the case in the Cognitive approach, this model encourages trainees to reflect on and assimilate the strategies they have learned while translating in order to use them in future situations through focusing on one translation problem at a time (Kelly, 2005). Following this model should help learners to progress faster as they would be able to focus on specific aspects of the translation process rather than being overwhelmed when dealing with all the problems occurring while translating. However, it is also important to involve students, at advanced levels, with the complexity of translation tasks to prepare them for market requirements after graduation, as argued by Kiraly (2000). This model emphasises the importance of providing students with a theoretical basis, which can help them deeply understand the translation task and the difficulties involved in it, decide on the most suitable strategies, and consequently be able to learn more quickly. Providing translators with a theoretical background prepares them for the professional world, and enables them to justify the strategies they use (Chesterman and Wagner, 2002). Gile (2009) also highlights the importance of involving linguistic and world knowledge within the process of translation and interpreting, encouraging trainees to read more and use online

information.

This approach is also important for emphasising the similarities between translation and interpreting and the fact that translators have to know about both of them, as many researchers (Padilla and Martin, 1991 and Lang, 1991) have argued. Gile (2009) proposes the 'Sequential Model' of translation and the 'Efforts Model' of interpretation. The 'Sequential Model' describes the stages translators go through from the source text (comprehension phase) to the target text (reformulation phase). In the comprehension phase, the translator reads the source text, dividing it into translation units and assigning temporary meaning to every unit, depending on his/her linguistic and extra-linguistic knowledge of the source text. If this knowledge is not sufficient to create a meaning hypothesis, the translator tends to pass through a phase of knowledge acquisition, looking for other information and using different documentary or human sources. The translator then checks the plausibility of the meaning hypothesis, looking for contradictions. If s/he finds it implausible, the translator must then construct another hypothesis, passing through the same phases. When the hypothesis passes the plausibility test, the translator moves to the stage of reformulation, where the translator verbalises this meaning, depending on his/her linguistic and extra-linguistic knowledge of the target language. When this knowledge is insufficient, the translator tends to depend on other sources of information. S/he then tests the translation for fidelity (required information is included). If some changes are necessary in the translation, the translator writes a new version and tests it again. When the results are satisfactory, the final version of the translation passes through an editorial acceptability test for clarity, style and terminology, etc. The translator repeats the same test until s/he gets the required results, and simultaneously tests it for plausibility in order to identify fidelity errors that may have occurred during the comprehension process. When these results are satisfactory, the same process is applied to the other translation units. When all units have been translated, the translator then tends to test a group of translation units for fidelity and plausibility for a more consistent translation. This model helps learners become aware of the process of translation and the types of skills they need to develop at each stage in this process in order to become highly qualified translators.

The 'Efforts Model' explains the problems that occur in interpreting which cause the deterioration of the interpreter's performance. Gile offers a general view of the coping

tactics used by interpreters to overcome the problems arising while interpreting. Although Gile in his model focuses on interpreting, most of the strategies discussed in his approach also apply to translation. Lederer (2007: 15-16) argues that:

“Although practical modalities and constraints are different, the cognitive processes of translation and interpretation are basically the same. Even though partial empirical research may bear on one or the other of these activities, theory embraces both, and the conclusions drawn should also apply, beyond the restricted field of translation and interpretation, to discourse comprehension and production in general”.

Thus, introducing the coping tactics to trainee translators would help them to consider these strategies and possibly use while translating. Gile divided coping tactics into three sets of strategies: comprehension, preventive and reformulation. When comprehension problems arise, interpreters tend to use a set of tactics which include delaying the response in order to think while receiving information from the source text's presenter, reconstructing a speech segment depending on the information provided by the context, using their booth mate's help or consulting a document in the booth, among others. A set of techniques also used by interpreters in order to prevent a failure from happening during interpreting involves taking notes, changing the time between comprehension and production, reformulating speech segments before having a full picture of what the speaker wants to say or changing the order of elements in enumeration. In order to avoid production problems, interpreters tend also to use the aforementioned tactics in addition to other strategies followed in the reformulation phase, such as explaining or paraphrasing a certain term, reproducing unfamiliar sounds heard in the source text speech, naturalization (adapting terms to the morphological or phonological rules of the target language), replacing segments with more general segments. The interpreters can also use the following tactics: transcoding (word for word translation of terms), referring delegates to other information sources (figures or handouts), omitting information, etc. Gile (2009) recommends interpreters to be cautious while using these tactics in order to avoid losing other important speech segments.

The emphasis of this process-oriented approach is on good translation methods and procedures without commenting on students' translation by saying 'good' or 'wrong' (Kelly, 2005). Gile (2009) insists that there is no ideal translation and the teachers should

thus be flexible in judging the students' translations according to different principles, such as acceptability in the target situation and culture and fidelity to the source text or client, especially in the early stages of training. However, at later stages, as the students progress, the focus of translation assessment may be more on the product. This methodological change reflects the flexibility of this model which does not stick to one teaching methodology throughout the process of training (*ibid*). Moreover, Gile does not consider the concepts, methods and activities introduced in his model as final and he calls for continuous development of them. Although his model is suitable for most learning situations in translation and interpreting, it is designed for advanced translation. Thus, this model is not suitable for courses where students who do not have sufficient linguistic competence and it does not offer any suggestions for addressing such deficiencies.

2.2.3 The Functionalist Approach

The Functionalist approach to translation is based on the idea that translation is cross-cultural communication and the function of the target text is the basis of adequate translation (Munday, 2008). Some focus on specific concepts related to achieving functional equivalence (Reiss, 1981/2000) and others on the communicative function (Vermeer, 1989). Nord's Functionalist model (1997/2005) is the one which gives greatest importance to translator training based on translation-oriented text analysis. According to this model, the source text is analysed according to specific intratextual (subject matter, content, presupposition, text composition, lexis and sentence structure) and extratextual factors (sender, audience, medium, and place, time and motive of communication) which help the translator identify its function. By comparing the source texts' function(s) to the translation brief's function(s) (the instructions set by the initiator; client or teacher, etc.), the translator can identify emerging problems, and choose suitable procedures in a consistent and systematic way, in order to produce an acceptable translation within the target context. According to Nord (2005), translators need a detailed description of the translation skopos (purpose) in order to find functionally adequate solutions.

Nord (2005) also uses this text analytical model as a basis for selecting texts for translation classes and insists on using authentic texts and providing the trainees with enough information about the situation in which the text was used. Dealing with authentic texts can motivate learners and provide them with the ability to handle a variety of

problems which may occur while translating. According to this model, teachers can reduce or increase the difficulty or the complexity of the text by giving specific translating instructions, such as translating a specific part of the text and summarising others (Nord, 2005). She also provides a criterion for text classification for translation classes, according to extratextual (for example, texts with the same author and different addressees) or intratextual features (texts with the same subject matter). This mechanism can help learners at earlier stages improve faster as it systematises the difficulties they may face while translating.

The emphasis is on providing students with realistic translation assignments. A series of activities are suggested in order to develop translators' competence. Several factors which determine the difficulty of translation tasks are identified and classified into translation problems and translation difficulties (Nord, 2005). Translation problems are objective challenges faced by every translator irrespective of his/her level of competence. These problems can be pragmatic (different receivers and motives of production and translation), convention-related (differences in culture specific conventions, such as genres), linguistic (lexis and sentence structure) and text specific translation problems (any feature which is specific to the text at hand). Nord (2005) argues that, as there are no general rules for solving these problems, the teacher's role is to raise the students' awareness of them, highlighting their relation to other aspects within the process of translation, such as register and text function. Translation difficulties, as opposed to translation problems, are subjective since they are related to the translators' level of competence and the working conditions under which they are working. These difficulties can also be classified into four categories: text-specific (the complexity of the content), translator-dependent (translators' linguistic and world knowledge), pragmatic difficulties (differences between the source and target texts in terms of context of situation and culture) and technical difficulties (translators' competence of using means of documentation and research). Controlling the degree of difficulty of the text can be achieved selecting texts according to the trainees' level of competence, using a translation brief (specific instructions) and changing certain situational factors, such as the target audience. The students would be expected to identify these translation problems and difficulties while translating and suggest the most suitable strategies to overcome them, using the text analytical model. Classifying problems using the rules developed by the

teacher helps trainees, at earlier stages, find the right solutions and follow the right strategies when faced with similar situations, thus developing their translation competence.

Because translation competence consists of linguistic and extra- linguistic skills, translator training programmes should include courses in cultural studies, specialised fields, technology, research and documentation and modules which improve the trainees' linguistic abilities in their L1 and L2 separated from translation classes (*ibid*). The purpose is to dedicate translation courses to develop learners' translation competence rather than turning them into L2 learning classes. It is also significant to achieve coordination between the different courses in translator training programmes in order to establish a logical progression in the training process, as Nord (2005) recommends.

A few guidelines for assessing the quality of the translation are introduced in this model. The teachers offer the trainees an assignment, according to which their translations are to be assessed. The problems that the students have identified and worked on in order to find solutions during the course constitute a schema which is used as a frame of reference, according to which the learning process is evaluated and the students are tested (Nord, 2005). Students have to comment on their translation and justify their decisions with reference to the translation theory classes. This allows trainee translators to focus on the process of translation rather than the final product. Translators are not required to produce a correct translation, but they are expected to create an acceptable translation according to the required function within a specific situation. They have to meet the instructions of the client (as formulated by the teacher), taking into consideration the target readers' knowledge and cultural expectations.

Other forms of assessment, suggested by Nord (2005), include asking the students to identify the translation problems and corresponding strategies or analysing a text and its translation depending on the text analytical model and using the schema as a frame of reference. The text will include various translation problems, but the trainees will be marked only according to familiar problems that they dealt with during the class. Teachers, according to this model, as the only target receivers, judge and mark translation errors according to the translation brief. They count the adequate solutions rather than the errors, giving more marks for students who solve problems that have not been dealt with during the course. The function of the target text is the crucial criterion in assessment and

translation criticism, allowing for errors to occur at smaller levels of the text. Errors related to extra- textual factors are considered to be more serious than mere linguistic errors and the hierarchy of extra- textual errors are also defined by the function indicated by the translation brief.

Although Nord's model represents a move towards student-centred translation training, her approach emphasizes "the need for considerable teacher intervention" in the learning process (Kelly, 2005: 13). The authority and power exercised by teachers encourage learners' passive roles and their dependence on their trainer's dictation of norms while translating. This strategy as followed by the teachers does not allow trainees to invent, discuss and negotiate the norms of a certain assignment, consequently enhancing their active social roles (Toury, 1992). This model of translation training, based on the procedure of following a specific assignment and assessing trainees' competence according to the set of problems and strategies taught during the course, prevents students' perspective and insight to contribute to the process of translation. The students in this way cannot discuss more translation problems other than those discussed with the teacher in the course while translating. Although following this criterion of classifying problems and solutions helps with schematising the types of translation problems faced by the translators, it masks the complexity of translation tasks. It does not allow learners to bring their own experiences to the class and develop their professional skills in translation. Translators instead should be equipped with a competence that helps them identify the norms of different cultures in different situations which could create translation problems, instead of being instructed with solutions to certain translation problems. Similarly, Chesterman (1993: 18) suggests that "trainees can be taught, for instance, to think consciously about alternative strategies, to observe and evaluate the results of different strategies, and so on".

This model also does not encourage collaborative work that helps students exchange their ideas and expertise in solving translation problems. The trainer is still an instructor who focuses on the students' memorization of knowledge, simultaneously restricting educational innovation. According to Kiraly (2000: 57), "it is the teacher's task to provide the necessary dynamic support (scaffolding) within these authentic situations to ensure that students actually do learn and progress toward greater competence". The

teacher is supposed to be a facilitator or mediator who helps trainees construct their own meanings, enabling them to face the professional world after graduation.

2.2.4 Task-Based Approach

The Task-Based approach is important for pushing the wheel forward in translation training towards more student-centred methodologies. The focus in this approach is on the student who plays an active role in the translation and learning processes. This approach is introduced by Hurtado Albir (1999) and González Davies (2004) who applied the Task-Based approach to learning and teaching a foreign language to translator training (Kelly: 2005: 16). The Task-Based approach to translation training combines different linguistic and cultural studies in the training environment and is based on student/teacher and student/student interaction. It is basically built on the involvement of both teachers and students in the decision making process within the classroom to carry out the educational process, plan the content and objectives and choose the pedagogical methodologies and assessment tools. According to Hurtado Albir (2007: 173), translation is “a textual, communicative and cognitive activity”. González Davies (2004) criticised approaches which are teacher centred and called for considering the trainees’ different learning styles and backgrounds and for developing teaching methods through the use of interactive tasks, group work and authentic translation projects.

Hurtado Albir (2007: 164) criticised traditional approaches to translator training which randomly address translation problems while considered current approaches such as the Socio-Constructivist as being more suitable to translators’ needs, and therefore useful in terms of curriculum design. The Task-Based approach offers many suggestions and examples of translation activities, tasks and projects for different levels to be carried out by the students and teachers in the classroom. Activities are exercises which help translators develop different aspects of their translation competence such as the linguistic or encyclopaedic skills while tasks are groups of activities with the same aims which might require different sessions. Projects take longer periods of time and are more students centred and require student’s cooperation and participation in the decision and assessment process with the teachers. For each activity or task, the aims, level, approximate timings, grouping, steps to implement the task and examples are presented in this approach. The focus in the tasks is on the process that the students goes through to

complete the translation activities rather than on the answers. Therefore, following this approach provides students with the necessary skills to identify and solve translation problems in every situation.

González Davies (2004) expands more on the role of the teachers within the translation classroom. He (2004: 2) criticised the negligence of the teachers' role in the literature of translation training process and the lack of research on class dynamics. According to this approach, the teacher guides and directs students through the problem-solving process of translation rather than being the instructor who is looking for the right answers. In terms of class dynamics, González Davies called for changing the classrooms into interactive forums and workshops. According to González Davies, designing programmes and developing and sequencing material should be done with specific pedagogical aims where various tasks and authentic projects are involved. The tasks and the activities used in the classroom should help linking between the classroom and the professional world through involving the trainees into discussions with professional and specialists from various domains. The material selected should be based on various topics (medical, technological) and text types in order to allow students to practice different types of translation (written, sight), develop different translation (identifying and solving problems) and language skills (reading and writing), and raise their awareness of the professional and transfer aspects in the translation process.

In their approach, Hurtado Albir and González Davies discuss many issues in translator training such as learning objectives and assessment. Hurtado Albir (2007: 174) divided learning objectives in translation training into four categories: methodological (the principles and strategies that the translator control in the translation process to appropriately solve translation problems), contrastive (related to finding solutions for differences between languages), professional-instrumental (knowledge of the job market and the use of documentary and research tools), and textual (solving textual problems and problems related to genre). Many factors might affect these objectives such as directionally and area of specialisation, as noted by Hurtado Albir (2007). These learning objectives were based on her proposal of the specific competences required by translators (2007: 177): methodological and strategic, contrastive, extralinguistic, occupational, instrumental and textual. She built her proposal upon the model suggested by PACTE group's model of translation competence, which will be discussed in section 3.3.

Assessment according to this approach applies to both students and teachers. Teachers are supposed to consistently assess their procedures and methodologies while training while students should be provided with the skills of self-assessment which will help them in their post-training life (Hurtado Albir, 2007). In assessment, teachers should consider what, when and how to assess (Hurtado Albir, 2007). In this approach, three types of assessment are identified: summative based on grading, formative with the purpose of monitoring the learning process and diagnostic in order to know the profile of the student and check their progress (Hurtado Albir, 2007: 181). Hurtado Albir argues that the formative one should be given a priority for its usefulness in monitoring the learning process and hence the students' progress. González Davies (2004: 33) suggested including a combination of numerical (according to the accreditation system in the institution) as well as holistic marking system (where the teacher comments on the translated text in general and how it can be developed to better satisfy the customer's need). This makes the approach applicable to translation training programmes at university level.

This approach does not recommend following specific translation theories and suggests allowing students to apply different theories in action and encourage students to approach translation from different perspectives. Task-based learning gives students the ability to apply the theoretical basis acquired throughout training into practice and involve them in projects and exercises similar to what is expected from them after graduation and hence preparing them for the real life and provide them with long life learning. It allows students to progress on their own offering self-study activities and encouraging students to be self-reliant. González Davies does not claim that this is the only and right approach, recommending the book users to adapt the activities according to their contexts. The importance of this approach also lies in the fact that this approach offered significant amount of insight in terms of curriculum design and assessment. The approach suggests many activities, tasks and projects which develop different aspects of translation competence and stimulate the professional world to prepare students for market requirements. Thus, the focus in this approach is on the translators' active role, as noted by Rodríguez-Inés and Hurtado Albir (2012: 99):

“The task-based approach fosters the integration of not only tasks,
but also context identification and analysis, the selection of objectives

and contents, and evaluation, giving students a more active role.”

This approach links the translation training process including assessment tools and translation tasks to learning outcomes (Kelly, 2005: 17). It puts less emphasis on language skills and more on reflective, conceptual and transfer skills which can be used in any language combination. Therefore, this approach is useful because of its flexibility and adaptability to different translator training scenarios and situations instead of being prescriptive.

2.2.5 The Socio-Constructivist Approach

The Socio-Constructivist approach to translator training, which was introduced by Kiraly (2000), is significant for considering translation as a social exchange and encouraging collaborative learning in an interactive environment which help trainee translators develop their skills, more specifically their communicative competence. This approach is based on socio-constructivism theories which stress the importance of social interaction in developing learners’ cognitive system (Brown, 2007). It emphasises that learners’ experience generates their own knowledge and that learning is a social process created through dynamic interaction between the teachers, learners and tasks. Translators interpret their experience according to their mental structures in order to create their own meanings. They assimilate these meanings and begin to adjust their mental structures to new situations. According to his approach, trainers have to engage themselves within a network of professional and social activities that develop their communicative competence (Kiraly, 2000). Translators also have to acquire competence in knowing when, how and where to search for information about subjects which they are not familiar with. These views confirm the translators’ roles as active professional language users, rather than people who passively transfer a text from one language into another.

The activities proposed in this approach are based on collaborative and interpersonal discussions and debates, which allow learners to reflect on their work and consequently enhance their expertise (Kiraly, 2000). The aim of these activities is to prepare competent, self-confident and self-reliant translators who can work autonomously and assume responsibility for their decisions in the professional world, not only within the boundaries of the educational institutions in which their training is taking place. The emphasis in the Socio-Constructivist approach is on engaging students in translation

projects with peers, working in small groups and negotiating problems and solutions in order to complete the required task. Extending the views of Functionalist and Cognitive approaches, Kiraly (2000) insists on building a link between the classroom and the professional world through engaging the students in authentic projects. He emphasises the importance of integrating authentic and real-world complexity in classroom situations. The purpose is to prevent the teacher from predefining the teaching material to be taught in the classroom, and therefore the trainees' skills and knowledge to be acquired. Although this reduces the authority exercised by the teacher when forcing students to deal with different problems at earlier stages of their training, as Nord (2005) emphasises, integrating authentic tasks in the classroom can confuse and de-motivate, and therefore negatively affect their success.

Kiraly (2000) implemented a case study in a class, where he applied his Socio-Constructivist approach to translator training through engaging the class in translating a chapter from an edited volume on different topics. During this case study, the students were divided into groups and each group had to translate part of the chapter then exchange it with another group for editing. After that, these two groups discussed the suggestions for corrections, handling different matters such as accuracy, adequacy, appropriateness, style, lexis, structure and many other features related to text comprehension and production. This strategy helps learners learn how to edit other translators' work and correct their own translations.

After implementing the case study, Kiraly proposed a few recommendations. For example, he suggested students carry out a preliminary training exercise to raise their awareness of their social roles within small groups before starting an authentic project, as also argued by Johnson and Johnson (1991). However, Kiraly was rather vague about this proposal as he did not clearly explain what kind of activities or material should be used and how it should be related to translation. He also recommends teachers take the role of group work facilitators in order to help the students organise themselves within groups and make sure that members of the same group work collaboratively and are mutually interdependent. Learners have to be encouraged to identify their roles within the group themselves as it will help them learn how to assess their own ability, consequently working more efficiently. He also proposes including both native trainee speakers of L1 and L2 within the same group to help each other understand the specificities of the source

and target texts. This helps students exchange information about different cultures, and therefore enhance both their intercultural and communication skills. Including native speakers in the classroom reduces the authority exercised by the teacher within the group, as s/he would not be the only source of information about the target language or culture (*ibid*). Students should participate in classroom management through discussing the benefits of inviting native speakers or other specialists to the classroom and the ways they want these visitors to be engaged in the process of translation. He also argues that teachers should be aware of the time available and various academic constraints while selecting a translation project. Taking these constraints into consideration, the teacher can simulate real translation projects, allowing students to select the texts to be translated within the class. Teachers and students can work collaboratively to select the types of texts which should ideally cover a wide range of topics to meet the market needs. Kiraly (2000) suggests having a colleague who assesses the target text as a client in the course, consequently motivating the trainees' learning experience. This also prevents the teacher from being the sole assessor who judges the quality of students' translation. Kiraly (2000) also proposed dealing with a complete text and moving from simple to complex text types in collaboration with the students in order to involve them in the learning process. In addition, he suggests another way of dealing with the complexity of the texts through sharing the process of translation between courses from different levels; for example, a group would prepare a specialised glossary covering the topics included within the text while another group would carry out the translation. Such activities develop the trainees' terminology management skills and enhance their interpersonal and communication skills. He also suggests integrating computer-based tools in the translation training classes, which is important for developing the translators' technological skills as emphasized by many researchers (Rodríguez-Inés, 2010).

The Socio-Constructivist model represents a move from translation training approaches which are mainly either teacher-centred or student-centred to more learning-centred approaches (Malena, 2003). Teachers following this model tend to play the role of mediators and guides, facilitating the learning process and involving students in the selection, negotiation, discussion and evaluation of the classroom material and activities. Opposite to the Task-Based approach, Kiraly did not thoroughly discuss the issue of translators' trainers in his approach; however, he suggests changing and adapting aspects

of his model to suit the aims and objective of every institution. According to this approach, learning is a construct of thought and mind, social and individual, cultural and physical environment. Therefore, the aim of this approach is to raise the students' awareness of the social conditions under which they work and help them understand that these conditions can be changed. Students must be trained to question, criticize and challenge the social and political work practices (Abdallah, 2011: 133-134). Many other researchers such as Gill and Guzmán (2011: 93), who believe that "the teaching of social awareness in translation programmes has become a humanitarian necessity in the globalized world", call for "a pedagogy of translation that focuses on the translator as a subject whose work has social and ethical implications". Thus, contrary to other approaches, the focus of this approach is on developing the translators' skills which would enable them to cope with the constantly changing socio-cultural norms and thus solve problems and complete translation tasks in every situation (Kelly, 2005).

2.2.6 Holistic Approach

The Holistic approach introduced by Robinson (2003) is important in that it combines both conscious analysis and subliminal or unconscious discovery, which professional translators develop by practice, in translation training pedagogy. Translation is a learning cycle that moves from instinct (unconscious) to experience (engagement with the world). Through experience, learners pass through the stages of abduction (guesswork), induction (pattern-building) and deduction (generalisation: rules and laws). The translation procedures used to solve the complex task then become subliminal/unconscious for the professional translators who use their analytical conscious again when faced with a new problem. According to Robinson (2003), this can be applied to classrooms by making traditional teaching methods more enjoyable and thus more effective. Because learners enjoy the class, learning becomes unconscious and they will begin to translate more accurately and solve problems more rapidly.

The Holistic approach does not follow one school, but builds its conclusions on observational, experimental and theoretical studies in both the fields of translation and interpreting, as well as other disciplines such as cognitive and social psychology and psycholinguistics. Robinson's model integrates both translation theory and practical skills needed by professional translators in the process of translation training, hence balancing

academic and real-world learning (Kelly, 2005). Many activities suggested for translator trainees and different types of learners, depending on Jensen's approach to learning styles (1988), have also been identified by Robinson. These learning styles were classified according to four variables: context, input, processing and response (see table 2.1)

Table 2.1: Students' Learning Styles			
<i>Variables</i>	Types of Learners		
<i>Context</i>	Field-dependent		Field-independent
	Flexible environment		Structured environment
	Independence	Dependence	Interdependence
	Relationship-driven		Content-driven
<i>Input</i>	Visual	Auditory	Kinaesthetic
<i>Processing</i>	Contextual-global		Sequential-detailed
	Conceptual		Concrete
<i>Response</i>	Externally referenced		Internally referenced
	Matching		Mismatching
	Experiential		Analytical

According to context, it is possible to differentiate four types of learners: field-dependent/-independent, flexible/-structured environment, independence/-dependence/-interdependence and relationship-/content-driven learners. Field-dependent translators tend to learn by translating and mingling with native speakers and specialists of different domains while field-independent translators prefer theorising to practicing translation. Flexible translators are able to learn in different contexts (for example, at office or at home) and in different situations (chaos or noise), contrary to structured environment translators who prefer to work under specific conditions and usually in one specific context. Independent learners feel uncomfortable while working with a partner or a group

while dependent learners work better in peers or teams. Interdependent translators, on the other hand, can work alone or within groups and they are usually good at socialising with people (for example, clients, specialists, etc.). Relationship-driven translators tend to like developing interpersonal relations and work collaboratively with others (teacher, client, various experts, etc.), while content-driven translators focus more on the text (linguistic features and theoretical studies). According to input, three types of learners can be identified depending on the sensory forms through which they typically receive information: the visual, auditory and kinaesthetic. Visual translators prefer dealing with written texts while auditory learners learn better by listening and enjoy discussing and consulting others. Kinaesthetic learners, on the other hand, are more interested in the process of translating than reading about it.

Four types of learners are identified based on the way they process information: contextual-global learners, sequential-detailed, conceptual and concrete learners. Contextual-global learners tend to focus more on the overall target culture appropriateness than on the details, working on many problems at once while sequential-detailed/linear learners prefer structured working situations and texts, processing only one problem at a time. Conceptual (abstract) learners prefer theorising and processing information at a high level of generality to acquiring practical experience as concrete (objects and feelings) learners tend to do. Another six types of learners were identified according to their response: externally/internally referenced, matching/mismatching and experiential/analytical learners. Externally referenced translators' responses depend on other people's expectations (clients, target reader, etc.) in order to follow the social ethical norms while internally referenced translators tend to develop their own ethical code which might or might not deviate from the social and ethical norms, depending on the situation. Matching translators are interested in achieving equivalence between the target and source text as much as possible while mismatching translators prefer areas of specialisation which allow deviation, such as poetic translation. Impulsive and experiential learners tend to solve problems rapidly and spontaneously through focusing on the present problem while analytical or reflective learners prefer to reflect on problems and focus on the past. Robinson (2003) points out that learners' overall learning style is a combination of many learning types, which differ according to the situation and task. Learners have to be aware of this variety of learning styles and their own preferences and

consequently their own strengths in order to develop them or effectively adapt their professional lives around them (*ibid*). Taking these learning styles into consideration when designing classrooms activities and selecting the course content can also help trainers achieve the teaching objectives and allow trainees to learn efficiently while enjoying their classes. Robinson (2003) criticises the traditional approaches to translation that are based on a non-translator's external perspective which is interested more in the product than in the process of translation. Non translators/ translation users/ clients tend to want the text to be translated reliably (reliable to the text and to the client), rapidly and cheaply. However, translators are more often likely to be interested in the process of translation or the activity of becoming a professional translator. Despite this differentiation between the non-translators' and translators' perspectives to translation, Robinson identifies three basic characteristics of good translators which are almost similar to the expectations of translation users. These internal requirements are: *professional pride* (involvement in the profession, dedication and ethical work), *income* (speed is an important factor which affects the translator's income) and *enjoyment* of the job which enhances the translators' reliability.

Translation involves dealing with clients, agencies and employers, and requires an awareness of the reciprocal relation between translation and society. Translators have to interact with different people in order to acquire social experience and be able to meet their client's needs and expectations (Robinson, 2003). Robinson (2003) considers translators to be lifelong researchers, encouraging them to experience various jobs and be curious to read about different subjects in order to understand and accurately translate various terms. Texts are not a collection of syntactic structures, but channels through which people influence each other and make sense of what they see and do, and the more the translator understands the complexity of cultural difference, the more accurate his translation will be (*ibid*). Trainee translators have thus to develop their intercultural communication skills since their task is to "build trust and understanding between communities", as Katan (2004: 337) emphasises. The principal views of this model are similar to those of the Socio-Constructivist approach in calling for an empowering of the translators' social role and consequently their economic status. This model incorporates various social, professional, cognitive, theoretical, and personal aspects of translation process into translation training (Kelly, 2005). It encourages creating a learner-centred

environment, in which trainers are facilitators of the students' learning experience and trainees are active participants in this process.

Comparing the major approaches to translator training can give us insight into the type of training, the approach followed and the pedagogical methodologies used in the MA in Translation Studies programme at the University of Birmingham which is used as a case study, as will be explained in chapter three. The previous discussion of the major approaches to translator training shows that these approaches differ concerning their emphasis on developing the trainee translator's social competence and the degree of involving students in the teaching/learning process which help prepare autonomous and lifelong learners. It suggests that the Cognitive approach and the Functionalist approach seem to neglect developing the trainees' social and communicative skills and seem to be more teacher-centred. The Socio-Constructive approach and Holistic approaches tend to emphasise the translator's social, active role and encourage trainees to develop their communicative and interdependence skills through engaging them in authentic translation tasks within groups. These approaches also seem to be learner-centred since they emphasise building a collaborative learning environment in which teachers are mediators who share with the students the responsibilities of selecting teaching material and managing classroom activities.

However, although these approaches tend to have different views, they share many principles which intersect with each other for the purpose of developing the translators' skills. All these approaches focus on developing translators' translation competence instead of their language competence. They emphasise separating language classes from translation classes, but insist on including courses which develop different aspects of translation competence, such as intercultural, inter-lingual and technological skills, world knowledge and subject area knowledge in translation training programmes. Thus they reflect the multi-componential nature of translation competence. They also call for retaining coordination between the different classes in translator training programmes in order to achieve the required learning outcomes and improve the trainees' translation-related skills. Another important aspect emphasised by these approaches is achieving suitability between learners' needs and learning outcomes through careful selection of activities and material according to the progress of the trainees' level of competence.

Most importantly, the pedagogical models of these approaches encourage students

and translator trainers to concentrate on translation as a process rather than a product. Dealing with de-contextualised texts or repeated exercises is discouraged and the use of real or realistic texts is encouraged. Moreover, all of these approaches agree that translator training programmes should integrate theory and practice which can assist in developing different aspects of learners' translation competence.

Rico (2010: 89) argues that, at European universities, the “new pedagogical trend runs parallel to recent developments in translator training, such as social constructivism (Kiraly, 2000) or task-based learning (Hurtado Albir, 1999 and González Davies, 2004), which also revolve around the student as the centre of the learning process”. In her view, this was due to the new development in translation training programmes after the Bologna process which started in 1999 and aimed at establishing a common system of learning and teaching at universities across Europe and which is based on student-centre pedagogical principles and student-teacher interaction (Rico, 2010: 89), as will be extensively discussed in chapter three. As we will also see in Chapter 3, the translator training programme at University of Birmingham seems to combine various approaches, including the Interpretive, Task-Based, Socio-Constructivist and Holistic.

3.3 Translation Competence

As translation degrees were offered within university humanities and modern language departments during the 1960s and 1970s, the perception of *translation competence* was restricted to the mastery of linguistic methods, as was evident in the studies conducted on the concept of equivalence in the field of translation (Snell-Hornby, 1992). This equivalence scheme reduced translation to a matter of establishing relationships between language systems and thus isolated the process of translation away from society (Lambert, 1996, 273). This approach focused exclusively on the decision-making process taking place and consequently translation was separated from its real users. For example, Catford (1965: 27) discussed formal correspondence and textual equivalence. Formal correspondence refers to: “any TL category (unit, class, structure, element of structure, etc.) which can be said to occupy, as nearly as possible, the ‘same’ place in the ‘economy’ of the TL as the given SL category occupies in the SL”. Textual equivalent is “any TL text or portion of text which is observed on a particular occasion to be the equivalent of a given SL text or portion of text”. Similarly, Nida (1964) referred to formal and dynamic

equivalence. Formal equivalence implies conveying the same content and message of the source text into the target text (Nida, 1964: 134). This type of equivalence is linguistic and similar in content to Catford's concepts of equivalence. Nida's dynamic equivalence (1964: 129) which implies that "the relationship between receptor and message should be substantially the same as that which existed between the original receptors and the message" and can be considered a step beyond the mere consideration of linguistic features whilst translating.

While more recent research in Translation Studies recognises the importance of possessing a high level of linguistic competence, most of this literature refers to *translation competence* as a multi- componential term (Schäffner and Adab, 2000 and Hurtado Albir and Alves, 2009). Substantial research shows that translator competence has necessarily expanded to include interlingual, intercultural, editing, rewriting, as well as technical skills, among others. Numerous models of *translation competence*, indicating the multi-componential nature of *translation competence*, have been suggested by many authors in Translation Studies, attempting to outline its components, such as Cao (1996), Adab (2000), Beeby (2000), Kirally (2000), Neubert (2000), Orozco (2000), Presas (2000), Robinson (2003), Mackenzie (2004), Kelly (2005), Nord (2005) and Gile (2009), to list but a few.

Most of these models seem to be built on experiential studies; they emerge in the context of academic translator training institutions and are based on either observation of other theories in the field of Translation Studies or classroom experience (Lafeber, 2012: 6). Pym (2003) emphasises the significance of developing the translators' various skills in order to enhance their *translation competence*. However, Pym (2003) states that the list of skills and knowledge types needed by professional translators is potentially endless within the rapidly changing electronic age. Pym (2003) introduces a minimalist model instead of a multi-componential model in which he considers that the translator is in a constant process of theorization; producing hypotheses and selecting from among alternatives, which is an important part of translation practice.

Waddington (2001: 22) criticises the multi-componential models of *translation competence* on the basis that they lack empirical evidence. Only a few researchers conducted empirical studies in order to examine the relation between the components of *translation competence* (e.g. Campbell, 1991, Waddington, 2001 and PACTE group,

2003-2011). One such example is Waddington's empirical study (2001: 324) which shows that a correlation exists between *translation competence* and native language competence, as well as the students' self-assessment of their *translation competence*. It also indicates that there is no relation between *translation competence* and the translators' mathematical intelligence. PACTE group (2003-2011) also carried out an empirical study at the Universitat Autònoma de Barcelona with the purpose of defining *translation competence* and identifying its components. PACTE group's experimental study shows that *translation competence* is an expert knowledge which is not possessed by all bilinguals. Similar to other experiential models of *translation competence*, the results of this experiment indicates that *translation competence* consist of various interrelated sub-competencies. According to PACTE group (2011: 319), these sub-competences include:

- 1- Bilingual sub-competence which is the procedural knowledge translators need to communicate in the two languages.
- 2- Extra-linguistic sub-competence which is the declarative competence that constitutes world knowledge, domain-specific knowledge, bicultural and encyclopaedic knowledge.
- 3- Knowledge about translation sub-competence which is declarative knowledge about translation and knowledge about aspects of translation as a profession.
- 4- Instrumental sub-competence which is procedural knowledge about the use of documentation resources and information and technologies related to translation.
- 5- Strategic sub-competence which is procedural knowledge related to the ability to solve translation problems, control translation processes and carry out translation projects.

PACTE group (2003: 57) added to this set of competences; psycho-physiological components which include cognitive components, such as memory, attention, perception and emotions; attitudinal aspects, such as curiosity and perseverance and other abilities, such as creativity and logical reasoning and analysis. These components were considered different from sub-competences by PACTE group as "it forms an integral part of all expert knowledge" (*ibid*).

The components of *translation competence* resulting from this contemporary experiment will be compared with the above-mentioned experiential models of *translation competence* in order to fully examine the similarities and differences between these various models and thus their implications in terms of translator training and development of translators' skills. In Table 2.2, the components of the models are broken down into categories of the following components according to PACTE group's model (2011): bilingual, extra-linguistic, knowledge about translation, instrumental, strategic sub-competences and psycho- physiological components. (+) and (-) were used to indicate whether the various models of *translation competence* referred to these different sub-competences (a more detailed table is available in Appendix A).

Table 2.2: Translation Competence Models						
Author	Bilingual	Extra-linguistic	Knowledge about Translation	Instrumental	Strategic	Psycho-physiological Components
<i>Cao (1996)</i>	+	+	-	-	+	+
<i>Adab (2000)</i>	+	+	-	+	+	-
<i>Beeby (2000)</i>	+	+	-	+	+	-
<i>Kiraly (2000)</i>	+	+	+	+	+	+
<i>Neubert (2000)</i>	+	+	-	-	+	-
<i>Orozco (2000)</i>	+	+	+	+	+	+
<i>Presas (2000)</i>	+	+	-	+	+	+
<i>Robinson (2003)</i>	+	+	+	+	+	+
<i>Mackenzie (2004)</i>	+	+	+	+	+	+

Kelly (2005)	+	+	+	+	+	+
Nord (2005)	+	+	+	+	+	-
Gile (2009)	+	+	+	+	+	-

Despite the consensus in Translation Studies on the multi-componential nature of translation competence, there seems to be no agreement concerning a unified definition of *translation competence* (Orozco and Hurtado Albir, 2002: 375). The term *translation competence* has been used by different authors to refer to different meanings. Cao (1996) for example differentiates between *translation competence* and *translation proficiency*. While Cao (1996: 326) refers to translation competences as “the many kinds of knowledge that are essential to the translation act”, she defines translation proficiency as:

“The ability to mobilise translation competence to perform
translation tasks in context for purposes of intercultural
and interlingual communication.” (1996: 327)

The ability Cao refers to in her definition of translation proficiency includes three main sets of competences (translational language competence, translational knowledge structure competence and translational strategic competence) which also include various sub-competences. The differentiation between *translation competence* and translation proficiency is confusing especially as proficiency also involves competence in this model. Kiraly (2000) distinguishes between *translation competence* and *translator competence*. He defines *translation competence* as: “the ability to comprehend a text written in one language and produce an “adequate” target text for speakers of a different language on the basis of that original text” (2000: 10). His definition of *translation competence* reflects the past perception of *translation competence* as a mere transfer of the linguistic segments of a text from one language to another. However, Kiraly (2000: 1) emphasizes the importance of providing trainee translators with a *translator competence* which he defines as: “acquiring the expertise and thus the authority to make professional decisions, assuming responsibility for one’s actions, and achieving autonomy to follow a path of lifelong learning”. His definition refers to the ability to acquire adequate knowledge in new areas as required, instead of mastering one specialized field and not only mastering

the text types and norms of a certain language and culture, but also being able to identify and appropriate norms in new communities. Many of the definitions of *translation competence* also indicate the importance of possessing declarative theoretical knowledge and vocational operative skills which enable translators to carry out the translation process. Presas (2000: 28), for example, defines *translation competence* as the “system of underlying kinds of knowledge, whether declarative or operative, which are needed for translation”. PACTE group (2011: 318) also defines *translation competence* as “the underlying system of knowledge required to translate” (2011: 318). They argue that *translation competence* acquisition is a dynamic process which includes integrating and developing a declarative knowledge (knowing *what*) related to translation and operative knowledge (knowing *how*) concerning the ability to identify and solve translation problems and apply appropriate strategies (PACTE group: 2003). It could be possible to identify these definitions of translator competence with the transfer/ strategic/ management competence defined by other scholars (e.g. Cao, 1996 and Neubert, 2000) who consider it as one component of the overall *translation competence*.

Table 2.2 indicates that these models differ in the number of components constituting *translation competence*. Similar to PACTE’s group model, many of these models identified six main categories of competences (Kiraly, 2000, Orozco, 2000, Robinson, 2003, Mackenzie, 2004 and Kelly, 2005). However, a few of these models focused on five main types of competences, such as Presas (2000), Nord (2005) and Gile (2009), while others emphasised only four (Cao, 1996, Adab, 2000 and Beeby, 2000) or three (Neubert, 2000) basic components. For example, Neubert (2000) divides competence into the bilingual, extralinguistic and strategic sub-competences while Adab (2000) recognises four subcomponents (bilingual, extralinguistic, instrumental and strategic). It may be noted that it is difficult to set criteria which can define how many components the term *translation competence* should include since the translation profession and market requirements change over time along with rapid economic and social developments worldwide. Furthermore, many of the differences between the different models of *translation competence* are possibly due to the blurred boundaries and wider/narrower definitions of individual sub-competences.

The overview of the models presented in table 2.2 also indicates that these models differ in terms of the nature of the component of *translation competence* (sub-

competences). All the models agree on the importance of possessing bilingual and extra-linguistic competences (general and specialised, cultural and intercultural knowledge). In terms of the bilingual competence, all of these models emphasise the importance of having a linguistic competence (grammatical and textual) and the ability to comprehend and produce texts in languages involved in translation. However, different scholars emphasised different skills: Cao (1996), for example, stressed the importance of having illocutionary and sociolinguistic competence whilst Beeby (2000) discussed the importance of having a contrastive discourse competence. Robinson (2003) and Nord (2005) stressed the ability to analyse texts linguistically and culturally, politically or philosophically while Orozco (2000) and Kelly (2005) considered the significance of possessing a communicative competence. Not all authors stressed the importance of possessing instrumental competence (e.g. Cao, 1996), declarative knowledge about translation and aspects of the profession (e.g. Neubert, 2000) or psycho-physiological components (e.g. Adab, 2000, Beeby, 2000 and Neubert, 2000). In terms of the instrumental competence, many scholars (e.g. Beeby, 2000, Robinson, 2003 and Gile, 2009) have stressed the importance of having documentation skills, the ability to use information sources and the latest technological tools. Concerning knowledge about translation, many scholars such as Orozco (2000), Mackenzie (2004), Nord (2005) and Gile (2009) have emphasised the importance of having knowledge about the profession of translation, for example, information about the marketplace and behavioural norms governing the translator's relations with clients and other translators. However, others (e.g. Kiraly, 2000 and Robinson, 2003) referred to the significance of possessing theoretical knowledge about translation. In relation to the psycho-physiological components, only a few scholars (Cao, 1996, Orozco, 2000, Presas, 2000 and Kelly, 2005) have emphasised the importance of possessing psychological and cognitive abilities such as creativity, memory and attention whilst others have stressed the need to have interpersonal skills (Mackenzie, 2004, Kiraly, 2000 and Robinson, 2003).

It is worth noting that all of the models presented in the table emphasise the significance of acquiring *strategic sub-competence*² as it was called by PACTE group (2003). According to PACTE group, the function of this “strategic competence” is:

“to plan the process and carry out the translation project (selecting the most appropriate method); evaluate the process and the partial results obtained in relation to the final purpose; activate the different sub-competences and compensate for any shortcomings; identify translation problems and apply procedures to solve them” (2011: 319).

This concept of *strategic sub-competence* is in line with Pym’s view of translation as “a process of generation and selection, a problem-solving process” (2003). Pym (2003) defines *translation competence* as “the ability to generate a series of more than one viable target text (TT1, TT2 ...TTn) for a pertinent source text (ST)” and “the ability to select one viable TT from this series, quickly and with justified confidence”. Different scholars use various terms to describe this *strategic sub-competence*. Robinson (2003: 50), for example, uses the term “intelligence” while Mackenzie (2004: 33) and Gile (2009: 9) refer to “management” competence and “procedural knowledge”, respectively. Many other scholars have used the term transfer competence to refer to the same concept of *strategic sub-competence*, such as Beeby (2000), Neubert (2000), Orozco (2000) and Nord (2005). Numerous other authors such as Adab (2000), Kiraly (2000), Presas (2000) and Kelly (2005) have not used any specific term to refer to this *strategic sub-competence*.

It seems that there is also a great difference between the models concerning the relation of the *strategic sub-competence*, as described by different scholars, to other competences. PACTE group’s (2011) experiment indicated that there are several factors which can affect the hierarchy of translation sub-competences such as directionality (direct or inverse translation: translation into the foreign language), language combinations, specialisation, the translator’s experience and translation context. However, they have stated that *strategic sub-competence* controls and activates all other sub-competences. Similarly, Cao (1996: 333) argued that *strategic sub-competence*

² We will use the same term used by PACTE group to refer to this sub-competence in the present study.

relates the components of translation proficiency to each other in the process of translation. Other authors (Robinson, 2003: 50, Mackenzie, 2004: 33 and Gile, 2009: 9) pointed out that this competence integrates other sub-competences. Many other scholars, such as Neubert (2000), Orozco (2000) and Nord (2005) also believed that *strategic sub-competence* dominates or integrates all other sub-competences. Only a few authors considered it as a separate competence that complements other sub-competences which are part of the overall *translation competence*, such as Adab (2000), Beeby (2000), Kiraly (2000), Presas (2000) and Kelly (2005).

In sum, the discussion of these models indicates that there is no agreement in the literature on a unified model or definition of *translation competence*. However, all the models previously discussed referred to the importance of developing a *strategic sub-competence* which “occupies a central position because it affects all the others as it serves to correct deficiencies and controls the entire process” as emphasised by Hurtado Albir (2007: 171). *Strategic sub-competence* has the significant role in carrying out translation assignments and the ability to identify translation problems, evaluate different solutions, choose, apply and justify the appropriate strategies to reformulate the target text despite the many other labels used to refer to this competence, as previously mentioned. Therefore, the focus of the present study will be on the *strategic sub-competence* which enables translators to control the decision-making process, as emphasised by most models of *translation competence*. Thus, my research will be conducted within the framework of PACTE group’s definition of *strategic sub-competence* with the focus on the problem-solving process in translation. This study will hopefully provide empirical evidence concerning the development of students’ perception of translation problems and the way they justify their answers within the context of an academic translator training programme which can assist in improving their other sub-competences and hence their *translation competence*.

2.3.1 Previous Research on the Development of Strategic Sub-competence

Since the emergence of Translation Studies, *strategic sub-competence* has been a neglected area of research, as stated by Gregorio Cano (2014). Gregorio Cano (2014) conducted an empirical study in order to observe and analyse the repercussions of Translation Studies on the development of *strategic sub-competence*, in particular on the

students' ability to identify translation problems. The main objectives of the study were to:

- a) describe the entry (first year) and the exit (fourth year) profile of students on the Translation and Interpreting Degree in the Spanish university context.
- b) describe and analyse, from students' perceptions, the degree of *strategic sub-competence* development after four years of following this translation and interpreting programme based on their ability to identify translation problems and how they describe them.

This study was based on a general hypothesis that academic translation training enhances the development of *translation competence*, in particular *strategic sub-competence* and four other specific hypotheses:

*Students about to complete their degree are capable of recognising more translation problems than students beginning their degree

*Students about to complete their degree are able to recognise and differentiate between different translation problems better than students beginning their degree

*The students' capacity for abstraction when identifying translation problems is greater on completing their degree than at the beginning

*The richness of the metalanguage used by the students evolves from the beginning of their degree until they complete it.

This research consisted of a macro-study and a longitudinal study. The research methods used in this study consisted of a questionnaire. This was administered to students at two different stages of their training: the students initiating their degree (655) (1st year and students entering the 3rd year from other degrees and experiencing their first contact with TI studies) and the students finalising their degree (391 students in their 4th and final year) in five Spanish universities offering Translation and Interpreting programmes. The longitudinal study involved the same students (37) at the beginning of their degree and their final experiences as future translators about to finalise their training. In terms of data analysis, data collected were analysed using the statistical software SPSS.

Based on the findings the two specific hypotheses that students about to complete

their degree are capable of recognising more translation problems than students beginning their degree and that their capacity for abstraction when identifying translation problems is greater on completing their degree than at the beginning are refuted. The hypothesis that students about to complete their degree are able to recognise and differentiate between different translation problems better than students beginning their degree is neither confirmed nor refuted while the hypothesis that the richness of the metalanguage used by the students evolves throughout the programme is confirmed.

Therefore, the author considered that the general hypothesis of the study that academic translation training enhances the development of *translation competence*, in particular *strategic sub-competence*, is not confirmed. Gregorio Cano attributed this result to many factors including the different teaching approaches followed in translation training programmes at the different universities and the lack of a unified definition and evaluation methodology of *translation competence*.

Gregorio Cano's study is different from the present study in terms of focus; as the present study is attempting to examine the effect of following a translation training programme on the trainee translators' perception of translation problems and the manner in which they justify translation decisions. My study focuses on postgraduate students in one Translation Studies programme. In addition, this study does not depend on students' perception, as is the case in Gregorio Cano's study, but on analysing, through the use of forms and interviews, the language used by the students to describe translation problems and justify translation decisions. The research techniques used in the current study will be described extensively in chapter four. As *strategic sub-competence* implies the ability to use translation strategies appropriately to solve translation problems, the concepts of translation problems and translation strategies will be discussed in detail in the following sections.

2.4 Translation Problems

The concept of *translation problem* is frequently mentioned in the field of Translation Studies. However, there is no agreement in the literature on a clear definition of what is a *translation problem* (Toury, 2011). It has been used in various contexts and its meaning has been determined by the framework of the study addressing the concept.

Toury (1995/2012) argues that the term 'problem' has been used in three different

but interconnected discourses in Translation Studies. He (2012: 38-46) offers an overview of these three types of discourse: source text oriented, target text oriented and process oriented. The first discourse is related to the source text oriented problems resulting from translating a text into a specific language and culture. This type of problem was discussed in relation to translatability (the potential replacements) rather than actual act of translation. The appropriateness of the potential replacements depends on how the target audience in the target culture perceive translation and translatability. Translatability refers to the potential of achieving optimal correspondence between the source and target texts (the textual and linguistic phenomenon). This translatability is relative among different languages and cultures. In this type of discourse, solvability (alternative ways of solving translation problems) is discussed rather than the actual performance of the act of translation. Thus, this type of discourse is mainly speculative, including discussion about ideal solutions. It also neglects the translators' psycho-physiological aspects, considering translation as mere replacements of textual items and the translator as an entity performing the translation rather than a person.

Studies, which are based on this type of discourse, addressed translation problems from a mainly linguistic perspective, e.g. Vinay and Darbelnet, 1958 and Catford, 1965. Vinay and Darbelnet (1958) depended entirely on a translation oriented grammatical and stylistic analysis in which they looked at English and French languages (including expressions, phrases and texts) to identify specific translation problems. Language and linguistics related issues also underlined much of Catford's (1965) discussion of translation problems in the examples provided in his book "*A Linguistic Theory of Translation: An Essay in Applied Linguistics*".

The focus in the second discourse, on the other hand, is on the actual act of translation at a particular time and place. The problems addressed in this discourse are target-oriented. This discourse also involves speculation about translation problems, considering the translation acts as concealed actions which can be retrieved retrospectively by analysing the target text segments and comparing them to the source text components. Much of this speculation pictures translation acts as simple unidirectional practices.

As an example for studies which are based in this type of discourse, Nord (2005), as previously mentioned (see section 2.2.3), identified four types of translation problems

in her functional approach to translator training: pragmatic, convention-related, linguistic and text-specific translation problems. These problems are present in every translation task despite linguistic and cultural differences or the direction of translation (from or into the translator's native language(s)). The pragmatic and convention-related problems can be identified through analysing and comparing the extra-textual factors of the source and target texts (sender, receiver, medium, time, place, motive and text function). The linguistic and text-specific translation problems can be detected by conducting a contrastive grammar and comparative stylistic analysis of the source and target texts. It is evident that Nord in her study went beyond the mere linguistic consideration while discussing translation problems. This indicates that the perception of *translation problems* developed in correlation with the change which affected the way *translation competence* was perceived.

In the third and last type of discourse which is process-oriented, the realization of *translation problems* is also factual since the focus is on the performance of translation acts. However, it is not retrospective, starting from the final translation backwards towards the source text. Observations are made on the actual translation acts when they manifest and consequently reflections on the problems and their solutions are discussed. Problems in this discourse are dynamic as they can take different forms. They represent a reconstructed notion rather than an idealised one since the solution to these problems may change during the process of translation and thus the way translators realise and address these problems. This discourse is based on the assumption that there is no absolute solution and translation is an act of problem solving even if the act is suspended and no solution is found. The current study adopts this type of discourse, acknowledging the undetermined and flexible nature of problems and as based on the belief that each individual translator perceives translation problems differently.

Most of cognitive and behavioural studies in the field of Translation Studies, which examined translation problems as they occurred during the translation process, are based on this third type of discourse. Bell (1998), for example, studied translation problems in relation to the cognitive processes which take place in the translators' mind whilst translating. These problems, according to Bell (1998: 188), are "part of the process of transfer" and can occur either while comprehending the source text (problems of reception) or producing the target text (problems of production). Such problems interrupt

the automatic translation process and lead the translator to consciously use translation strategies to solve these problems. In line with Bell, Kiraly (1995) believes that translation problems are associated with the non-automatic cognitive processes occurring in the human mind while translating, even though he indicates that it is not easy to distinguish between the controlled (non-automatic) and uncontrolled (automatic) cognitive processes. These assumptions are based on the belief that translators have uncontrolled (intuitive/automatic/less conscious) and controlled (strategic/non automatic) processing centres (Kiraly, 1995: 99-105). Translation problems emerge from the automatic processing centre only when the intuitive processes cannot produce an immediate translation. As a consequence, these problems move to the controlled processing centre where the translators consciously select a strategy and apply it to solve them (*ibid*). Based on this cognitive view of *translation problems*, PACTE group (2011: 326) also maintain that translation problems occur when no immediate and spontaneous solutions are found while translating the source text segments, which leads the translators to use various strategies to solve such problems:

“The solution of translation problems involves different cognitive operations within the translation process, and requires constant decision-making on the part of the translator.”

PACTE group (2011: 326) consider the ability to solve translation problems as a main characteristic of *translation competence* because the translator is required to effectively solve every type of problem they face. As previously mentioned the ability to solve translation problems is included under the *strategic sub-competence* and therefore it has a great role in controlling the translation process (the decision making process). In their experiment, PACTE group (2011: 327) divides the types of translation problems most frequently faced by translators into five main categories: linguistic problems (lexis and morphosyntax), textual (coherence, cohesion, text type, and style), extra-linguistic (cultural, encyclopaedic and subject-domain knowledge), problems of intentionality (comprehension problems related to intertextuality, speech acts, presuppositions and implicatures) and translation brief or target audience oriented problems (problems related to the function and which affect the reformulation of the text). However, their experiment shows that the translation problems encountered by the translators are multi-dimensional and can be, for example, simultaneously linguistic and extra-linguistic.

In conclusion, it is difficult for the current study to adopt a specific definition of *translation problem* as there seems to be a lack of agreement in the field of Translation Studies on a specific conception of what constitutes a *translation problem*. Moreover, translators may perceive translation problems differently depending on a variety of linguistic, situational and cultural factors, as indicated by the functional approach (Nord, 2005). Chesterman (2000) also notes that different translators experience different problems. As a result, the participant students in the current study were not provided with any definition of translation problems and were instead given the choice to decide on what constitutes a translation problem, as described fully in chapter four.

2.5 Translation Strategies

Similar to the notion of *translation problems*, the concept of *translation strategies* has been used differently in Translation Studies and a variety of terms have been employed to refer to the same concept such as procedures, techniques, plans, rules, processes and tactics (Chesterman, 2005). A study of the existing literature on *translation strategies* shows that strategies have been discussed in either a textual or procedural sense, as observed by Moulin and Hurtado Albir (2002). It also indicates that some of the studies conducted referred to global strategies while others focused on local strategies, as noted by Kearns (2009).

A few studies discussed strategies in a textual sense, describing the linguistic results of the strategies in the target text rather than the way these strategies were created by the translators. For example, Nida's proposal (1964) of *translation strategies* represents a study in the textual sense. Nida offered a list of translation strategies commonly used in the target text by professional translators: addition, omission, change of order and change of structure. The categories included in this proposal are extremely general despite the fact that Nida (1964) assigns different weightings to each category. Another example is the proposal suggested by Malone (1988) who also offered a generative proposal with wide definitions and overlapping categories. Such proposals were criticised as being prescriptive, abstract and inapplicable whilst translating and facing translation problems (Martín, 2000: 131 and 132).

However, other studies which have been discussed in a procedural sense described the cognitive procedures occurring in the human mind whilst encountering translation

problems. As mentioned in the previous section on translation problems, many studies have associated the use of strategies with the conscious, non-automatic processing taking place in the translator's mind while translating. For example, Lörcher defined translation strategies (1991: 76) as "a potentially conscious procedure for the solution of a problem which an individual is faced with when translating a text segment from one language into another". Similar to Kiraly's (1995) controlled and intuitive (less controlled) processing, previously discussed in this chapter, Jääskeläinen (1993) also referred to marked and unmarked processing. In marked processing, the translator focuses consciously on solving problems and applying strategies. Jääskeläinen (1993) extended the concept of *strategy* by arguing that strategy refers to the general principles governing the text, such as the decision to translate the text word- for- word in the light of the function of the text. Strategy in this sense pertains to higher level decisions concerning how and what to translate in relation to source text information, target readers' needs and the function of the target text. According to Jääskeläinen (1993: 116), strategies are "a set of (loosely formulated) rules or principles which a translator uses to reach the goals determined by the translation situation in the most effective way".

Similar to Jääskeläinen's model, there are other studies which refer to global strategies that affect the processing of the whole text rather than specific segments of it. For example, Venuti (2005: 240) referred to two global categories of translation strategies: domestication and foreignisation. The translator using a domesticating strategy follows a conservative and assimilationist approach to the foreign text and conforms to the linguistic conventions and political and domestic trends dominating the target culture and language. Domesticating strategies are mostly used in technical texts (scientific, geopolitical, and economic documents) to ensure complete comprehension on the part of the reader. By following a foreignising approach, the translator attempts to restore the foreign values of the source text while translating or chooses to translate using marginal cultural values rather than canonical values in the target culture. The translator who chooses the marginal values contributes to developing translation methods already constrained by the target language culture. Such foreignising procedures may lead to an emergence of new translation methods or cultural values excluded by the cultural values dominating the target language. Foreignising strategies are most frequently used in literary texts where the focus is on the linguistic effect (tone, connotation and polysemy).

Venuti (2005) argues that the approach followed by the translator depends on the domestic cultural situation (the construction of the cultural formation in which the translation is produced) and the intention of translation. Venuti (2005) believes that foreignising or domesticating approaches can be used intentionally to preserve or deviate from the linguistic and cultural conventions which dominate domestic values. Despite the significant influence of Venuti's model in the domain of global strategies at text-level, it is possible to say that these foreignising and domesticating strategies can be applied to the text at micro-level; within sentence structures and applying terms. Chesterman (2000: 108), in his proposal of local translation strategies, considers foreignisation and domestication as pragmatic strategies which refer to the way in which specific items (cultural-specific terms) in the source text are translated in the target text. Chesterman (2000) focuses on local behavioural strategies which describe the various types of linguistic behaviours and operations taking place during the formulation of the target text in relation to linguistic, social and ideological factors affecting the context of translation. Translation strategies, according to Chesterman (2000: 89), are processes which allow translators to produce a better version of translation according to the norms covering the target language and thus they are goal-oriented. According to his model, strategies are textual manipulations which occur at the syntactic and lexical levels of the text. These strategies can be tracked by observing the process of translation and can be detected in the translated product.

Chesterman (2000) builds his model on many studies, depending on insights from the existing literature in the field of Translation Studies. Strategies, as Chesterman (2000: 89) argues, are problem-centred which offer solutions to the translation problems facing the translators specialized in solving communication problems. Following the cognitive approach, he assumes that translation acts are automatic processes. He believes that it is mainly when these automatic processes are interrupted that problems emerge, leading translators to adopt strategies in order to solve them. Building on the models of *translation competence*, Chesterman (2000) considers the ability to apply translation strategies effectively to constitute part of the procedural knowledge which a translator is supposed to possess. Moreover, based on Gile's classification of translation strategies (1995), comprehension (inferencing strategies resulting from the cognitive analysis of the source text and translation commission) and production strategies (the way translators change

the linguistic and textual features to produce an appropriate target text), Chesterman (2000, 93-112) offers a list of production translation strategies usually applied by professional translators (see table 2.3).

Table 2.3: Chesterman's Model of Translation Strategies (2000)									
<i>Syntactic strategies</i>									
<u>Literal translation</u>	<u>Loan, Calque</u>	<u>Trans-position</u>	<u>Unit shift</u>	<u>Phrase structure change</u>	<u>Clause structure change</u>	<u>Sentence structure change</u>	<u>Cohesion change</u>	<u>Level shift</u>	<u>Scheme change</u>
Maximally close to the form, but nevertheless grammatical	The borrowing of textual items	Change of word class	Change of units (word-phrase-clause)	Changes at the level of phrase	Changes with the structure of the clause	Changes which affect the structure of the sentence-unit	Changes affect the intra-textual reference	Change to the levels of the mode of expression of an item.	Changes to the rhetorical schemes
<i>Semantic strategies</i>									
<u>Synonymy</u>	<u>Antonymy</u>	<u>Hyponymy</u>	<u>Converses</u>	<u>Abstraction change</u>	<u>Distribution change</u>	<u>Emphasis change</u>	<u>Paraphrase</u>	<u>Trope change</u>	<u>Other changes</u>
Selecting the most obvious equivalent	Selecting an antonym	Shifts within the hyponym relation	Pairs of structures which express opposing views	Selection of abstraction level	Change of the same semantic components	Change in the emphasis or thematic focus	A free and loose TT	Changes to the rhetorical tropes.	Modulation of various types
<i>Pragmatic strategies</i>									
<u>Cultural filtering</u>	<u>Explicitness change</u>	<u>Information change</u>	<u>Interpersonal change</u>	<u>Illocutionary change</u>	<u>Coherence change</u>	<u>Partial translation</u>	<u>Visibility change</u>	<u>Trans-editing</u>	<u>Other changes</u>
The translation of cultural items	Explicitness or explicitness	The addition or omission of information	Changes to the formality level	Changes of speech acts	Changes of logical arrangement of information	Such as Summary translation or transcription	Changing the status of the authorial presence	Re-ordering or re-writing	Such as changing the layout

This list of translation strategies is divided into three main categories: syntactic (changes which manipulate form), semantic, (changes related to lexical semantics that manipulate meanings, and pragmatic (changes that manipulate the message of the text as a result of the translators' decisions on how to translate the whole text). Despite this classification, these categories may overlap or occur simultaneously depending on the context in which they are used. Chesterman (2000) did not elaborate on the effects of using these strategies or the way in which they are used. Although Chesterman (2000) pointed out that translation strategies are conceptual tools used by professional translators and consequently can be learnt by trainees, he argued that this list of strategies is to be considered under constant change and development. His model can be applied in many translator training contexts as the list of strategies he offered is not language pair specific.

Bearing in mind the pedagogical focus of current research, this study's main aim is to study the effect of attending an academic translator training programme on the way in which trainee translators' perceive translation problems and justify the translation strategies used to solve them. Therefore, in the light of this pedagogical aim and the many various studies of *translation strategies*, the current research will be based on Chesterman's model of production strategies (2000) since he summarises in this model the previous proposals of translation strategies.

2.6 Conclusion

In this chapter, the literature concerning training translators at academic institutions was reviewed. The review showed that there seems to be agreement in the field of Translation Studies, criticism from professional translators of academic translator training for providing translators with theoretical knowledge notwithstanding, on the importance of integrating theory and practice in academic translator training programmes. The major approaches to translator training presented in this chapter also stressed the importance of combining theoretical knowledge with vocational training in order to develop the trainee translators' *translation competence*. Various models of *translation competence* were also reviewed which indicated development in terms of the perception of *translation competence* from a mere linguistic into a multi componential set of skills and knowledge. The review of the models showed the importance of the *strategic sub-competence*, namely the ability to make decisions whilst translating, including the ability to evaluate and solve

translation problems, and justify the translation strategies used. Thus, the focus of this study will be on this *strategic sub-competence* which affects all other sub-competences, as also emphasised by many models of *translation competence*. The current study will hopefully provide empirical evidence concerning the effect of attending an academic translator training programme integrating both theory and practice in its curriculum on the translators' *strategic sub-competence*. The current study is based on Chesterman's model of *translation strategies* (2000) because it draws on other studies on translation strategies in Translation Studies, in addition to its pedagogical implication in terms of developing the translators' ability to consider many strategies and confidently apply the most appropriate solutions. The discussion of previous studies of translation problems showed that there is no agreement in Translation Studies on a unified definition or model of the term *translation problem*. No specific definition of *translation problems* was adopted in the current study as the perception of *translation problems* is subjective and differs from one translator to another. Instead the participant students in the present study were left to identify translation problems in the texts as discussed in chapter four.

3. A Case Study of the Translation Studies Programme at the University of Birmingham

In this chapter, a rationale for employing a case study and using a longitudinal approach is offered. In addition, the case being investigated is contextualised by providing background information on the context of translation training programmes in the United Kingdom (UK) and comparing the Translation Studies (TS) programme at University of Birmingham (UoB) to other translation training programmes in the UK. Such information will provide a better understanding of the context of the case study and various variables which are likely to have an effect on the trainee translators' development throughout the academic year.

3.1 A Rational for a Case study: The TS Programme at UoB

A case study was used to answer the research questions posed in this study for numerous reasons. A case study is “an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon in depth and within its real-life context” (Yin, 2009: 18). It is a research method which is applied to a real life phenomenon, such as a person, text, institution or event. It offers researchers the opportunity to determine the complexities of the phenomenon in which they are interested, give explanations for existing behaviours and offer new insights into various situations. Case studies can open up new areas of future research, reveal new perspectives and experiences, and facilitate the generation of new development methods in different domains (Dörnyei, 2007). They have also proven to be productive and influential in research since they permit nuanced understanding of cases under study (Van Lire, 2005). The use of case studies is also common in the field of Translation Studies (Susam-Sarajeva, 2009: 37). It is a method that is used mostly in Translation Studies to examine in-depth a unit of analysis, such as a translated text, an author or a translation situation (Saldanha and O'Brien, 2013: 112).

The present case study is relational, aiming to examine how the current MA translation training programme at UoB affects the students' perception of translation problems and the way they justify their solutions. This case study was also explanatory and evaluative, attempting to explain how the manner in which trainee translators defend

and justify their decisions developed throughout the academic year, and to evaluate the effect the programme had on the development of their *strategic sub-competence*, and consequently their *translation competence* (Gall et al, 2003 and Yin, 2003).

Perry (2005: 56) distinguishes between two sampling paradigms for case studies: the information-rich and the representativeness. The information-rich paradigm is used to perform an in-depth analysis of a certain phenomenon. As a result, it is expected that the sample selected will provide rich information about this phenomenon. Studies of this type usually depend on a sample which is small in size and with an emphasis on quality rather than quantity. The representativeness paradigm is used where the aim is to generalise the findings of a study to a larger population who share specific characteristics with the sample selected in the study. Case studies may not provide a good basis for generalisations, but they provide insights of specific patterns which may have implications in wider contexts of teaching and learning (Cohen and Manion, 1994). We can say that in the current study, the information-rich sampling strategy was applied. The case study focused exclusively on the UoB one-year MA TS programme in order to obtain relevant and rich information regarding formal translation training at academic level. Despite the fact that this issue may raise concerns about possible bias because the researcher is completing her studies at the same university, having followed the same programme may also enrich the data collected since the researcher is very familiar with the context of the case study. Koskinen (2008), who focused on the Luxemburg unit to study the Finnish translation units at the European Commission, argues that one researcher cannot study the entire field of institutional translation and that the researcher should focus on the institution s/he knew best. According to Koskinen (2008), using a familiar context allows us to examine the phenomena from different viewpoints and provides us with a further rich and detailed picture of the case under study. Hopefully the present case study can be used to develop hypotheses which may potentially contribute further knowledge to the wider translation training community.

The current study is a single rather than collective study in which multiple cases are analysed. Although using multiple case studies can increase the reliability of findings, the individuality of each translator training programme and the heterogeneity of translator trainees attending these programmes make it difficult to study multiple cases. Additionally, considering the time and resources available, it was difficult to attempt to

conduct more than one case study. The MA TS programme at UoB was ideal given the logistical constraints.

Stake (1995) presents yet another way of classifying case studies: intrinsic and instrumental. The participants in an intrinsic study (e.g. a particular learner or organisation) are of primary importance, whilst the participants in an instrumental study are of secondary importance, as the participants are used as an instrument to examine a theory or prove a hypothesis. He emphasises the blurred boundaries between these two types of case studies and the fact that one case study can be used to achieve more than one aim, depending on the research questions and objectives. While the present case study is intrinsic in the sense that it focuses on the experiences of the students following the Master's level programme in TS at UoB, we would argue it is mainly instrumental as it aims at investigating how students' perception of translation problems and the manner in which they justify their translation decisions develop by following academic translation training. Thus, the programme offered at UoB is used in order to test the hypothesis that translation training at academic level, that is based on theory and practice, develops students' *translation competence*, in particular their *strategic sub-competence* in solving translation problems and justifying translation decision.

The case study method allows the researcher to draw on a wide range of data sources. Singleton, Straits, and Straits (1993) have indicated that it is best to use case studies when employing multiple research techniques to investigate a certain phenomenon. The main sources of information on which this case study will rely and how they will be used are discussed in the following chapter.

The current study was longitudinal. Menard (2002: 2) defines longitudinal research as: "research in which (a) data are collected for each item or variable for two or more distinct time periods; (b) the subjects or cases analysed are the same or at least comparable from one period to the next; and (c) the analysis involves some comparison of data between or among periods". The data in the present study was collected at three stages throughout the academic year (in the Autumn, Spring and Summer terms). The analysis involved a comparison of data between the three stages of data collection and the same participants took part, with the exception of a few withdrawals. Although longitudinal studies offer panoramic views (Neale and Flowerdew, 2003), they can also help us to observe and understand how people change or develop socially. Longitudinal

research is useful to “*describe* patterns of change, and to *explain* casual relationships” (Dörnyei, 2007: 79, emphasis in the original) and can be used to examine dynamic processes in human learning or development in relation to different types of variables (Menard, 2002). The purpose of replicating the data collection process was to examine and explain the trainee translators’ progress throughout the programme.

3.2 Translation Training Programmes in the UK

Universities in the UK offer different types of degrees in TS at different levels: Diploma, MSc, MA, and PhD. Concerning masters-level programmes, some universities focus on translation alongside other types of studies (comparative literature, interpreting, subtitling, TESOL, linguistics and intercultural communication), such as the MA in Translation and Linguistics at the University of Westminster. Other universities offer programmes in specific language pairs (MA in Chinese – English Translation at The University of Bristol) or context (MA in Translation in a European Context at Aston University). Training in MA-TS programmes, such as the MA in Translation Studies at the Universities of Aston, Birmingham and Durham in the UK are based on practice and theory.

Translation training programmes in the UK follow Higher Education policy (HE). Therefore, an overview of HE within the UK will be discussed as it is significant to take into account the context of the current case study at institutional, regional and national levels since the policy followed at each level instigates the planning and implementation of the programme activities including staffing, resourcing and the teaching and learning process (Roberts, 1998). Therefore, the HE policy of expansion, finance, administration and curriculum change is addressed in this section, indicating its effect on translation training programmes in the UK.

The structure and content of the curriculum of the MA in TS programme at UoB is then compared to two other translation training programmes. The aim of this comparison is to provide an overview of the programme content and find out why it is distinctive in comparison with other apparently similar translator training programmes, such as the programmes taught at Aston University and Durham University in order to carry out a reliable comparison based on a coherent sample.

3.2.1 The UK HE Policy of Expansion

One of the major changes in UK HE is the increase in the number of students following undergraduate and postgraduate programmes (O'Prey, 2012). Many universities across the UK attempt to increase the number of students following higher education by trying to raise young people's aspirations at secondary and primary school. These universities organise higher education summer schools and campus visits in order to encourage students at these schools to go to university. Following a higher education degree has also a significant impact on the lives of graduate students. Students with higher education degrees earn more than students with two A-levels and graduates from higher education are also more likely to find a job or join the workforce after any period of unemployment (*ibid*). A recent report by the Higher Education Careers Services Unit on what graduates do suggests that despite economic difficulties and high levels of unemployment, there seems to be only a slight rise in graduate unemployment (O'Prey, 2012). Obtaining a degree in HE is currently also considered one of the market requirements in the field of translation, motivating students to follow academic translation training programmes, as discussed in Chapter Two. For example, the number of students on the TS programme at UoB in the year (2012-2013) was thirty-two. This programme, similar to the programme offered at Durham University, does not follow a fixed limit concerning student intake, whilst limited at other universities, such as Aston University where it is approximately 8 students per year³.

The increase in the number of students joining HE institutions was accompanied

³ Information about the TS MA programmes at Aston, Durham and UoB is available from the programme websites:

Aston University: <http://www1.aston.ac.uk/study/postgraduate/taught-programmes/school/languages-social-sciences/translation-studies/> (last accessed on 10/4/2013)

Durham University: <http://www.dur.ac.uk/mlac/postgraduate/transstuds/> (last accessed on 13/4/2013)

UoB: [http://www.birmingham.ac.uk/students/courses/postgraduate/taught/arts-law-inter/translation-studies.aspx# Learning And Teaching Tab](http://www.birmingham.ac.uk/students/courses/postgraduate/taught/arts-law-inter/translation-studies.aspx#LearningAndTeachingTab) (last accessed on 13/4/2013)

by a change in students' personal profile including age, economic status and ethnic background. There seems to be an increase in the number of young students aged under 30 studying in the UK (O'Prey, 2012). For example, 7% of the students who followed the TS programme in the year (2012-2013) were aged over 30 while 93% were younger. More and more students from disadvantaged social and economic backgrounds are currently pursuing higher education (Rothwell, 2009). The number of students from various racial and ethnic minorities is increasing at universities (David et al, 2012). Minorities are also well represented in higher education especially at postgraduate level, which reflects the cosmopolitan character of HE. In the year (2012-2013), students following the MA in TS programme at UoB were from different ethnic backgrounds including White, Asian, Arab and others from mixed ethnic groups.

Furthermore, in terms of students' gender profiles at UK universities, there seems to be an equal number of men and women despite the gender bias in certain subjects (O'Prey, 2012). For example, the majority of students in veterinary science, education and medicine are women whilst most students in engineering and computer science are men (*ibid*). The number of female students seems to be consistently higher than the number of male students in TS programmes, despite the fact that the number of female translators is lower than the number of male translators, as stated by Uman (2012: 10). In the year (2012-2013), the number of female students in the MA in TS programme at UoB was twenty-seven in comparison to only five male students.

The number of overseas students is also rising at UK universities. This growth is more noticeable in the increased number of non-EU students willing to follow taught-level degrees in the UK (Scardino, 2009). English language, the intensity of courses and the reputation of UK higher education are all factors which attract students from around the world (Eastwood, 2009). This increase has taken place in all subject areas, especially engineering and technology, mathematical sciences, medicine, business and administrative studies. TS programmes also attract many European and international students. In the year (2012-2013), 8 of the students who followed the TS programme at UoB were from the UK while 7 were European and 17 were international.

The number of academic staff as well as staff employed in student support is rising due to the increasing number of students and volume of research in HE (O'Prey, 2012). In terms of age profile, most members of staff belong to higher age categories (over the

age of 45) due to the phasing out of the default retirement age (*ibid*). In terms of staff gender profile, there seems to be an equal number of men and women at UK universities. There also appears to be an increase in the number of staff from various nationalities and ethnic groups (Watson, 2009). This is usually expected within translation training programmes due to the need for staff who are proficient in translation in different languages. Academic staff at universities are highly qualified to teach, guide and help undergraduate and postgraduate students. For example, the team of academic staff in the TS programme at UoB consisted of nine tutors and four lecturers who came from different ethnic groups and nationalities (e.g. English, French, Greek, German, Algerian, Russian, Chinese, Polish and Uruguay) and belonged to different age groups: 28 and over. They are based in two departments: the Department of Modern Languages and the Department of English. The tutors and lecturers have either a degree in translation or previous experience in translation-related professions. These lecturers and tutors offer support and advice to students following the TS programme. Apart from meeting students during seminars and lectures, the students are organized in mentoring groups where they discuss their academic progress with an allocated mentor that works with the group throughout the academic year and monitor their progress and welfare.

The increase in the number of national and international students and staff led to the increase in the demands on HE programmes to widen the role of education in order to improve the financial situation of both individuals and the state. Accordingly, the number of HE institutions is increasing and there has been an improvement in the quality and quantity of university campuses which have been provided with sustainable buildings and large construction projects (Streeter, 2009). Despite the argument that the UK HE expansion policy has not been accompanied by sufficient growth in the institutional and teaching resources (David et al, 2012), academic, sport and leisure facilities and fully equipped libraries are available in most universities. University technological facilities have also increased as information and communication technologies contribute greatly to teaching and learning techniques. According to observation and personal experience, the programme offered at UoB integrates these technological facilities to employ various teaching techniques and techniques including lectures, presentations, tutorials and seminars which are interactive and based on discussion and activities. Students are also given the opportunity to use these technologies to give presentations, work in groups or

pairs and take part in activities both in and out of class. Applying these techniques and methods can help develop the trainee translators' interpersonal skills and enhance their confidence and awareness of their active role in the learning process, as recommended by many researchers (e.g. Kiraly, 2000 and Kelly, 2005).

3.2.2 The UK HE Policy of Administration and Funding

Although most universities' income comes from the state, they are considered to be autonomous and independent institutions in terms of administration. This flexibility of institutional self-governance is due to the dependence on new sources of funding; non-state funding such as student fees, charities and private research bodies (Cubie, 2009). University administration, which affects the decision making process concerning staff and students, is represented in committees including professionals and specialists. These committees are useful for discussing any complaints and concerns raised by staff or students in these institutions. They consolidate cooperation among the different parties at institutional level, contributing to high quality education which satisfies all stakeholders.

This policy of administration also applies to translation training programmes. Many of these programmes belong to language schools: the MA in TS programmes offered at Aston University is based within the School of Languages and Social Sciences, while the MA at Durham University is part of School of Modern Languages and Cultures and the programme offered at UoB, at the time when the study took place, was co-taught between two schools: the School of English, Drama and American & Canadian Studies and the school of Languages, Cultures, Art History and Music, both part of the College of Arts and Law. Traditionally, translation was considered an area of applied linguistics and taught within applied linguistics departments, and many translation programmes were first developed in such departments (Venuti, 1998: 314). However, this situation has changed. UoB was one of the last universities to move its translation programmes outside of Applied Linguistics; the TS programme at UoB is currently based within the Department of Modern languages.

The dependence on many sources of funding results in uncertainty which remains one of the main concerns in HE and affects the political decision-making at university level. Funding is also considered to be insufficient in light of HE expansion policy (Cubie, 2009) which adversely affects the learning process (David et al, 2012). The national and

institutional funding policy should instead be consistent in order to meet the different needs of students and ensure high quality learning. Moreover, one of the government's guiding principles is selectivity in the funding of research which is normally devoted to the most highly rated departments at universities. As a consequence, there appears to be a difference in funding between subject areas; Science, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics receive more funding than Humanities and Social Sciences, which include translation training programmes (David et al, 2012). This policy has resulted in an imbalance in terms of the quantity of research projects and quality and learning process between different university departments. However, the increase in tuition fees may lead to the popularity of job related degrees, especially in TS, which can reverse the decline observed in the humanities and social science (Watson, 2009).

Despite these funding challenges facing the UK HE, education at university level still drives business improvement and innovation and the number of research contracts with industry and charities has been significantly increasing (O'Prey, 2012). Public investment into research is growing, which is leading to an increase in the quality of research and consequentially enabling UK universities to maintain their leading position in the field of world research (O'Prey, 2012). Moreover, the government has taken many policy measures to improve the quality of students' learning experiences and encourage pedagogic research into teaching across the different subjects and disciplines in HE over the last decade. This includes the founding of The Higher Education Academy (HEA) and its 24 constituent subject centres in addition to the centres of excellence in teaching and learning (CETLs) designed to improve teaching and learning in HE (David et al, 2012). In terms of research productivity and the share of academic publication and citation, the UK was ranked second in major ranking: World University Rankings⁴ and Shanghai Jiao Tong University rankings⁵ (2008), since it produces a high number of the world's most influential papers (Scardino, 2012). According to Lambert (2008), a great deal of cooperation is taking place between universities and the workplace. In terms of translation training, this could affect the relationship between academics and professional

⁴ World University Rankings 2008 is available at: www.timeshighereducation.co.uk (last accessed on 18/4/2013).

⁵ Shanghai Jiao Tong University rankings 2008 available at www.arwu.org (last accessed on 17/4/2013).

translators and simultaneously the conflict between theory and practice in terms of the curricula of translation training programmes.

3.2.3 The UK HE Policy of Curriculum Development

The curricular at university-levels has also broadened beyond the traditional academic subjects and universities have also established many links with the market and adopted more vocational courses. These changes were in response to the current changes in the economy and the effect of service industry jobs which preferred graduates with more vocational skills (Blanden and Machin, 2004). As a result, the subject areas and types of courses at universities are currently more diverse than they previously were and curricular are more focused on specific employment fields. With these changes, the role of education within the HE sector has become vocationally oriented and subject-specific. The effect of such changes can be also seen in translator training programmes, where these programmes are integrating more vocational training in order to meet market requirements.

Alongside the changes within the UK HE affecting translator training programmes at postgraduate level is the modification in curricular orientation taking place across Europe in order to harmonise HE under the Bologna Process. This process started in 1998 in order to set uniform requirements which govern European degrees in order to develop a coherent European HE sector by 2010 (Ulrych, 2005). Accordingly, universities began to reconceive their curricular design including the generic and specific competences which constitute the basis of their modules. Curriculum renewal raised many issues, in particular the debate between theory and practice which is most relevant to translator training programmes at universities (Kearns, 2008), as was discussed in chapter two. Despite the fact that the Bologna process harmonises the structure for postgraduate degrees across Europe, it can reduce programme diversity (Amaral and Magalhães, 2004), as it aims at unifying the higher education system in order to facilitate mobility across Europe (Amaral and Magalhães, 2004). It also increases the pressure on research time and affects institutional autonomy (Furlong, 2005), due to the fact that “the Bologna process requires a profound transformation of the higher education system as we have known it”, as noted by Rico (2010: 192). This included changes to the curricula structure, credit scheme, student transfer system and teaching methodologies (*ibid*).

3.3 Curricula in Translation Training Programmes

In order to provide a comprehensive overview of the modules and events included in the TS programmes at UoB, this programme was compared to two other programmes: the MAs in TS at Aston and Durham University. These two programmes were chosen as they were similar to the programme offered at UoB. Aston and Durham, like Birmingham, focus on Translation Studies rather than Interpreting or subtitling. The main difference among the programmes taught at the universities of Aston, Durham and Birmingham lies in the range of languages available for the students in each programme. The TS programme at UoB allowed students to work with English and Arabic, Catalan, Chinese, French, German, Greek, Italian, Portuguese, Russian and Spanish. The programme at Aston University was restricted to a few languages including English in combination with French, German and Spanish. The programme at Durham University, on the other hand, focused on the following languages: English, Chinese, Dutch, French, German, Italian, Japanese, Korean, Russian, Spanish and Turkish.

3.3.1 The MA in TS at UoB⁶

As part of the MA in TS programme at UoB in 2012, students could follow either the MA Translation Studies-Translation and Language Technology pathway (MATS-TLT) or the MA Translation Studies-European Languages and Cultures pathway (MATS-ELC). The MATS-TLT was theoretically oriented and was based within the Department of English, while the MATS-ELC was more vocation oriented as it involved practical sessions, and was based in the Department of Modern Languages. During the Autumn and Spring terms, students must follow seven taught modules and complete a dissertation or an extended translation project during the Summer term. The MA in TS programme at UoB programme has changed since 2012, the year when this research was conducted and several developments have taken place. For example, the programme has become a

⁶ Information about the MA in TS at UoB was gathered from 'WebCT' (the UoB intranet which is available only for students at UoB) and the programme website at the time of data collection: <http://www.birmingham.ac.uk/students/courses/postgraduate/taught/arts-law-inter/translation-studies.aspx# Learning And Teaching Tab> (last accessed on 16/4/2013).

member of the EMT (the European Master's in Translation) where translation training has to cover six competences (language, intercultural, information mining, technological, thematic and translation service provision), as required by international institutions. Moreover, the programme is currently based within the Department of Modern languages, offering students the opportunity to study another foreign language at any level: beginners, intermediate and advanced.

In 2012, students had to complete three modules during the Autumn term. All students had to attend the two core modules ‘Introduction to Translation’ and ‘Translation Technology’, whilst additionally, those students following the MATS-ELC pathway had to take another core module, i.e. ‘Translation and Professional Communication Skills’, and trainees following the MATS-TLT pathway were required to follow one optional module. They could choose from ‘Translation and Professional Communication Skills’, ‘Describing Language’ and ‘Discourse Culture and Communication’ (see table 3.1 below).

Table 3.1: The Autumn Term Modules in TS at UoB	
MATS-ELC	MATS-TLT
<u>Core Modules</u>	<u>Core Modules</u>
Introduction to Translation	Introduction to Translation
Translation Technology	Translation Technology
Translation and Professional Communication Skills	<u>Optional Modules</u>
	Describing Language
	Discourse Culture and Communication
	Translation and Professional Communication Skills

In the Spring term, students must complete three modules. Students following the MATS-ELC pathway were required to attend two core modules and one optional module; whereas trainees on the MATS-TLT pathway must attend one core module and two optional modules (information regarding these optional modules is available in Appendix G). All students were required to attend the core module ‘Contemporary Translation

Theories'. The students had also to follow the course 'Research Methods in Applied Linguistics' as they must learn how to produce a research paper of their own according to the UK Masters-degree system which is partly based on research. While the module 'Translation Project' was mandatory for the students following the MATS-ELC pathway, it was optional for the students on the MATS-TLT pathway. During this term, trainee translators were able to audit modules that they were not taking for credit, depending on the number of students attending each course.

In addition to the Autumn and Spring term modules, students were required to attend two non-assessed courses: 'Introduction to the Bank of English' which introduced translators to the 400 million-word Cobuild Bank of English corpus and 'Academic Writing' for students whose first language was not English. Students were also given an opportunity to attend a series of events and talks by professional translators, publishers, terminologists and translation project managers on topics related to the translation profession (information regarding the list of talks and events in the year 2012- 2013 is available in appendix H).

In the Summer term, the trainee translators were given the opportunity to apply the knowledge they acquired in the Autumn and Spring terms by completing a 15,000-word research-based dissertation or an extended translation project (ETP). Students were assigned appropriate supervisors according to their chosen topics and, where relevant, language pairs. They met their supervisors regularly during the time they were carrying out their research and writing their dissertation/ETP (approximately six times in all). The supervisors helped the students to plan a work timetable, discuss their ideas and give them advice on how to develop and write up their dissertation/ETP. Students who chose to work on an extended translation project were required to translate a text of their choice of approximately 7500 words, together with a 7500-word commentary. They selected a text which presented an appropriate level of difficulty under the supervision of their tutors. Students were normally asked to translate the text into their first language. The commentary represented an analytical essay in English, where the students commented on the approaches adopted and discussed the problems encountered and solutions found whilst translating the text, drawing on relevant theories and methodologies discussed throughout the academic year.

3.3.2 The MA in TS at Aston University⁷

In the MA TS programme at Aston University, students were required to attend a set of core modules throughout the academic year. This set included the following modules: ‘Theoretical Concepts of Translation Studies’, ‘The Translation Profession’, ‘Translation and the Representation of Cultures’, ‘Specialized (LSP) Translation Project’, ‘Analysing Written and Spoken Discourse’ and ‘Research Methods’. Upon successful completion of these taught modules, students must complete a 15,000-word research-based dissertation.

3.3.3 The MA in TS at Durham University⁸

In the MA TS programme at Durham University, students could choose to follow a theoretical, practical and research pathway by selecting from a wide range of modules. All students must attend three core modules: ‘Research Methods and Resources’, ‘Translation Theory’ and ‘Specialised Translation’. Students must also attend another thirty credits of classes from a list of optional modules and carry out a core project in the Easter (Summer) term by selecting one of six different options (for the list of optional modules and core projects available in the Summer term, please see table 3.2).

⁷ Information about the MA in TS at Aston University was collected from the programme website at the time of data collection: <http://www1.aston.ac.uk/study/postgraduate/taught-programmes/school/languages-social-sciences/translation-studies/> (last accessed on 14/4/2013).

⁸ Information about the MA in TS at Durham University was collected from the programme website at the time of data collection: <http://www.dur.ac.uk/mlac/postgraduate/transstuds/> (last accessed on 16/4/2013)

Table 3.2: Optional and Core Projects at Durham University

Core Projects	Credits	Optional Modules
Translation Studies Dissertation	30	Translation and Technology
Extended Translation Project	15	Online Translation Resources
Extended Translation Project with Technologies	15	Translation Memories
Translation Project Language 1 + Translation Project Language 2	15	Translation Work Placement
	15	Translation Ethics
Translation Project in one language + Translation and Technology (available to students taking two Specialised Translation modules)	15	Intercultural Project Management
	15	Editorial Techniques
	30	Specialised Translation

In addition to these modules, the students had to attend both a dedicated research seminar series and the Translation & Linguistics Research Group meetings. These seminars were intended as forums where scholars, experts and professional translators gave talks and discussed current trends, difficulties and issues in translation as a science and profession.

The three MA in TS programmes differed in how their modules had been organised. The modules on the TS programme at UoB were divided according to the terms of the academic year. The programme was arranged from specific to more general and complex modules. On the other hand, the other two programmes taught the same modules over the Autumn and Spring terms. It was beyond the scope of the current study to discuss curricular design. However, it is worth noting that the organisation of modules is pertinent to the debate in TS on whether to start with simple (Nord, 2005) or complicated (Kiraly, 2000) translation tasks in translation training classes, as discussed in chapter two (see major approaches to translator training). A closer look at the core modules of these programmes will outline the type of skills and competences that these modules were designed to develop.

3.3.4 Reflection on the Core Module Design and Content in the Three MA in TS Programmes

The three programmes contain modules aimed at introducing current translation theories, trends, concepts and issues to the students. At UoB, the two core modules ‘Introduction to Translation’ and ‘Contemporary Translation Theories’ were designed to provide trainee translators with a theoretical basis of translation. The module ‘Introduction to Translation’ provided an introduction to the most significant theoretical and practical aspects of translation in relation to various social and cultural contexts. As part of this module, students were introduced to different approaches to translation, e.g. the functionalist and systemic (see appendix B). The core module ‘Contemporary Translation Theory’ in the Spring term complemented the module ‘Introduction to Translation’ in the previous term as it focused on the most current theories and approaches within TS (see appendix C).

At Aston University, the module ‘Theoretical Concepts of Translation Studies’ introduced students to controversial debates concerning basic concepts and theoretical aspects of TS. The module was intended to give students a greater awareness of the various approaches to translation in the recent decades. It focused on the following topics: the emergence of TS as an academic discipline, early reflections on translation, linguistics-based approaches to translation, textual-linguistic approaches to translation, functionalist theories of translation, descriptive translation studies, cultural studies and translation, postmodern and postcolonial theories of translation, sociological approaches to translation, translation as a profession, translation in institutions and new forms of translation (e.g. job profiles, media translation). Thus, it basically covered the same topics offered in the modules at the UoB. However, while the TS programme at UoB had two modules to introduce students to translation theories, the TS programme at Aston offered one module throughout the year.

Similarly, the ‘Translation Theory’ module at Durham University, in which each term lectures were supplemented by seminars, was designed to give the trainee translators the opportunity to examine the various theories of translation and introduce them to the basic issues in translation, including text type, target audience of both the original text and translation, translation strategies, and the decision making process based upon

general and language-specific factors. This module focused on the question of translatability while addressing these topics. The theoretical perspectives on TS throughout this module were designed to complement the specific orientation of the module ‘Specialised Translation’ which was based on practice.

There appear to be similarities between the three programmes in terms of their focus on providing their students with a firm theoretical background of translation. These programmes also introduced students to the current models, theories and trends in TS on the basis that equipping students with this theoretical basis would provide them with the ability to critically analyse or examine any aspects of translation. Additionally, it is noticeable that the translation theory modules in the three programmes are accompanied by a range of practice based modules. Traditionally, there has always been a debate on whether theory should precede practice or vice versa (Kelly, 2005: 114). Some learners prefer to learn inductively (practising to reach conclusions), while others tend to learn deductively (using theory to solve practical problems), as emphasised by Robinson (2003). The three translation training programmes seem to have merged theory with practice, taking therefore the students’ learning styles into consideration.

Many modules in the three programmes aimed to provide students with practical skills in translation. In the TS programme at UoB, there were two core modules which were based on practice: ‘Translation and Professional Communication Skills’ and ‘Translation Project’. The module ‘Translation and Professional Communication Skills’ aimed to help students develop their translation and communicative competences by working on a range of literary and non-literary text types. This module also aimed to familiarise students with the appropriate presentation skills, resources (such as the Internet, glossaries and subject-specific journals) and basic techniques for researching general and domain-specific terminology. Another purpose of this module was to provide the students with the necessary skills to prepare for professional assignments. In this module, students attended five core lectures, as well as five other seminars with their language tutor (see appendix E). The purpose of these seminars was to provide students with a guide to a range of information sources, text types and translation techniques (e.g. adaptation and textual editing) relevant to translation in their chosen language pairs. Similarly, the module ‘Translation Project’ gave students the opportunity to work on a translation project under the supervision of tutors with professional experience, according

to their language pairs, who guide and direct them to carry out the translation project (see appendix F). Throughout this project, trainees chose a text, translated it and applied theoretical concepts to practical translation by using translation theory to comment on their translation of the text.

In the TS programme at Aston University, the module ‘Translation Profession’ also aimed to familiarise students with a variety of professional aspects of the professional translation environment. This included the procedures of project management and quality control mechanisms in translation companies, the differences in the work of freelance translators and translators in employment, the legal and ethical aspects of the profession, both the manual and electronic tools and processes involved in translation and project management and lastly, working with clients. Through introductory seminars and group meetings, the professional environment was simulated to give students the opportunity to work in teams on managing translation projects. The module ‘Specialised (LSP) Translation Project’ allowed students to apply contemporary translation theories while translating, with reference to features of specialised translation. This aim of the seminar included in this module was to introduce students to the concepts of LSP Translation and different text types, relevant methodologies and research skills. Students were then given the opportunity to choose their domain and text type and consult with supervisors each week during the research phase.

In the TS programme at Durham University, the purpose of the module ‘Specialised Translation’ was to offer students the opportunity to translate from a foreign language into English and vice versa. In this module, students were assigned tutors who directed them to complete their independent practice. This module introduced students to a wide range of text-types and genres in different subject areas, including technology, business, literature, science, social science and law. The purpose of this module was to provide students with a coherent and accessible structure within which to develop their *translation competence* and enable them to translate both ways.

There seem to be similarities between the three programmes in their vocational orientation as the three programmes offer modules which enable their students to practice translating and manage translation projects. It was also noticeable that these modules were accompanied by seminars with the purpose of providing students with tools to enable them to translate systematically. The three programmes were also similar in terms of

offering modules aiming at developing translators' research skills. In the TS programme at UoB, the module 'Research Methods in Applied Linguistics' was designed to train students to apply various methods and approaches to undertake general research within Applied Linguistics. This module addressed several topics including dissertation proposals, the supervision process, quality criteria, research ethics, quantitative data collection and analysis, qualitative and mixed methods data collection, data analysis in qualitative and mixed methods research, classroom research and reporting research results. The module also included sessions which focus specifically on translation research and addresses topics such as: the areas of research, bibliographical research, formulating research questions, choosing methodologies, participant-oriented research, product-oriented research, types of corpora used in TS, techniques of corpus analysis, corpus analysis, critical discourse analysis, translation quality assessment, process oriented research, challenges and methodologies, context oriented research and case studies.

At Aston University, the 'Research Methods' module consisted of two parts. The first part was designed to familiarise students with: the broad based nature of the School of which the programme is a part, the main approaches to research covered by the different disciplines, the various paradigms associated with different research traditions within the School, the nature of postgraduate study, the role of research at postgraduate level, methods of collecting new data and related ethical and legal issues. Part two introduced students to the models of research methods specific to TS. This included the following models, as discussed by Williams and Chesterman (2014): the comparative (discovering similarities and differences between a source text and target text), process (representing changes of status through time) and causal (discovering causal conditions which affects the production of target texts). Thus the module was broader in its first part while more focused in the second one.

At Durham University, the module 'Research Methods and Resources' aimed at improving trainees' generic, academic and interpersonal skills required to successfully carry out a research project and develop critical thinking of the methods they use. It covered the following basic areas: using on-line and printed bibliographies to conduct literature searches, presenting bibliographies according to specified citation conventions, delivering conference papers, and using visual aids. Thus it seems that this programme

focused less on empirical research in contrast to the TS programme offered at UoB.

The three programmes seem to differ in terms of the degree of specialisation with regard to trainees' instrumental skills. The programmes at UoB and Aston University offer more translation-related sessions than the programme at Durham University, where the modules are more research focused.

The UoB offered training in using translation-oriented technological tools, such as translation memories and machine translation packages through the core module 'Translation Technology' (see appendix D). This module was designed to familiarise students with the use and assessment of machine translation (e.g. Google Translate and Systranet) and provide them with a theoretical basis for translation memory (TM). This module also involved hands-on sessions which aimed at training students to use SDL Trados Studio 2011 and TMs, analyse files, open translation packages, create and update resources and termbases and work with existing translations. It was also designed to introduce students to the technological tools currently used in translation for terminology purposes, including corpus analysis software and the World Wide Web. While the programme at Durham University offered training in technology through a set of optional modules: 'Translation and Technology', 'Online Translation Resources' and 'Translation Memories', the TS programme at UoB did not allow for such a choice and specialisation. In contrast, the TS programme at Aston University did not offer such a module specialised in technology and translation.

The programme at Aston University offered instead two core modules designed to develop trainee translators' linguistic and analytical skills for the purpose of translation: 'Text Analysis for Translation' and 'Analysing Written and Spoken Discourse'. It also included the core module 'Translation and the Representation of Cultures' which aimed at helping students to develop student's intercultural communication skills. The TS programme at UoB had similar modules among its optional list: 'Describing Language', 'Discourse, Culture and Communication' and 'Intercultural Communication' (see appendix G), while the programme at Durham University offered the optional modules: 'Intercultural Project Management' and 'Editorial Techniques'. Therefore, the TS programme at Durham University seems to be more vocational than the programmes offered at both UoB and Aston.

3.4 Conclusion

In this chapter, the reasons for selecting the case study methodology were explained. A justification for conducting a longitudinal case study and depending on the MA in TS programme at UoB was then subsequently offered. We have emphasised that, although results cannot be generalised, the case study selected may be able to contribute to formal translator training, especially to institutions which share some of the programme's characteristics. This was followed by a review of the current trends and features of UK higher education, with the purpose of introducing the context of the present case study and examining the effects of the recent changes in the UK HE policy on translation training programmes.

This chapter also provided an overview of the modules and events included in this programme in comparison with two other MA programmes in TS (the MAs in TS at Aston and Durham University). These two programmes were chosen as they were similar to the programme offered at UoB in their focus on Translation Studies rather than Interpreting or subtitling. The comparison indicated that although the three programmes are part of language schools (except for the MA at UoB which was part of two schools), a review of these programmes indicated that they were not designed to merely improve applicants' linguistic skills as they offered many other modules with the purpose of developing the trainees' different aspects of *translation competence*. In all three programmes, language classes in these programmes were separated from translation-oriented classes and the institutional autonomy was evident in the difference in the way the modules are organised throughout the academic year and in their focus as was evident in the review of their core modules. The comparison indicated that contrary to the programmes at UoB and Durham University, the programme at Aston University offered core modules specialised in developing the trainee's linguistic and intercultural communication competences. However, unlike the other two programmes, the programme at UoB placed more emphasis on translation technology as this module was compulsory at UoB while similar modules were optional at Durham University, while Aston University did not seem to offer such modules. However, it is worth noting that Durham University offered more choice and potentially more content to the students through the set of modules in translation technology introduced in the TS programme.

This comparison also shows that the MA in TS programme at UoB shared some characteristics with the other two programmes. For example, the three programmes integrated both vocational training and theoretical knowledge for developing the trainees' skills, as recommended by many of the major approaches to translator training discussed in chapter two. These three programmes seem to focus on providing students with the theoretical basis and ability required to undertake a research project in TS. This shows that these programmes attempted to meet the social need for innovation and lifelong learning, as outlined in the previous section of Higher Education. They seem to be aiming at preparing students to be professional translators, whilst also trying to meet market requirements. Reviewing the core modules of the three programmes also indicates that these programmes aim at developing the trainee translators' research skills. By equipping students with critical, analytical and research skills whilst introducing them to different theories, trends, genres and text types, these programmes aim to help the trainees to develop generic and specific translation-oriented competences. It is significant to provide trainee translators with generic skills since, as Kingscott (2000) emphasises, the translation profession has become complex and diverse, requiring translators to be proficient in different domains. However, it is worth mentioning that the TS programme at Durham University seems to focus more on professional training than the TS programmes at UoB and Aston University.

The multi-componential nature of *translation competence*, highlighted by the different models of *translation competence* discussed in chapter two, was clearly reflected in the three programmes. This study may shed light on the positive effect that combining theory with practice has on developing trainee translators' *strategic sub-competence*, in particular the way they perceive translation problems and justify their decisions while translating. After this overview of the type of training offered to the students in the MA in TS programme at UoB, the next chapter provides a detailed description and justification of the methodological tools used and procedures followed in designing and carrying out the study.

4. Procedures of Data Collection

The present case study employed different quantitative and qualitative research techniques. This chapter describes the general design of the study and its components and seeks to justify the use of the mixed method approach. This section is followed by a description of the participants and recruiting process in the current study and related ethical issues, challenges and limitations. The following sections offer an explanation for the research instruments utilised in this study: the questionnaire questions and format, translation task including the texts to translate and the instructions, interview schedule and guide. This chapter also explains in detail the design and wording of these research tools as well as the rationale for the data collection and analysis procedures used in the case study. The chapter concludes with a description of the pilot study which preceded this study.

4.1 Research Design

A case study involves investigating not only the context, but also the participants engaged in the phenomenon under study (Gall et al, 2003: 436). This research method allows for “the in-depth study of instances of a phenomenon in its natural context and from the perspectives of the participants involved in the phenomenon” (Gall et al, 1996: 545). Case studies allow us to combine a variety of research techniques for the purposes of collecting quantitative and qualitative data. The combination of different techniques helps us increase the validity of research findings by facilitating the overcoming of the inherent limitations of approaches which utilise each method separately. Qualitative research is usually conducted using a small sample size that is analysed in detail but generally does not allow for generalization of findings. Quantitative research, in contrast, often depends on a large sample size which tends to simplify and de-contextualize the data collected (Brannen, 2005). Mixed methods, however, can facilitate a more nuanced investigation of a particular phenomenon and offer different perspectives on the phenomenon under study within its original context. Since the mixed method design increases the validation of the study results within longitudinal research (Ortega and Iberri-Shea, 2005), the present case study employed different research techniques: quantitative (a questionnaire) and qualitative (a translation task, interviews and textual analysis), in addition to the fact

that we quantified the qualitative data collected from the translation task and interviews, as will be evident in chapter five, six and seven. Although the quantitative part of the present study is based on a small number of participants and therefore does not allow for generalization, it does permit the presentation of a systematic and comprehensive account of the data.

According to Creswell and Clark (2007), it is helpful to consider whether data collection is being carried out concurrently or sequentially. The sequential approach refers to the sequence in which the qualitative and quantitative methods are used, while in studies following a concurrent design the quantitative and qualitative approaches are integrated simultaneously. The main difference between the two approaches is that “when data are collected concurrently, the two forms (quantities and qualitative) of data are independent of each other; when collected sequentially, the two forms of data are related or connected.” (Creswell and Clark, 2007: 116). In the case of the present research design, the concurrent approach was applied and the quantitative and qualitative data were related. Additionally, the qualitative data in the present study was quantified. The first research method employed in this case study, namely the questionnaire, aimed to gather both quantitative and qualitative data and present a precise report of the participants’ personal information. This study used a questionnaire only during the first stage of the research, in the Autumn term at the beginning of the academic year, then a translation task, which was followed by interviews with the purpose of collecting qualitative data. The translation task and interviews were replicated in the Spring term in the middle of the programme, and in the Summer term towards the end of the academic year in order to study the students’ development throughout the duration of the programme. This offered the opportunity to compare the results from the three stages of the project following the completion of the TS programme. Textual analysis was used in order to collect micro-level qualitative data concerning the way in which the trainees evaluated translation problems and justified translation decisions, both in the translation task and the interviews.

Questionnaires are a popular research method which allows researchers to gather standardized and structured data on a wide number of participants (Matthews and Ross, 2010). This type of survey, as argued by McKay (2006), can assist in obtaining information about the participants in a systematic and organized way. The aim of the

questionnaire in the present study was to collect bio-social information about the participants and define the variables affecting translator training (Duff, 2008). A set of open and closed questions was employed in this questionnaire to make the respondents consider their answers and provide information relevant to the current case study (see questionnaire in Appendix I).

The translation task included translating a text and commenting on the translation according to a pre-prepared translation form which provided students with a systematic way of recording related to their translation decisions when completing the task. Unlike other types of self-report data such as interviews which can be subject to considerable inaccuracies, as people tend to say what they think they do and not what they actually do (Wray and Bloomer, 2006), this kind of task can alleviate subjectivity. Using the task might help students to become more objective since it reduces the power exercised by the presence of the researcher, as could happen in interviews. In interviews, the students might say what pleases the researcher rather than offering more objective views of translation problems and translation decisions. The purpose of this task was to collect qualitative data about both the product and the process of translation so as to examine the way trainee translators perceive problems, solve them and justify their answers. Research on translation processes often focuses on translators' cognitive processes in order to determine the way they select and use information resources, resolve translation problems and apply translation strategies while translating (Shreve, 2006). The focus of product-oriented research, on the other hand, tends to be based on the translated product (Saldanha and O'Brien, 2013). The main interest of this study is the strategies applied by participants in the target text and their justification for using them which can offer the researcher an insight into how translation problems are perceived and solved during the translation process. While the researcher did not analyse the translations themselves, these were commented on by the participants during the translation task and the subsequent interviews, thus we can argue that this is mixed process- and product-oriented research. An assumption underlying the decision to combine the two methods was that the final product must be related directly or indirectly to the decisions translators make whilst translating. It can help draw inferences and offer insights into the problem-solving process involved in translation, as also observed by Alves et al (2010: 110):

“Both research foci are interrelated in that what we observe as the specific

characteristics of translated texts may, at least to some degree, be correlated with behaviour directly or indirectly observable during the translation process.”

Following the translation task, retrospective interviews were conducted with the participants. This method was used to address the warning raised by Toury (1995) who cautioned against depending on explicit statements by translators while investigating the decision-making process in translation as they might provide incomplete statements. Thus, this research method was employed to give the students an opportunity to expand on the data provided in the translation task. According to Ajzen (1988: 13), interviews allow respondents to review different aspects of the phenomenon under study. They are a valuable research tool that is often used to investigate a variety of social events and examine people’s understanding of a wide range of situations (Edley and Litosseliti, 2010). Interviews also allow the researcher to understand how participants have associated particular meanings with a specific phenomenon (Berg, 1998). According to Cohen and Manion (1994), interviews can be used with other research technique to gather information, test hypotheses, offer new hypotheses and investigate unexpected results in more detail. In the case of the present research, they will help us to explore the participants’ understanding of translation problems and strategies and consequently the way they justify the translation decisions taken while completing the translation task. The findings of the interviews will help to test the hypotheses coming from analysing the data in the forms and either confirm or contradict them.

It would be unwise to ignore the issue that respondents’ responses during the translation task and interviews are subjective and that their attitudes and responses may be affected by the fact that they are aware of being part of a study (Dörnyei, 2007). Participant responses may change as they attempt to please the researcher and the administration of the institution – a trend well observed by Saville-Troike (2003). However, interviews are still one of the best research techniques possible to understand the participants’ thoughts and opinions concerning a specific case and to track changes in their views or behaviour during the process of data collection. Conducting, transcribing and analysing interviews can also be time consuming for the researcher and the participants and this can therefore impact upon the number of people who are willing to be interviewed, as was the case in this study. However, as argued Miller and Crabtree (1999), interviews are nevertheless an effective research instrument for sharing opinions,

knowledge and experience between the researcher and the participants.

The texts were analysed after the completion of the data collection process using the questionnaire, translation task and interviews. The purpose of this analysis was to investigate how students described their problems, their solutions and justified their choices. Of particular interest to us was the stance adopted by trainee translators when discussing the decisions made while solving translation problems during the three stages of data collection. The analysis relied largely on the Appraisal theory introduced by Martin and White (2005) based on the Systemic Functional Grammar approach to linguistics (Halliday and Matthiessen, 2004), which will be discussed in detail in chapters six and seven.

4.1.1 Participants and Recruiting Process

The focus was on the students enrolled on the full-time TS programme at UoB which started in September 2012 and finished in September 2013. Taking into consideration that there are no strict guidelines for sampling in qualitative research (Dörnyei, 2007), and that the number of students following the TS programme at UoB was small, no sampling strategy was used in the present study, which aimed to include as many as possible of the students enrolled on this programme. Reasons for adopting this approach also included the restricted time and resources available during the time of conducting the study, which basically required the researcher to adopt a convenience approach by recruiting the research participants who were most easily accessible to the researcher (Saldanha and O'Brien, 2013: 34).

At the beginning of the programme, an email concerning the study (see appendix N) was sent to the students following the TS programme at UoB. This email explained to the students the purpose of the study and the importance of their participation in the project. However, in order to minimise bias in their answers (Toury, 1995), the researcher avoided spelling out the specific objectives of the study and provided the trainee translators with the general research aim. This procedure can reduce the *researcher unintentional expectancy effect*, which is directing the participants to the type of findings the researcher is expecting (Saldanha and O'Brien, 2013: 30). This was evident in the brief introduction to the study provided to the students about the research aims. The email also stated the students' responsibility if they were to consent to take part in the study and

other issues related to their rights and privacy as participants.

In consideration of the ethical issues relating to the protection of the participants' rights, many procedures were taken to protect the participant students' rights and privacy in the present study. Prior to collecting data, we obtained approval from the committee for ethics at UoB, using a standard form, which is a requirement of the Code of Practice for Research⁹ in order to maintain standards of scholarly and scientific integrity in research. Accordingly, the participants' consent to take part in the study was obtained, where they were notified in the email that, by answering the questionnaire, they agreed to perform the translation task. A consent form was also prepared to obtain consent from the students who were willing to be interviewed. Participants were also informed that the study was to be replicated three times during the academic year and that they had the right to withdraw from the project with no negative consequences. The confidentiality of the participants' data was also assured as the participants were asked not to write down their names while answering the questionnaire and performing the translation task. Participants were further reassured that their answers would be used only for research purposes – a feature which was aimed to motivate participants to offer truthful and relevant information. These procedures were also intended to alleviate the Hawthorne effect which may lead them to behave differently when they know they are part of a study (Dörnyei, 2007: 53). Believing that the quality of their translation or their answers will be assessed would have led students to complete the task in a way that would satisfy the research and her supervisor. However, assuring the privacy and confidentiality of their answers allowed the students to offer more natural and reflective answers as they would have done in the real working environment.

Other procedures followed for the ethical purposes of protecting the participants' rights to privacy and confidentiality may also have helped motivate the students to take part in the study. For example, the email made clear to the prospective student participants that they had the right to refuse to participate in the study, withdraw or withdraw their data from the project without explanation. It was also made clear that the participant students did not have to take part in all three parts of the study, and that they were at

⁹More information about the Code of Practice for Research at University of Birmingham is available at: <http://www.birmingham.ac.uk/Documents/university/legal/research.pdf> (last accessed on 30/11/2015).

liberty to answer the questionnaire and perform the translation task without having to be interviewed. They were provided with the contact details of the researcher and those of her doctoral supervisor to use if they had any related questions or wished to withdraw their consent during the period of study or up to one month following the final stage of data collection. They were also notified that a short notice would be sent to them nearer to this deadline as a reminder and that, in a case of withdrawal, the participants' data would be removed unless he/she consent in writing for his/her data to be used in the study.

Moreover, the confidentiality of the data collected was assured by explaining to the students that the data collected would be preserved in confidential form and accessible for ten years for research purposes. They were informed that they would be required to offer their ID numbers to compare the results from the different stages of the data collection process. The students' anonymity was assured and it was also explained in this email that the participants' ID numbers and interviewees' names would be replaced by codes during the analysis and subsequent writing up of results. The following section describes in detail the design and format of the research techniques used in the current study.

4.1.2 The Questionnaire: Format and Questions

The questionnaire in the present study (see Appendix I) consisted of three main sections: introduction (the participant information page), definitions and questions. This design was intended to meet the recommendations made by Hale and Napier (2013: 55), who have suggested that the basic components of a questionnaire are the participant information page, questionnaire items, open section for comments and "thank you" page.

4.1.2.1 Introduction

The questionnaire began with an introduction which explained the purpose of the study and its rationale in improving translator training. As has been observed by Duff (2008), explaining the purpose of the study encourages students at universities to understand the significance of the project and, consequently, support and enrich the study with their contributions. It was also stated in the introduction to the questionnaire that the translation task following the questionnaire was not designed for assessment purposes and the quality of the students' translation was not going to be assessed. It was anticipated that this would

encourage participants to take part in the study and also alleviate the Hawthorne effect which may have led the students to behave in a way that they think could satisfy the researcher (Dörnyei, 2007: 53).

4.1.2.2 Definitions

Before answering the questionnaire, the participants were provided with specific definitions of a few terms which were part of the questionnaire; namely the definitions of the participants' first language (L1), second language (L2) and third language (L3). Such definitions, which are instrumental in this project, were offered in order to avoid any ambiguity and to ensure that the way these concepts were understood by the trainee translators corresponded to how we intended to use them, as recommended by Saldanha and O'Brien (2013: 153). For the purpose of the present study, L1 was defined as the language in which students consider themselves to be most proficient, whereas L2 was considered to be the language in which they consider themselves to be most proficient after their first language. L3 was identified as any language that they use competently other than their L1 or L2.

4.1.2.3 Questions

The questionnaire was designed in such a way that it would not be time consuming for respondents which could help reduce attrition (participant drop-out) and avoid non-completion and cases where respondents skip questions (Saldanha and O'Brien, 2013: 154). The questionnaire was short as it consisted of only one page. Filter questions were also used to direct the respondent to the questions relevant to them and skip questions that in their case were not applicable. Clarity was also essential (Hale and Napier, 2013), therefore, the following were avoided: ambiguous questions such as double negatives and jargon; leading questions which may have led the participants to offer specific answers; questions which required the participants to provide two different answers simultaneously; and questions with the purpose of simultaneously collecting different pieces of information.

The questionnaire was organized into five main sections (general information, second language culture, education, work experience and additional information), including both closed and open-ended questions. The purpose of the closed questions was to direct the respondents to offer precise information and avoid irrelevant material. This

type of question helps to obtain structured data despite the fact that it does not allow the respondents to express their own thoughts. Such questions may lead to prejudice issues with prepared responses, as Wray and Bloomer (2006) have warned against. In addition, this approach can increase the likelihood of participants answering questions arbitrarily or not responding to categories that they consider to be non-applicable to their situation. Open-ended questions, on the other hand, were used to give the participants an opportunity to provide further information and thus feel engaged with the study. Open-ended questions may be skipped as they take longer to answer, or they may provide irrelevant responses which are difficult to interpret (Saldanha and O'Brien, 2013: 157). However, since the success of the project did not depend on their responses to open questions, it was considered a risk worth taking, particularly considering that such questions provide the researcher and participants with the opportunity to overcome the restricted nature of closed questioning and allow the latter to elaborate on different issues and communicate their own thoughts.

The **general information section** included six fact-finding questions which aimed at obtaining personal information about the students' age, gender, L1, L2 and L3. As it is difficult to control all the variables involved in the case study, observations were made regarding a few variables. Thus, the trainee translators' age and gender were considered as "observational" variables (Perry, 2005: 51). The statistics derived from these questions were descriptive rather than inferential; in other words, they were not used in building hypotheses. These statistics were used to help summarise data in tables and categories for comparison purposes, and to examine how these categories are related to other qualitative information collected in the study. Collecting information about the participants' language background (L1, L2 and L3) was also considered necessary to study the results in relation to the directionality in translation (translation from or into their L1). In this section, participants were also asked to write their student ID numbers to be able to link the results from the different stages of the data collection process with each other.

The questions in the section entitled the **culture of second language** were intended to reveal the participants' experience in the culture associated with their L2, and to examine whether such an experience has an effect on the type of translation problems facing translators and the translation strategies employed by translators to solve them.

The **education** section consisted of two questions aimed at establishing the students' level of education for the purpose of collecting information about participant prior knowledge, linguistic and translation training experience. The **work experience section** contained two questions and was intended to establish the respondents' professional experience in translation and the domains they worked in. The aim of this information was to clarify the respondents' work experience and prior knowledge. In addition to these three sections, the participants were given an opportunity in the last section (**additional information**) to add or elaborate on any educational, linguistic or professional experiences they thought relevant to the study. The purpose of this open ended question was to allow the respondents to explain the answers they had provided for the closed questions and/or add further information which was not specifically requested in the questionnaire. The participants' previous linguistic, educational and professional experience, revealed in the previous sections, were also considered as observational variables since the focus was on the students' perception of translation problems and the way they justify the decisions taken to solve them after having started the MA in TS programme at UoB.

At the end of the questionnaire, we thanked the respondents for their participation and asked them to provide their e-mail addresses if they were willing to be interviewed. Including such a question, rather than approaching them individually, was necessary in terms of the participants' confidentiality and privacy as interviews reveal participants' identity. Therefore, those who were not willing to be identified were not required to provide their email addresses. This procedure also avoided giving students an impression that they were being pressured to agree to be interviewed, which may affect data quality and participation rate. However, other potential sources of bias, such as the varying time constraints among participants, individual personalities and/or confidence in speaking in social contexts may still have an impact on those willing to be interviewed.

4.1.3 The Translation Task

The trainees were given an English text to translate into another language. As trainee translators involved in this study speak different native languages, the text selected to be translated was in English since English is the only common language among the trainee translators' working languages in this programme (either the trainees' L1 or L2). Thus, the case study examined translations into and out of their mother tongues. Generally

speaking, there is a preference to translate into the translator's mother tongue. PACTE group's experiment (2011: 332), for example, indicates that direct translation (translation into the mother tongue) is much more difficult than inverse translation (translation into a foreign language). However, in many situations and various contexts, translators are currently required to translate into their second language despite the general preference to translate into the mother tongue (see McAlester, 2000). McAlester (1992: 293) argues that translation training courses should help prepare students for their careers which might include translation into a foreign language. While the decision to use English as the source language in this experiment may have affected the quality of the translators and their times, this was not seen as crucial since the interest was in the way the translators perceived translation problems and justified their decisions rather than in how they approached these specific texts. Furthermore, providing students with texts in different languages according to their mother tongue would have made it difficult to ensure equal degrees of text difficulty which could have reduced the validity of data.

4.1.3.1 Translation-related Instructions and the Text

Because factors such as client's specific requirements and target audience can contribute to defining translation problems (Nord, 2005) a set of instructions (see appendix J) were given to the participants to consider before embarking on translating the text. The participants were asked to assume that the target audience was similar to that of the source text. They were also informed that they were free to use dictionaries or reference material and discuss their translation with whoever they wished in order to simulate a realistic situation in terms of the extra-linguistic factors affecting the translation process.

While selecting the source texts to be translated, a few strategies were followed which would encourage the participants to take part in the study at its different stages and avoid attrition as the task can be time consuming. The source texts selected were excerpts of brochures targeting tourists (see appendix K). The choice of tourist information brochures was meant to address the respondents' cultural diversity through texts that are interesting. Tourist texts are bound to contain cultural specific references that tend to present problems in translation while avoiding high degrees of syntactic complexity since they are meant to be read by a general audience, including speakers of English as a second language. These texts were written in contemporary English and were on themes where

subject related information was readily accessible online. Text 1 entitled ‘Forge Mill’ was part of a brochure explaining the manufacturing of needles in the historic site of the Forge Mill during the Victorian times. It displays the set of activities and facilities this site offers to visitors (see figure 4.1).

Figure 4.1: Text 1 ‘Forge Mill’



As text genre is one of the main factors affecting the translation process (and the translation problems identified by translators and the strategies used by them), the participants were provided with texts of a similar genre to translate at the second and third stages of the data collection process. The texts selected were all short (no more than 200 words). Text 2 entitled ‘Discover a Whole World of Chocolatey Fun!’ explains the areas of interest and activities available to visitors to Cadbury World (a chocolate factory), as figure 4.2 shows.

Figure 4.2: Text 2 ‘Discover a Whole World of Chocolatey Fun!’



Text 3 entitled ‘Witley Court and Church’ explains the history of this country house along with its church and gardens and the types of activities that used to take place in this historic site. It lists the attractions visitors are likely to see throughout their visit to this site (see figure 4.3)

Figure 4.3: Text 3 ‘Witley Court and Church’



4.1.3.2 The Translation Form

The trainee translators were asked to complete a form while translating (see appendix L). This form included six sections, allowing the participants to record the translation problems they had identified and their types, the information sources used, the solutions, the strategies applied and the justification for these strategies. Participants were asked to justify their decisions even if they were not able to solve the identified translation problems.

Different approaches were adopted in relation to the use of definitions and categories for concepts of *translation problems*, *translation strategies* and *information sources*. Trainee translators were asked to describe the translation problems but no specific definition of *translation problems* was given to the students. However, they were provided with definitions of the terms *translation strategies* and *information resources* to consider before completing the form. No definition of translation problems was provided because, as explained in chapter two, section 2.4, there is no agreement on a clear definition of the concept of a translation problem, and we thought it would be interesting to find out what the participants identified as translation problems based on common sense and how this evolved as they completed the programme. Besides, the term ‘problem’ itself was unlikely to cause confusion. On the other hand, definitions for the technical terms *translation strategies* and *information sources* were offered in order to avoid any ambiguity and confusion between the two terms, and which also proved to be a useful source of relevant and necessary information.

The information sources were defined as hard-copy documents (such as dictionaries), electronic sources or human sources (e.g. a fellow student) following Gile (2009: 131). Since the focus of the present study is on how trainee translators develop the manner in which they justify the translation strategies used in the formulation of a final translation, and the forms were designed with this purpose in mind, Chesterman’s definition of translation strategies (2000, 87-116) was adopted. Chesterman’s model was employed since he focuses on the textual strategies, rather than on the cognitive procedures occurring in the human mind while encountering a translation problem (see Moulin and Hurtado Albir, 2002). In addition, instead of discussing the cultural, social, political and economic norms affecting translation, as was the case with Toury’s model (1995/2012), Chesterman focuses on the production strategies which guide the

translators' work after the translation assignment has been commissioned. He provides a detailed classification of these strategies, dividing them into three main categories: syntactic, semantic and pragmatic. Thus, the definition of production strategies was introduced to the trainee translators as: "the way you manipulate the linguistic material in the text in order to produce an appropriate target text, such as literal translation or information change, etc." Offering the students examples such as literal translation and information change might affect the students' answers and their tendency, leading them to use only these strategies, instead of many more possibilities. However, using such examples was necessary in order to clarify key concepts in the present study and guide the students into offering more relevant answers.

The participants, however, were not provided with any specific classification of translation problems, information sources or strategies. The reason for not providing the trainees with a specific classification in the present study was to avoid offering a list of pre-defined categories. Providing the students with such categories would force them either to select a category, which may not reflect their actual response, or skip filling in sections of the form because they did not find an appropriate answer. In addition, one of the purposes of the current study was to examine the way the students following the translation training programme perceived translation problems and justified their answers.

4.1.4 Retrospective Interviews

Generally speaking, interviews are divided into three categories according to the degree of structure: structured, semi-structured and unstructured (Dörnyei, 2007: 134). The interviewers conducting structured interviews follow a specific list of questions, which aids them in focussing on the target topic but does not allow for any flexibility in terms of the order, number or phrasing of questions when encountering unexpected situations. On the other hand, both semi-structured and unstructured interviews allow further flexibility during the interview regarding when and how to ask questions. This flexibility creates a balance in power between the researcher and the participant, allowing the latter to further contribute to the study.

However, unlike unstructured interviews, semi-structured interviews permit researchers to implement their previous knowledge of the research topic, developing general questions about this topic without limiting the respondents' answers by using

formulated questions. It allows for greater responsiveness on the part of the interviewees, while reducing the likelihood of obtaining irrelevant information (Griffin, 2005). It keeps the discussion focused and helps to direct the interviewee to offer relevant and precise information.

The semi-structured type of interview was employed in this study to enable the interviewer to phrase the interview questions according to the purposes of the study, and reformulate the questions during the interview in order to take into account unexpected results (Hale and Napier, 2013). This format allows the researcher to explore the participants' ideas in more depth and enables students to be more expressive (Hale and Napier, 2013: 95). This type of interview can also reduce the effect of panel conditioning, which occurs when participants lose any inhibitions they might have regarding the interview format and start to focus on certain issues to please the researcher (Dörnyei, 2007: 83). Following structured interviews would have allowed for the researcher's prediction to delimit the study results and block any new insights (Saldanha and O'Brien, 2013: 172). It would have prevented any spontaneity on the part of the participants and flexibility on the part of the interviewer (Dörnyei, 2007: 135). However, using semi-structured interviews allowed for the collection of information from the interviewees' perspective and gave the researcher the opportunity to administer the interview to suit the circumstances of the interview.

4.1.4.1 Interview Guide

An interview guide is a set of closed and open ended questions prepared in advance to provide the interviewer with guidance and direction (Griffin, 2005). Although it would be less detailed in semi-structured interviews, an 'interview guide' was prepared and employed in the present study. This guide was used to ensure that the questions were clear, simple and addressed the various aspects of the topic properly. It was also implemented to avoid one weakness of interviews; namely the unpredictability of participant response. It was also employed to enable the researcher to "template for the opening statement to make sure that nothing crucial is left unsaid", especially when facing unexpected situations (Saldanha and O'Brien, 2013: 175). Open-ended, follow-up and interpreting questions were used to encourage the interviewees to elaborate further on certain translation problems and strategies. Complex, general and leading questions with

implicit assumptions or jargon were avoided. Additionally, sensitive or face threatening comments which can reflect negatively on the interviewees were also avoided. The translation problems and strategies which appeared interesting and required more elaboration were selected from among the forms completed by the students. The interview guide thus included a series of questions raised by the task and included the following:

- Q1: Can you describe this problem in more detail?
- Q2: Can you explain in more detail why you classified this problem as (e.g. a cultural problem)?
- Q3: Can you describe in more detail the strategy you used?
- Q4: Can you explain to me, in more detail, why it was difficult to find a solution to the problem you mentioned?
- Q5: Is there anything you want to add about the translation of this text/the problems identified or strategies used?

The last question was intended to encourage the participants to comment on issues that affected the translation of the text but which had not been previously addressed in the interview. This guide was accompanied by a log which recorded the details of the individual interviews, such as the date and duration of the interviews and other relevant comments. The following section describes in detail the way data was collected during the Autumn, Spring and Summer terms of the academic year 2012-2013 (information concerning how, when and where the interviews were conducted, recorded and transcribed will be presented in section 4.2.2).

4.2 Data Collection Procedures in the Main Study

As explained above, at the beginning of the programme, an email concerning the study (see appendix N) was sent to the students following the TS programme at UoB. This email explained to the students the purpose of the study and the importance of their participation in the project. Different procedures were followed to increase the response rate in this study. However, as was to be expected, one of the most serious problems this study suffered from was attrition, as was also observed by Burton et al (2006: 461): “for any

longitudinal survey that aims to reinterview the same sample members over a number of years, attrition is a major concern.”

Twelve students out of thirty-two performed the translation task at the three different stages. Twenty students participated during the first stage, sixteen during the second stage and twelve during the third stage. Seven agreed to be interviewed during the first two stages and five were interviewed at the third stage. The most probable cause of this attrition was the students’ lack of time due to the intensive nature of the TS programme they were following. Another reason could be that the students thought their translation was going to be assessed. This occurred despite the fact that the researcher assured the students many times that the translation task was not designed for assessment purposes and they would not have to reveal their identities while performing the task.

4.2.1 The Questionnaire and the Translation Task

In the first stage, participants were asked to come to the University at a specific time and date, where they were asked to answer the questionnaire and perform the translation task. This was carried out in a classroom setting equipped with computers and internet access. However, because of the students’ limited time and the effects this may have had on recruitment, in the second and third stages, the researcher had to change the original format and establish the questionnaire and translation task as a take-home task. Such a procedure can increase response rate and reduce power relations between the researcher and participants which may encourage them to supply authentic answers while translating. Additionally, the fact that the students performed the translation task at home could also have limited the impact of bias exercised by the researcher towards the students. They may also have alleviated *impression management*, when the participants say what reflects well on them, or *social desirability*, when the respondents behave in a culturally accepted way (Langdridge and Hagger-Johnson, 2009: 96).

Each participant was provided with a folder which included the questionnaire, the instructions for the translation task, the text to be translated, an original copy of the brochure and ten copies of the form; each representing a translation problem. Providing the students with a specific number of copies (ten) was meant to encourage the students to participate as the time required for the task might discourage them from participating in the study. Moreover, ten problems would give us enough data to analyse because we

are interested in questions of how and why they identified the problems rather than the quantity of problems identified. However, since this could have limitations on the number of problems they were expected to find, electronic copies of the questionnaire and translation task were sent to each student, and the participants were reminded that they could add more than ten problems. The students were asked to return the questionnaires, forms and the target text for future reference. In addition, the researcher sent the students many reminders to increase response rate as recommended by Langdridge and Hagger-Johnson (2009: 97). It is worth noting that it would have been easier to administer the questionnaire and the translation task electronically which would have made the analysis process of the data much easier. However, we chose to initially approach the students personally in order to encourage them to complete the task since it would be easier to explain the significance and the purpose of the study, answer any questions and clarify any vague points. Saldanha and O'Brien (2013: 166) also pointed out that the "distance" implicated in internet-mediated collection methods "can be one reason for a lack of response". Therefore, we used a combination of hard-copies and electronic copies. The purpose of using electronic copies was also to increase the response rate and make it easier for the students to complete and return the task whenever possible.

During the first stage, where data collection took place in a classroom environment, the researcher read aloud the study related ethical issues included in the introduction of the questionnaire, mentioned earlier in this chapter, emphasising that by answering the questionnaire, the participants were consenting to take part in the study. Participants were asked to answer the questionnaire, read the instructions before commencing the translation task and familiarise themselves with the form they had to complete while translating the text. Participants were also given the option to return a hard copy of the questionnaire, the translation of the text and the forms to the researcher, or return them back electronically to the researcher's email address.

In the second and third phases of data collection in the Spring and Summer terms, the participants were not required to fill in the questionnaire. They were asked instead to write down their ID numbers for comparison purposes and provide their email addresses if they were willing to be interviewed before embarking on the translation task.

4.2.2 Interviews

During the three stages of data collection, students who expressed their willingness to be interviewed were sent an email which thanked them for their contribution to the study. This also included a specified time and date stipulating when and where the interviews would be conducted and a consent form which they were required to read, sign and return via email.

4.2.2.1 Informed Consent Form

Before starting the interviews, in compliance with the regulations related to the protection of the rights and privacy of participants, the interviewees were required to complete a separate consent form (see appendix M). As the participants' identity would be revealed in interviews, this form enabled them to formally express, in writing, their willingness to be interviewed. The consent form in the present study was designed following the recommendations of Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2000) and Johnson and Christensen (2004).

Thus, the consent form included information about the purpose of the study and the aim of the interviews. The information concerning the objectives of the interviews was intentionally brief in order not to influence and bias the respondents' answers (Dörnyei, 2007). The consenting participants confirmed that they had been notified concerning their ability to contact the researcher if they needed further information, or to revoke their consent at any time with no negative consequences. They also agreed that they had been informed that if they withdrew their consent, their data would be removed unless they agreed, in writing, to the continued use of their data in the study. Participants also acknowledged that they had been informed that they had up to a month after the final stage of data collection to withdraw their data from the project. Moreover, the participants in the study were reminded that codes would be used instead of personal names during the analysis and collation of the data. They were also notified that their data was to be held confidentially, preserved and accessible for ten years for research purposes. Ensuring the confidentiality of the data collected was critical to gain the trust of interviewed participants— a key issue if the project was to obtain useful and reliable data (Griffin, 2005). The consent form involved the mutual disclosure of the contact details and signatures of the participants and researcher. Collecting information with the participants'

consent and full awareness of their rights was necessary to maximise the quality and authenticity of the information they provided.

4.2.2.2 Interviewing the Participants

The interval between the task and the retrospective interviews was short and did not exceed two days in most cases. This brevity was intentional in order to improve the quality of retrospective data and followed the guidelines modelled in Gass and Mackey (2000). The interviews conducted were of a face-to-face nature. Because the interviewees need to be at ease during the interview, the interviews were conducted in a cafe or seminar room. As no sensitive issues were discussed, these venues provided an ideal informal environment. Conducting interviews in a neutral place helps to shift the power balance towards the interviewees and consequently enrich the study with their contribution (Griffin, 2005).

Before the interviews commenced, interviewees were notified of the fact that an audio recorder would be used during the interview and that their consent was required for its use. At the beginning of the interview, the participants were reminded of the confidentiality of their answers. The interview started with questions which required descriptive answers such as the participants' work experience, languages or the modules they were following, which were designed/intended to encourage them to open up and relax. The interviewer then used the interview guide throughout the interviews.

The interviews were conducted by the researcher herself. It is not possible to ignore that this strategy can be problematic as the researchers' attitude towards the participants may cause bias while interviewing which might affect the analysis of data and simultaneously the validity of the study. However, this strategy also enables the researcher to gain a fuller understanding of the qualitative data collected. It allows the researcher to "get a feel for how the data is shaping up, which may result in ideas as to how best to organize (code) the data during the analysis stage" and "keep track of how the theory is developing also to encourage self-reflexiveness and awareness" (Saldanha and O'Brien, 2003: 186).

Most interviews were conducted in English since the participants speak different native languages: English was the one common language between interviewees and interviewer, and all had a high degree of proficiency in that language. This was equally

pertinent given that the interview results and final report would be collated and discussed in English. However, Mackey and Gass (2005) have recommended that, if possible, interviews should be conducted in the participants' L1. Therefore, the native Arabic speakers who share the same native language as the researcher were given the choice to express themselves in the language with which they felt most at ease with discussing the translation problems. The interviews with the native Arabic speakers were mainly conducted in Arabic. Translated data can impose an extra layer of interpretation and cause ethical issues in relation to the power hierarchy between the two languages involved in the translation which might affect the validity of the data (Saldanha and O'Brien, 2003: 177). However, conducting the interviews in the participants' mother language allowed the participants to express themselves more freely. The data provided by these students was translated by the researcher herself. Although this might implicate the researchers' bias, it will prevent any bias exerted by an external translator (Saldanha and O'Brien, 2003: 178). In addition, translating this data by the researcher herself would help her emerge in the data and be close to the meaning and interpretations intended by the participant.

The interviews of the five students who agreed to be interviewed were transcribed fully by the researcher herself in order to allow her to immerse herself in the data. This enabled the researcher to organize the data collected before starting the analysis process (Fielding and Thomas, 2001). After the final stage of the data collection and more specifically after the interviews were conducted in the Summer term, a short notice was sent to the participants to notify them that they had up to a month to contact the researcher if they wanted to withdraw their data.

4.3 Pilot Study

Before starting to collect data at the UoB, the study was piloted on a sample of students who were similar to the target sample, for which the study had been designed. This followed the recommendations of Dörnyei (2007: 75). The purpose of this pilot study was to ensure that all the questions and instructions were easy to understand and to clarify any part of the study which was vague. In addition, this pilot study aimed at determining the logistical parameters of the task, including the time needed to answer the questionnaire, translate the text and complete the forms.

Consistent with the small sample size in the main study, the pilot study was conducted in cooperation with three trainee translators who were following a one-year MSc in Translation and Computer-Assisted Translation programme at the University of Edinburgh. An email was sent to the students to explain the requirements and procedures of the translation task. This was as follows:

- I. Read the introduction
- II. Answer the questionnaire
- III. Read the instructions of the translation task
- IV. Translate the text and complete the forms with the required information.

The students were provided with the questionnaire, the translation task, the text, the forms and scanned copies of the brochure. The three participants translated the text into Arabic. Two of them translated the text into their L1, while the other trainee performed inverse translation (translation into L2) as her L2 is Arabic.

4.3.1 The Trainee Translators' Profiles

Two of the three female students were within the same age range (17-27) while one was older (+39). The trainees who translated the text into their L1 had never had any relevant experience in the culture of their L2 and had not previously followed any translation course nor gained previous professional expertise in translation before going to Scotland to follow the MSc programme. However, one of these students had studied linguistics at undergraduate level while the other student had been awarded a bachelor degree in pharmacy. On the other hand, the student who translated the text into her L2 had lived in an Arabic speaking country for three years, worked as a professional translator for two years and had pursued an undergraduate degree in Arabic.

4.3.2 Translation Problems, Strategies and Justification

As expected, the trainee who translated the text into her L2 encountered more problems than the other two trainees. According to their descriptions, the three trainees faced problems because of the differences between English and Arabic in terms of grammar, syntax and style or due to the lack of equivalents in the target language (TL). These

problems were mainly linguistic, regarding how to re-express certain lexical and syntactic structures in the target language. The students who translated the text into their L1 encountered problems related to style or syntax. However, one of these students faced difficulty in finding a cultural equivalent in her TL. Similarly, it was difficult for the student who translated the text into her L2 to find TL cultural equivalents for certain terms in the source text.

The three students used target text-oriented strategies (paraphrasing, cultural equivalents in the TL and structural changes) rather than source text-oriented strategies (e.g. transliteration or borrowing) (see Munday, 2011). However, while the trainees who translated the text into their L1 justified their decisions in terms of conforming to the rules of the TL, the student who translated it into her L2 intended to convey the information of the source text and to further explain the text to readers, according to her justification

4.3.3 Trainee Translators' Feedback

Although piloting interviews is difficult as it is time consuming for both the participants and the researcher, the task was followed by on-line interviews via Skype with the three students. Since piloting semi-structured interviews is not as helpful as it is with structured interviews, the interviews with the students also included a discussion to obtain feedback concerning the structure, suitability and relevance of the questionnaire and other parts of the study.

The discussion with the participants showed that the questions in the questionnaire were clear and the wording was unambiguous - an essential factor in encouraging participants to cooperate and provide truthful information (Cohen and Manion, 1994). The students reported that the definitions were clear, filling in the questionnaire was easy and the order of questions was logical. The students also mentioned that the questionnaire only took them a few minutes to complete. The students participating in the study agreed that the instructions of the translation task were easy to follow and the definitions were easy to understand. According to the participants, answering the questionnaire and performing the task took between 60 and 90 minutes. Therefore, no changes were made to the original design of the project on the basis of the pilot.

4.4 Conclusion

This chapter described the design of the present study and explained the reasons for the use of a mixed research method approach. It described the participants and addressed issues related to the recruiting process. This chapter also revealed the composition of the research instruments used in conducting this case study research; the questionnaire, translation task, interviews. The description of the research techniques showed the motives for the selection of certain procedures while designing, collecting and analysing data. The discussion of the research-related ethical considerations indicated that the rights and privacy of human participants were respected throughout the data collection process. The challenges and limitations restricting the present case study were also described. Finally, the pilot study conducted prior to the main study was presented at the end of the chapter.

5. Participants and Data Analysis

In this chapter, we will describe the procedures followed in analysing the data provided in the questionnaire and forms, as part of the translation task. This is followed by a discussion of the participant students' profiles using the answers to the questionnaire. We will then reflect upon the answers provided by the students in the forms and discuss this data in order to examine the way students perceived translation problems, applied translation strategies and justified their translation decisions. We will subsequently comment on the respondents' use of language in the forms and the interviews in order to examine whether they use any translation – related theoretical jargon or terms.

5.1 Data Analysis Procedures

As mentioned above, there was a drop-off of 37.5% percent from the first to the second stage and one of 62.5% from the first to the third stage. Only the data for students participating in all three stages was analysed. Therefore, here we will describe the profile of the twelve participants who took part in the three stages of the research, since only these data will be analysed. The handwritten data provided by the students on hard copies of forms was typed and saved in electronic form (see appendix O). All names or identifying features were removed and codes were used to refer to the students. The participants were given codes according to their gender (male students were given the code 'M' whereas female students were assigned the code 'F'), in addition to a numeric value added to each of these codes. The two letter code system of languages (ISO 639-1) was also used to indicate the language of the target text. For example, a female student who translated the text from English into Greek was assigned the code 'F1EL'. The file in which the codes are linked to the students' real names is only available to the researcher and is fully password-protected. The questions in the questionnaire which were used to describe the participants' profiles were divided into sections, and the data were analysed and presented according to these sections (see chapter four, section 4.1.2.3).

Because this was a small-scale study, data provided in the questionnaire was analysed manually. The analysis of the results of the closed questions from the questionnaire was quantitative. Concerning the open-ended questions, similar answers were grouped together in order to organise the information which appeared in the

responses. Raw frequencies and percentages were used to quantify the answers to the closed and open-ended questions. Percentage difference across the three stages was calculated using an online calculator¹⁰ in order to examine whether there was a difference in the percentages of the raw frequencies in the data collected. Standard deviation, which is a measure of variability in a set of data, was used in order to understand the average deviation or variation between the number of problems identified by the individual students and the mean from the three stages of data analysis (Tavakoli, 2012: 615) using an online calculator¹¹.

We also performed a test of statistical significance in order to test whether there is a significant difference in the data provided by the students across the three stages. Using this test helped us to determine how high or low the probability that the decrease or increase in the data throughout the three stages was due to chance. We used the chi-square test¹² since it is more sensitive than other tests (t-test and Wilcoxon's rank sum test) and does not assume that the data are normally distributed which is not a feature of linguistic data (McEnery and Wilson, 2001: 70). The chi-square test "allows an estimation of whether the frequencies in a table differ significantly from each other. It allows the comparison of frequencies found experimentally with those expected on the basis of some theoretical model" (Oakes, 1998: 24). The chi-square test compares the values of the data proportionally where probability values (P) of 0.05 or less are assumed to be significant whereas those greater than 0.05 are not. Thus, the null hypothesis (H_0) in the present study is that any difference between the data presented by the students at each stage is due to chance, and therefore not significant. If the calculated value of the chi-square is less than or equal to the probability value of 0.05 and the difference is significant, the alternative hypothesis (H_1) is supported, which indicates that there is some reason other than chance behind the difference, which in the case of this study is most probably the training

¹⁰ The percentage difference calculator is available at: <http://www.calculatorsoup.com/calculators/algebra/percent-change-calculator.php> (last accessed on 13/4/2015)

¹¹ The standard deviation calculator is available at: <https://www.mathsisfun.com/data/standard-deviation-calculator.html> (last accessed on 24/04/2015)

¹² The chi-square test is available online at: <http://vassarstats.net/newcs.html> (last accessed on 20/4/2015)

followed by the students in the TS programme at UoB. Due to the different nature of the data collection methods, the conclusions in this study will be based on the results which are statistically significant whether they are in the forms or interviews.

5.2 The Participants' Profiles

All 12 participants (three male and nine female) belonged to the same age group (between 17-21) except for one student whose age was 29. Most of the participants (nine) who completed the translation task translated the text from English into their L1 (Chinese, Spanish, Greek, Arabic, and German) as English was their L2. However, three of the students translated the text into their L2 (French, Portuguese and Spanish) as English was their L1. Seven of these participants had been immersed in the culture of their L2 for some period, ranging between six months to four years. Although five of the students who were non-native speakers had been immersed in an English-speaking environment, which varied from seven months to four years, the other four students followed courses which attempted to familiarize them with English culture, as the interviews revealed. The majority of the participants' undergraduate degrees were in language subject areas (English Language, European Studies and International Relations, Arts, European Studies, French and Drama, English Literature, Modern Language Studies, German Language and Literature). Only one of the participants took an undergraduate degree in Translation while two others studied different degree programmes (Business Administration and Marketing and Finance). The interviews revealed that these two participants followed the Business Administration and Marketing and Finance courses in English. In terms of work experience, half of the students did not have any professional experience in translation. Six had some professional experience as translators. The interviews revealed that translation had not been the trainees' only source of income and that the students were only translating when a translation assignment was available. For example, four of them mentioned that they were not working in companies as translators but as, for example, assistants or administrators, translating when asked to do so. Most of the respondents had had no previous translation training and only four students had followed some courses in translation. The period of these courses ranged from a few months (one semester during an academic year) to four years (modules as part of their undergraduate degree). It is worth mentioning that the interviews revealed that the

translation training received by students was not similar to the one offered by the UoB. The training was either mainly based on practice or related to a specific language pair. This training did not provide students with any theoretical knowledge of translation, contrary to the MA in TS programme offered at UoB. It seems that the participants had many common characteristics: they had little/no translation experience, belonged to the same age group and were educated to BA level. On the other hand, these participants seem to have come from different cultural and linguistic backgrounds.

5.2.1 Trainee Translators Profile and the Number of Problems Identified

A brief description of the texts translated by the students is available in chapter four, section 4.1.3.1. Table 5.1 presents the codes assigned to the twelve respondents who took part in all the three stages of the study according to their native language and gender as well as the number, mean (M), and standard deviation (SD) of the problems identified by every student at each stage.

Table 5.1: The Participants' Codes, L1, L2 and the Number of Problems Identified							
<i>The participants' codes</i>	<i>L1</i>	<i>L2</i>	<i>The number of problems</i>			<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
			<i>1st stage</i>	<i>2nd stage</i>	<i>3rd stage</i>		
F1EL	Greek	English	8	6	6	6.66	0.94
F2ZH	Chinese	English	3	3	5	3.66	0.88
F3AR	Arabic	English	4	5	4	4.33	0.22
F4EL	Greek	English	2	2	3	2.33	0.22
F5ZH	Chinese	English	3	5	7	5	2.66
F6ZH	Chinese	English	5	7	5	5.66	0.94
F7PT	English	Portuguese	4	4	2	3.33	0.94
F8FR	English	French	6	5	6	5.66	0.47
F9ES	English	Spanish	5	6	6	5.66	0.47

M1ES	Spanish	English	1	2	2	1.66	0.47
M2DE	German	English	9	10	4	7.66	2.62
M3ZH	Chinese	English	3	3	2	2.66	0.47
<i>Total number of problems at each stage</i>			53	58	52		

After analyzing the students' profiles, it was evident that there are no obvious potential links observed that could serve as the basis for generating hypotheses. It was not easy to link the number of problems identified with the respondents' previous professional, linguistic or educational experience. This difficulty can be appreciated when comparing the number of problems of students who translated the text into the same language. For example, when looking at students who had translated the text into Chinese (F2ZH, F5ZH, F6ZH, M3ZH) at the first stage and who all had their undergraduate degrees in language related areas except for one (M3ZH), it seems that the number of problems encountered by these students is not related to their previous work experience or translation training: the two participants (F6ZH, M3ZH) with work experience and translation training identified a different number of problems. The number of problems identified does not seem to be related to having experience of the L2 culture, either, as the two students (F2ZH, M3ZH) who had such experience detected the same number of problems as their colleague (F5ZH) who did not have any experience in the culture of her L2. Although it may seem interesting that three of the students who translated the text into Chinese had identified the same number of problems, the problems themselves are different. For example, two words which student M3ZH had difficulty in translating were "needle" and "houses". Student M3ZH also had difficulty with the sentence "The Forge Mill Needle Museum tells the fascinating and sometimes gruesome story of needle making in Victorian times". On the other hand, student F5ZH had a problem with translating a phrase "Forge Mill Needle", a term "listed building" and an adjective "superb".

Looking at the students who translated the text into Greek (F1EL, F4EL) seems to indicate that the student with previous translation training (F4EL) had fewer problems than the student with no previous training (F1EL). The two students who translated the

text into Spanish (F9ES, M1ES) had similar profiles in terms of experience in the culture of their L2 but no translation training or work experience. However, the student who translated the text into his L1 (M1ES) encountered one problem which was actually a global problem at text level, while the student who translated the text into her L2 (F9ES) identified more problems. The reason could be that she is translating into her L2 and it is to be expected that she will face greater difficulty.

The data reveals that it is not easy to draw a pattern between these different variables and trainees' perceptions of translation problems. If we claim that translation training helped the student who translated into Greek (F4EL) to face fewer problems than her colleague (F1EL), this is not the case with the students who translated into Chinese, as these two students with previous translation training identified a different number of problems. Moreover, the students who had prior work experience and translated into Chinese (F6ZH, M3ZH) and Greek (F1EL, F4EL) identified a different number of problems. Additionally, although the two students who translated into Chinese and had had experience in the culture of their L2 (F2ZH, M1ZH) identified fewer problems than the one without such experience (F6ZH), these two students encountered the same number of problems as the other one (F5ZH) who had had no experience in her L2 culture. There is no discernible pattern in terms of the undergraduate degree taken, either, because the Chinese student who did not graduate from a language degree (F5ZH) has identified the same number of problems as those who graduated from language departments. It is possible therefore to conclude that translation training and/or translation experience is not in correlation with the number of problems identified.

It is worth noting that the number of problems is similar at each stage and that there is little variation in the number each student reported at each stage; in other words, the same students tended to report a similar number of problems independently of the stage or the text. So, for example, F1EL reported 8, 6 and 6 problems at the first, second and third stages respectively ($M = 6.66$, $SD = 0.94$); while M1ES reported 1, 2 and 2 problems respectively ($M = 1.66$, $SD = 0.47$). In most cases, the difference between the highest number of problems reported and the lowest, was 2. The exceptions were F5ZH, who increased the number of problems reported by two at each stage (3, 5 and 7) with $M = 5$ and $SD = 2.66$ and M2DE, who dropped significantly the number of problems reported at the last stage (9, 10 and 4) with $M = 7.66$ and $SD = 2.62$. This could suggest

that the level of difficulty and the perception of problems tend to be rather subjective. This also supports the findings of Gregorio Cano's study (2014), where the hypothesis that students about to complete their degree in TS are capable of recognising more translation problems than students beginning their degree is refuted.

5.3 The Trainee Translators' Perception of Translation Problems

The fact that the concept of 'translation problem' had not been defined and therefore the students' answers were subjective and very different from one another led to significant difficulties in terms of analysing the data in a systematic manner. Many students used different expressions to refer to the same types of problems. For example, several expressions were used to refer to terminology problems: "terminology" (F1EL); "vocabulary" (F7PT); and "lexis" (F5ZH). Many other expressions were employed by the students to describe cultural problems: "culture" (F5ZH); "how do I translate the title since there is no similar museum in TL?" (F1EL); and "there is no equivalent in the TL" (M2DE). Additionally, many translation problems were not also classified at all during the three stages.

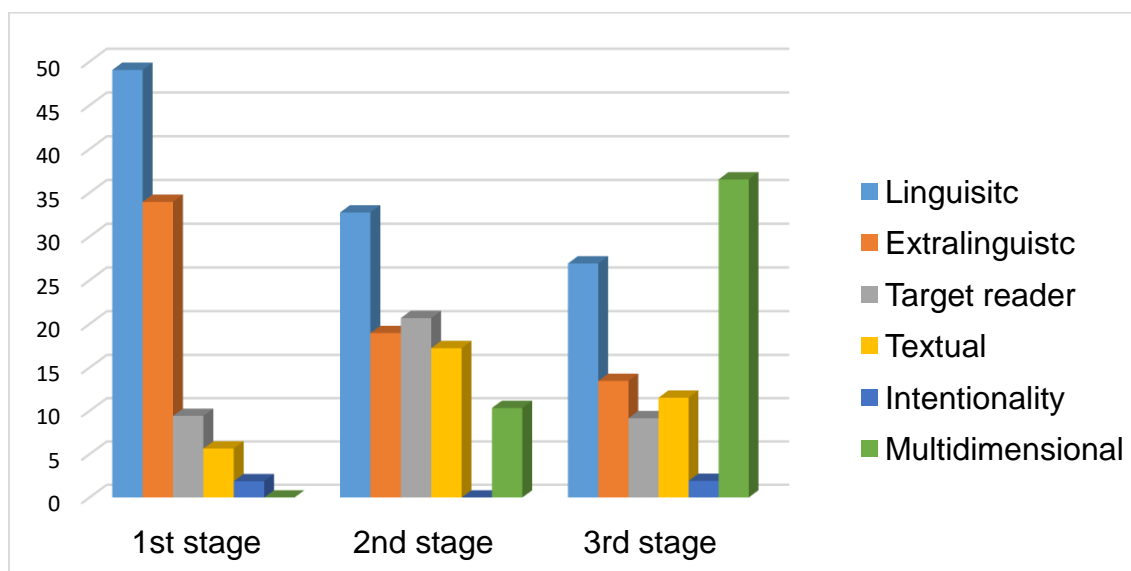
Finding that we were unable to derive a coherent typology from the students' answers, we attempted to interpret and classify the problems according to PACTE group's typology of the translation problems (2011: 327) (described above in chapter 2, section 2.4) and found that the correspondences between PACTE's categories and students' responses were sufficient to allow for a reasonably systematic description. Based on cognitive views, PACTE group (2011: 328) argues that "a translation problem exists when "automatised" solutions, i.e. spontaneous and immediate solutions, are not found for the source text segments in translation and different strategies are then put into effect to solve them." In their typology, PACTE group (2011: 327) divides translation problems into five main categories:

- Linguistic problems: lexis and morphosyntax, including problems of comprehension and re-expression.
- Textual: coherence, cohesion, text type, and style, involving problems of comprehension and re-expression.
- Extralinguistic: cultural, encyclopaedic and subject-domain knowledge.

- Problems of intentionality: comprehension problems related to intertextuality, speech acts, presuppositions and implicatures.
- Translation brief or target reader oriented problems: (TB and TR) problems related to the function which affects the reformulation of the text.

The different types of problems outlined by PACTE group seem to be interconnected which makes it difficult to find clear demarcation lines between them. However, the overall context of the data helped us to categorise the problems identified by the students. In addition, the problems which were perceived by the students as belonging to more than one category were classified as ‘multidimensional’ (see figure 5.1).

Figure 5.1: Translation problems as perceived by the students



See table 5.2 for the raw frequencies (RF) and percentages of the types of problems perceived by the students.

<i>Types of problems</i>	1 st stage		2 nd stage		3 rd stage	
	RF	Percentage	RF	Percentage	RF	Percentage
<i>Linguistic</i>	26	49.05%	19	32.75%	14	26.92%

<i>Extralinguistic</i>	18	33.96%	11	18.96%	7	13.46%
<i>Target reader</i>	5	9.43%	12	20.68%	5	9.16%
<i>Textual</i>	3	5.66%	10	17.24%	6	11.53%
<i>Intentionality</i>	1	1.88%	0	0	1	1.92%
<i>Multidimensional</i>	0	0	6	10.34%	19	36.53%
<i>Total</i>	53		58		52	

During the first stage, most of the problems identified by the students (49.05%, 26 problems) were described as linguistic. The students described problems in terms of re-expressing or comprehending certain lexical items or syntactic structures. It would seem that the students who took part in this research considered literal translation as a default strategy, and as a consequence every segment within the text was problematic if it could not be translated literally, as is the case in example, 5.1 where student F1EL encountered a problem translating the verb “stock” because she could not find a literal translation for this verb in Greek.

- Example 5.1: F1EL: “no verb equivalent [to stock] in [the] TL”.

The second most common category in the first stage was extralinguistic problems. 33.96% of the problems identified by the students (18 problems) were either cultural or related to the subject domain during the first stage of the type illustrated in example 5.2: student F2ZH encountered a subject-domain related problem while translating the text into Chinese.

- Example 5.2: F2ZH: “Lack of background knowledge, so quite hard to understand the context”

The third most common category during the first stage was the type of problem related to the target readers or translation brief. 9.43% of the problems identified by the students (five problems) were related to the target text reader or translation brief, as was the case in example 5.3. In example 5.3, student F1EL found a difficulty in translating the word

“queen” without adding a name such as ‘Elizabeth’ because she thought the text would not be clear to the Greek target audience.

- Example 5.3: F1EL: “Information missing for a foreign target group”

During the first stage 5.66% of the problems (three problems) encountered by the students were textual, i.e. related to text style, cohesion or coherence while 1.88% (one problem) was related to intentionality. In example 5.4, student M2DE explained the problem encountered with translating the sentence “models and recreated scenes provide a vivid illustration of how needles were once made and how Redditch came to dominate the world needle trade” literally into German as it would not have been stylistically correct. Student F6ZH (example 5.5) identified a problem related to the specific meaning of the word “needle” in the original text while translating into Chinese as she had a problem with comprehending the intended meaning by the word “needle” despite the fact that she knows the different translations of the same word.

- Example 5.4: M2DE: “‘How’ cannot be translated with German equivalent because of stylistic reasons”
- Example 5.5: F6ZH: “the specific meaning of ‘needle’ in this text”.

During the second stage, again most of the problems identified by the students were linguistic but there was nonetheless a decrease in terms of numbers assigned to this category: 32.75%, 19 problems. Problems attributed to the target text reader or translation brief became the second most common category (20.68%, 12 problems) with extralinguistic problems following closely afterwards (18.96%, 11 problems) and textual problems too: 17.24%, 10 problems. It is worth mentioning that a new category; multidimensional problems, seemed to have appeared for the first time during the second stage where the students tended to perceive problems from more than one perspective, while no problems were perceived as being multidimensional during the first stage. During this stage, 10.34% (six problems) were perceived as being multidimensional. The types of multidimensional problems identified by the students were linguistic and extralinguistic; linguistic and textual or linguistic and related to the function of the text, as in example 5.6. In example 5.6, student F1EL encountered a problem in translating

“English heritage”, an English organization for protecting historic sites, which she perceived as being extralinguistic (cultural) and related to the target text reader:

- Example 5.6: F1EL: “there is no exact equivalent in Greek. The target audience does not have the same background as the source audience”.

During the third stage, most of the problems identified by the students were multidimensional rather than linguistic as was the case during the first and second stages: 36.53%, 19 problems. These multidimensional problems were either linguistic and extralinguistic; linguistic and textual or linguistic and related to intentionality. Linguistic problems became the second most common category in the third stage: 26.92%, 14 problems. The third most common category was extralinguistic problems (13.46%, seven problems) with textual (11.53%, six problems) and the target text reader or brief- related problems (9.16%, five problems) following closely afterwards. Thus, there was a decrease in terms of numbers assigned to the categories of the linguistic, extralinguistic, textual and target text reader and brief problems in favour of the multidimensional problems during the third stage in comparison with the second stage. Similar to the first stage, one problem of intentionality (1.92%) was identified during the third stage.

A comparison of the three stages of data analysis indicates that although the majority of problems were linguistic at the second stage, the number of linguistic problems decreased by 16.3 percentage points during this stage in comparison with the first stage (33.23%). This number further decreased by 5.83 percentage points during the third stage in comparison with the second stage (17.8%). The chi-square test indicates that the difference between the number of problems perceived as being linguistic by the students across the three stages is statistically significant $\{x^2 = 6.03, df = 2, P = 0.049\}$. In terms of problems perceived as being extralinguistic, the comparison also indicates that this type of problem decreased by 15 percentage points during the second stage (44.16%), only to further decrease by 5.5 percentage points during the third stage in comparison with the second stage (29%). The chi-square test indicates that the difference between the number of problems perceived as being extralinguistic by the students across the three stages is statistically significant $\{x^2 = 6.92, df = 2, P = 0.0314\}$. Thus, the results of the chi-square support the H_1 and indicate that the difference in the data is not due to chance. This suggests that the students begin to perceive translation problems from

different perspectives rather than merely from a linguistic or extralinguistic point of view, while following the translation training programme.

Table 5.2 indicates that the number of problems related to the target text readers or brief increased by 11.25 percentage points during the second stage (119.3%), only to decrease by 11.52 percentage points by the end of the programme in comparison with the second stage (55.7%). The chi-square test indicates that the difference between the number of problems related to the translation brief or target text across the three stages of data analysis is not statistically significant $\{x^2 = 3.99, df = 2, P = 0.136\}$. Similarly, the number of textual problems increased by 11.58 percentage points during the second stage (204.59%), only to decrease by 5.71 percentage points by the end of the programme in comparison with the second stage (33.12%). The chi-square test indicates that the difference between the number of problems perceived as being textual by the students across the three stages of data analysis is not statistically significant $\{x^2 = 3.61, df = 2, P = 0.1645\}$. Therefore, the results do not allow us to reject the H_0 and suggest that the variation in the data could be due to chance.

The comparison of the three stages of data analysis also indicates that the number of multidimensional problems which seems to have first appeared during the second stage increased by 26.19 percentage points during the third stage in comparison with the second stage (253.28%). The chi-square test indicates that the difference between the number of problems perceived as being multidimensional by the students between the second and third stages is statistically significant $\{x^2 = 9.27, df = 1, P = 0.0023\}$. Thus, the result of the chi-square supports the H_1 that there is a relationship between the data and the training followed by the students in the MA in the TS programme at UoB. Although the hypothesis that students about to complete their degree are able to recognise and differentiate between different translation problems better than students beginning their degree in Gregorio Cano's study (2014) is neither confirmed nor refuted, the findings of the present study could allow us to hypothesise that the students' perception of the concept of translation problems changes from being unidimensional, either linguistic or extralinguistic, into being multidimensional while following the translation training programme. This could also indicate that the students began to look at translation problems from more than one angle after following the MA in TS at UoB. It is worth noting that the same patterns of development probably would not have been observed if

the students were provided with a set of classification of problems to draw on. However, the fact that they were not given such typology and hence the students were less constrained allowed us to obtain more reliable data in relation to the changes in the students' perception of translation problems.

5.4 Information Sources Used by the Trainee Translators

As explained in Chapter four, the options given to students in terms of types of information sources were: hard-copy documents, electronic sources and human sources (Gile, 2009: 131). Table 5.3 presents the types of the information sources as used by the students.

Table 5.3: Information Resources Used by the Students								
Information sources	Only dictionary		Electronic resources + dictionaries		Electronic resources		No information resources	
<i>Number of students</i>	RF	Percentage	RF	Percentage	RF	Percentage	RF	Percentage
<i>1st stage</i>	1	8.33%	7	58.33%	2	16.66%	2	16.66%
<i>2nd stage</i>	2	16.66%	6	50%	2	16.66%	2	16.66%
<i>3rd stage</i>	1	8.33%	6	50%	5	41.66%	0	0
<i>Total number of students</i>					12			

During the first stage, only one student (M1ES) mentioned that he relied merely on dictionaries (8.33%) while seven others (F1EL, F2ZH, F6ZH, F7PT, F8FR, F9ES, M2DE) said that they used other electronic resources (58.33%), such as Google search, Wikipedia and websites related to the places mentioned in the brochures in addition to their use of dictionaries. Only two students did not mention the use of dictionaries (16.66%), using instead Google and Wikipedia (F5ZH) or the museum website (F3AR). Two participants (F4EL, M3DE) either did not use any information sources or failed to mention any information sources (16.66%). It is interesting to note that the students used a wide range of resources at this early stage of their training. The results suggest that the

observation made by Chesterman (1997) that trainee translators rely more on bilingual dictionaries than professional translators and less on reference resources, such as Wikipedia and specialist publications in different domains may no longer be valid, given the wider accessibility and dependence on the World Wide Web.

During the second stage, two students (F3AR, M2DE) mentioned that they depended only on dictionaries (16.66%) while six others (F5ZH, F6ZH, F7PT, F8FR, F9ES, M1ES) mentioned that they used dictionaries as well as other electronic resources (50%). Only two students (F1EL, F2ZH) did not mention the use of any dictionaries (16.66%), using instead different types of electronic resources such as Google and the website of the brochure of the text, while another two students (F4EL, M3ZH) failed to mention any information sources used (16.66%). It is worth noting that one of the students (F8FR) used the lectures notes to help her solve a problem she encountered in relation to the space available on the leaflet as the text will be longer when translated into French. This could indicate that the lectures received during the term while following the translation training programme could have helped the trainee translators while translating.

During the third stage, towards the end of the programme, only one student (M1ES) depended solely on dictionaries (8.33%) while the other six students (F1EL, F2ZH, F4EL, F5ZH, F6ZH, F7PT) mentioned that they used other electronic sources in addition to dictionaries (50%). Five other students (F3AR, F8PT, F9ES, M2DE, M3ZH) did not mention the use of dictionaries, depending on other electronic sources of information (41.66%). It is also worth mentioning that one of these students (F9ES) used an online forum to discuss her solution of one of the problems she encountered with other translators and the interviews revealed that she also used Google images, as suggested in one of her lectures to solve another translation problem. There is an increase in terms of the proportion of students who used electronic resources by 25 percentage points (150.06%) by the end of the year in comparison with the beginning of the programme, but the chi-square test indicates that the difference between the number of students using electronic resources across the three stages is not statistically significant $\{x^2 = 2.67, df = 2, P = 0.2632\}$. This suggests that H_0 cannot be rejected and the difference in the data could be due to chance in relation to the types of information sources used by trainee translators.

5.5 Translation Strategies as Perceived by the Trainee Translators

Despite the fact that a definition for textual translation strategies as “the way you manipulate the linguistic material in the text in order to produce an appropriate target text, such as literal translation or information change, etc.”, following Chesterman’s definition of translation strategies (2000: 87-116), was given to the students, the trainee translators also seemed to have perceived the concept of ‘translation strategy’ different from each other. They either referred to the procedures they took to solve translation problems: e.g. “*looked it up in an online dictionary*” or described translation strategies differently, for example: many students used terms such as *insertion* and *descriptive phrase* to refer to the term used by Chesterman: ‘*addition of information*’. Additionally, many other students did not describe the strategies they used during the three stages, as seen in table 5.4:

Table 5.4: The RF and Percentage of Translation Strategies Used by the Students with No Associated Description						
	1 st stage		2 nd stage		3 rd stage	
	RF	Percentage	RF	Percentage	RF	Percentage
Number of problems with no associated description	25	47.16%	10	17.24%	5	9.61%
Total number of problems	53		58		52	
Number of students	8		4		4	
Total number of students	12					

During the first stage, eight students (F1EL, F2ZH, F3AR, F6ZH, F7PT, F9ES, M2DE, M3ZH) did not specify strategies for 25 problems (47.16%). At the second stage, fewer students (four) did not mention the strategies applied to solve 10 problems (17.24%): F1EL, F2ZH, F3AR, F6ZH. During the third stage, again four students (F2EL, F3AR, F4ZH, M2DE) failed to mention the strategies, but in this case the number of problems was lower (five, 9.61%). It is interesting to note that the number of problems with no associated description of strategies decreased by 29.92 percentage points during the second stage (63.44%) and 37.55 percentage points during the third stage in comparison with the first stage (79.62%). The chi-square test indicates that the difference between the number of problems with no associated description of strategies across the three stages is

statistically significant $\{x^2 = 22.58, df = 2, P = <.0001\}$. This supports the H_1 and therefore could indicate that the translation training programme helps trainee translators to improve their ability to describe translation strategies.

The students were not provided with a pre-prepared list of strategies; however, the strategies that had been used by the students were classified according to one set of criteria, which is offered by Chesterman's (2000). Chesterman's (2000) model was selected since it concentrates on textual translation strategies which are the focus of this study and offers an extensive and detailed overview of the strategies used by professional translators while translating, as previously discussed in chapter four, section 4.1.3.2. Chesterman (2000: 93-112) classifies textual translation strategies into three major categories: syntactic (which are used to manipulate the form), semantic (which manipulate the meaning) and pragmatic strategies (which manipulate the information offered in the text), which included sub-categories discussed in chapter two, section 2.5, as table 5.5 illustrates:

Table 5.5: The RF and Percentage of Translation Strategies Used by the Students						
<i>Translation Strategies</i>	<i>1st stage</i>		<i>2nd stage</i>		<i>3rd stage</i>	
	RF	Percentage	RF	Percentage	RF	Percentage
<i>Pragmatic</i>	22	41.50%	22	37.93%	21	40.38%
<i>Semantic</i>	7	13.20%	7	12.06%	9	17.30%
<i>Syntactic</i>	13	24.52%	22	37.93%	19	36.53%
<i>Multi-strategies</i>	2	3.77%	6	10.34%	2	3.84%
<i>No strategy</i>	9	16.98%	1	1.72%	1	1.92%
<i>Total</i>	53		58		52	

During the first stage, the majority of strategies applied (22, 41.50%), used by nine students, were classified as pragmatic. This included the following strategies: information change (omission and addition), explicitness change (explicitness), cultural filtering (domestication), interpersonal change (register change), partial translation (transliteration) and addition. For example, student F5ZH explained the term “listed building” because there is no equivalent term into Chinese.

- Example 5.7: F5ZH: “I gave explanation. Listed building is a historical building and most preserved to not do anything to it”.

The second most common type of strategies used by the students during the first stage was the syntactic; six students used 13 syntactic strategies (24.52%), including sentence structure change, loan (borrowing), literal translation and transposition (changing an adjective into a phrase). In example 5.8, student F6ZH encountered a problem with translating the sentence “the Mill is a listed building which houses original water powered machinery” into Chinese as it contains a lot of information and therefore, as she explained, she had to divide it into two sentences.

- Example 5.8: F6ZH: “Adjust the sentence structure according to the habit of target language”.

In terms of semantic strategies, five students (F7PT, F8FR, F9ES, M2DE, M3ZH) used seven semantic strategies (13.20%) during the first stage which included the use of synonyms and paraphrasing. In example 5.9, student M2DE paraphrased the sentence “the site has an attractive and well-equipped play area for younger visitors, including an extensive sandpit” into German as literal translation did not convey the same message as he explained.

- Example 5.9: M2DE: “look for paraphrases”.

Unlike the first stage, the majority of strategies used by the students during the second stage were pragmatic and syntactic: 22 pragmatic strategies (37.93%) were used by 10 students, and nine students employed 22 syntactic strategies (37.93%). Similar to the second stage, most strategies used by the students during the third stage were also pragmatic and syntactic. 21 pragmatic strategies (40.38%) were used by 11 students while eight students used 19 syntactic strategies (36.53%).

The same number of semantic strategies (seven, 12.06%) was used during the second stage as in the first stage, with nonetheless a difference in the number of students using this type of strategies: during the third stage, more semantic strategies (nine) were used (17.30%) by fewer students (four) in comparison with the first and second stages, where seven strategies were used by five trainees in the middle of the year. In some cases, the students applied many strategies simultaneously, as in the first stage, where one

student (F8FR) used borrowing and explicitness while another (M1ES) applied literal translation and paraphrase to solve the translation problems they faced (3.77%). In example 5.10, student F8FR left the name of the museum (The Forge Mill needle museum) in English (borrowing) and added an explanation in order to clarify it to the reader.

- Example 5.10: F8FR: “Leave in English” and “give a brief explanation of what the museum is based on”

During the second stage, three students applied two strategies simultaneously to solve six of the problems they encountered (10.34%): one student (F8FR) used sentence structure and omission, another (F9ES) used interpersonal change and transposition while the third student (F6ZH) applied sentence structure and illocutionary change to solve a problem. Similarly, two students used multi-strategies simultaneously during the third stage (3.84%): one student (F2ZH) used sentence structure and explicitness while another (M2DE) applied cultural filtering, omission and literal translation. In brief, it is evident that there was no certain type of strategies prevailing over others throughout the academic year.

In terms of the development over time, the number of pragmatic strategies decreased by 3.57 percentage points during the second stage (8.6%), while it increased by 2.45 percentage points during the third stage in comparison with the second stage (6.45%). The chi-square indicates that the difference in the number of pragmatic strategies across the three stages is not statistically significant $\{\chi^2 = 0.16, df = 2, P = 0.9231\}$. The number of semantic strategies also decreased by 1.14 percentage point during the second stage (8.63%), only to increase by 5.24 percentage points during the third stage in comparison with the second stage (43.44%). The chi-square test indicates that the difference in the number of semantic strategies across the three stages of data analysis is not statistically significant $\{\chi^2 = 0.67, df = 2, P = 0.7153\}$. Additionally, the number of syntactic strategies used by the students increased by 13.41 percentage points during the second stage (54.69%), while decreased by 1.4 percentage point by the end of the academic year in comparison with the second stage (3.69%). The increased use of syntactic strategies between the first and second stages could suggest that students feel more comfortable manipulating the form of the text as they are introduced to Translation

Theory; however, the chi-square indicates that the difference in the number of syntactic strategies across the three stages is not statistically significant $\{\chi^2 = 2.65, df = 2, P = 0.2658\}$, so this remains an unconfirmed hypothesis.

Moreover, an increase can be seen in the use of multi-strategies during the second stage as this number increased by 6.57 percentage points (174.27%) compared to the first stage although this number decreased again during the third stage in comparison with the second stage (6.5 percentage points, 62.86%). The chi-square indicates that the difference in the number of multi-strategies across the three stages of data analysis is not statistically significant $\{\chi^2 = 2.77, df = 2, P = 0.2503\}$. Thus, the results of the statistical test do not permit the rejection of the H_0 and indicate that the variation in data could be due to chance in relation to the types of translation strategies applied by trainee translators to solve translation problems.

During the first stage, no strategies were applied for nine problems by four students (F1EL, F2ZH, F3AR, F6ZH) who did not offer any solutions. However, this number dropped during the second and third stages as only one student (F2ZH) did not describe any strategy for one problem at each stage as she did not find a solution. The comparison of the percentages of the three stages of data analysis indicates that the number of problems with no strategies decreased by 15.26 percentage points during the second stage (89.87%), only to remain stable by the end of the year in comparison with the second stage. The chi-square test indicates that the difference in the number of problems with no strategy applied across the three stages is statistically significant $\{\chi^2 = 13.07, df = 2, P = 0.0015\}$. This supports the H_1 and would allow us to hypothesise that there is a development in the participant students' ability to apply translation strategies after following the translation training programme.

5.6 Justification for Translation Decisions Offered by the Trainee Translators

The students explained their justifications in many ways and the variety in the language used necessitated classifying their answers into one defined set of criteria; a necessity so as to make sense of the data. While attempting to classify their justification, it was clearly noticeable that the justification of the strategies applied by the students reflected certain translation norms discussed in the literature. For example, student F1LE justified

translating ‘Experience the sights, smells and tastes of the place where chocolate really comes to life’ into ‘you will live an experience with all your sensations there where chocolate comes to life’ in Greek, saying:

- Example 5.11: F1EL: “I decided to paraphrase for stylistically reasons. In this way the target text fulfils its purpose”

Adherence to stylistic conventions and consideration of the purpose of the text are strategies commonly discussed in terms of ‘norms’ in the literature.

There are several models for the study of norms in translation. We chose Chesterman’s model because it focuses on the textual norms which guide translators’ work after the translation task has been commissioned. Translation norms preceding the process, such as norms related to publishing policy in a given culture which were extensively discussed by Toury (1995/2012), are not considered. In Chesterman’s model, the norms which explain the translators’ acts can be divided into four main categories (2000: 76-77):

- a) The expectancy norms which are related to target language acceptability and appropriateness norms.
- b) The communication norms which refer to achieving clarity and readability while producing the target text.
- c) The relation norms which govern the relation between the source and target text as in trying to retain the same meaning or function of the source text.
- d) The accountability norms which are related to ethical principles translators should respect.

The justifications presented by the students were interpreted and classified according to these norms in addition to three other categories: ‘combined norms’, ‘unsuccessful justification’ and ‘no justification’ which were added in order to reflect the data provided by the students, as figure 5.2 indicates. When more than one norm was reflected in the participants’ answers, their answers were classified under ‘combined norms’. ‘Unsuccessful justification’ groups the answers of those who failed to provide a

justification and offered instead responses such as “[I] have not found a solution” (F6ZH), while ‘no justification’ refers to the problems for which the students provided no justification at all.

Figure 5.2: Justification of translation problems by the students

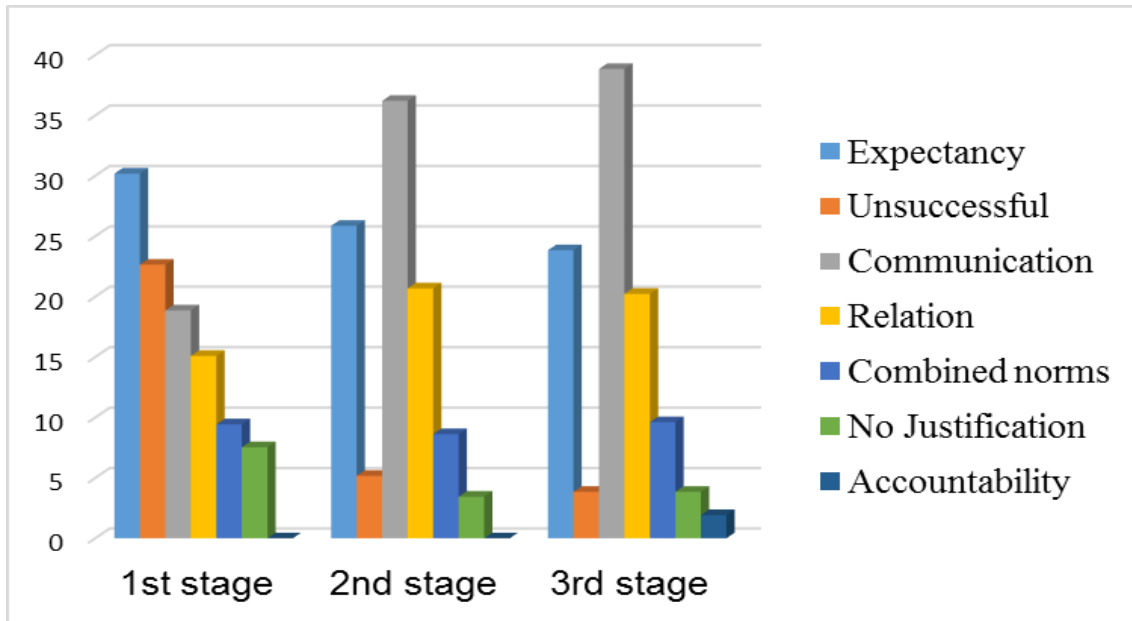


Table 5.6 offers an over view of the raw frequencies and percentages of the justifications of translation problems as presented by the students.

<i>Types of norms</i>	<i>1st stage</i>		<i>2nd stage</i>		<i>3rd stage</i>	
	RF	Percentage	RF	Percentage	RF	Percentage
<i>Expectancy</i>	16	30.18%	15	25.86%	16	30.76%
<i>Unsuccessful</i>	10	18.86%	3	5.17%	2	3.84%
<i>Communication</i>	10	18.86%	21	36.2%	20	38.46%
<i>Relation</i>	8	15.09%	12	20.68%	8	15.38%
<i>Combined norms</i>	5	9.43%	5	8.62%	4	7.69%
<i>No justification</i>	4	7.54%	2	3.44%	1	1.92%
<i>Accountability</i>	0	0	0	0	1	1.92%
<i>Total number</i>	53		58		52	

During the first stage, most of the students' answers (30.18%, 16 problems) were related to the expectancy norms regarding the grammaticality and acceptability habits and rules of the target language. For example, whilst translating into Chinese (example 5.11), student F6ZH explained that she divided the sentence "the Mill is a listed building which houses original water powered machinery" into two sentences in order to follow the habits of the target language.

- Example 5.12: F6ZH: "adjust the sentence structure according to the habits of target language".

It is evident at this stage that the expectancy norm prevailed over the other types of norms which could be related to the trainee translators' perception of translation problems at this stage as being mainly linguistic, which was consequently reflected in the justification of the translation strategies used to solve these problems. The second most common norm was the communication norm; 18.86% of the problems justified (10 problems) reflected the communication norm where students tried to make the target text more readable or avoid redundancy and follow the maxims of relevance, quantity and quality. For example, student F1EL stated that she changed the structure of the title "the Forge Mille" to make it easier for the target reader to interpret the meaning.

- Example 5.13: F1EL: "easier for the reader to understand what kind of museum it is".

During the second stage, the most common category was the communication norm rather than the expectancy norm as was the case during the first stage; 36.2% of the problems justified reflect the communication norm (21 problems) while 25.86% of the students' answers (15 problems) were related to the expectancy norms. During the third stage, the most common category was again the communication norm: 38.46% of the problems justified reflected the communication norm (20 problems) while 30.76% of the students' answers were related to the expectancy norms (16 problems).

Comparing the percentages of three stages of data analysis indicates that the proportion of problems justified according to the expectancy norm decreased by 4.32

percentage points during the second stage (14.31%) in comparison with the first stage, and then increased by 4.9 percentage points during the third stage in comparison with the second stage (18.94%). The chi-square test indicates that the difference between the number of problems justified in terms of the expectancy norm across the three stages is not statistically significant $\{x^2 = 0.39, df = 2, P = 0.8228\}$. This suggests that the H_0 cannot be rejected and the variation in the number of problems justified by trainee translators according to the expectancy norm could be due to chance. However, comparing the percentages of three stages of data analysis indicates that the number of problems justified according to the communication norm increased by 17.34 percentage points during the second stage (91.94%) in comparison with the first stage, to further increase by 2.26 percentage points during the third stage in comparison with the second stage (6.24%). The chi-square test indicates that the difference between the number of problems justified in terms of the communication norm across the three stages is statistically significant, albeit marginally $\{x^2 = 5.7, df = 2, P = 0.0578\}$. This supports the H_1 and indicates that the variation is not due to chance. The increase in the number of justifications in terms of the communication norms towards the end of the programme suggests that students were increasingly focused on producing a coherent and clear target text. It is easy to see why students following the MA in TS may have led to this result, particularly considering the fact that they were exposed to theories that encourage students to prioritise a functional approach instead of one based on linguistic equivalence. House's typology of translation (1997), for example, argues that translating tourist brochures should be covert (as opposed to 'overt') in order to produce a text which sounds natural to the target text reader and consequently achieves the same function as the source text. This would allow us to hypothesise that the students seem to adapt the way they justify their decisions after following the translation training programme.

In terms of the relation norm, 15.09% of the problems identified by the students during the first stage were justified in terms of the relation norms; maintaining the relation with the source text; either to retain the same meaning or function of the source text (eight problems). For example (5.14), student M2DE explained that he needed to add more information to the phrase "attractive and well equipped area" in order to convey the same idea mentioned in the source text while translating into German.

- Example 5.14: M2DE: “to explain the idea, some additional information was included into the TL sentence. Thus extending the TL text”.

More problems were justified by the students in order to conform to the relation norm during the second stage than the first stage: 12 problems, 20.68%. The percentage and number of problems identified in terms of the relation norms during the third stage was the same as the percentage and number assigned to this category during the first stage: eight problems, 15.38%. Comparing the number of problems identified according to the relation norm increased by 5.59 percentage points during the second stage (37.04%), only to increase by 5.3 percentage points by the end of the programme in comparison with the second stage (25.62%). The chi-square test indicates that the difference between the number of problems justified according to the relation norm across the three stages is not statistically significant $\{x^2 = 0.78, df = 2, P = 0.6771\}$, thus the H_0 cannot be rejected and the variation in the data could be due to chance in relation to the number of problems justified by trainee translators according to the relation norm.

In some cases, the answers provided by the students reflected more than one norm; 9.43% of the problems identified during the first stage (five problems) were justified in terms of conforming to two norms simultaneously. For example, student F8FR explained why she kept the name “Foley” in the phrase “the marble Foley monument” in English while translating into French by stating that it is a name and names in similar translations are kept in English. She also justified the addition of inverted commas to this name to clarify that it is a name to the target audience. In her justification, student F8FR followed the expectancy and communication norms, attempting to translate the name according to the expectancy rules of the target language and simultaneously clarify it to the target audience.

- Example 5.15: F8FR: “Foley is the name of the monument and so should be kept in its English form as is the case with the rest of translations”. “The addition of the inverted commas clarifies that it is the name of the monument that may otherwise have been unclear to a French audience”.

Similar to the first stage, some of the justification provided by the students reflected more than one norm during the second and third stages. 8.62% of the problems identified during the second stage (five problems) were justified in terms of conforming to two norms simultaneously while 7.69% of the problems (four problems) were justified in terms of conforming to two norms during the third stage. The percentage of justifications which reflected more than one norm remained stable throughout the academic year, and the chi-square test indicates that the difference across the three stages of data analysis is not statistically significant $\{\chi^2 = 0.1, df = 2, P = 0.9512\}$. Thus, similar to the pattern of development of the relation norm, the result of the statistical test does not allow us to reject the H_0 and indicates that the variation in the number of problems justified by trainee translators according to more than one norm could be due to chance.

Unlike the first and second stages, the accountability norm was reflected during the third stage only in the answer of one student (F9ES) who tried to conform to ethical principles, consulting professional translators on the translation of the word “court” in the title “Witley Court” into Spanish:

- Example 5.16: F9ES: “I did not know whether to leave it in English and pretend it is the proper name for it or whether to translate it and then to have it identified by what it was so that was the problem so I basically went on the forum to ask advice”.

The scarce mention of the accountability norm could possibly be because they are trainees not working in a professional environment, thus less inclined to consider their role in a professional context, added to their awareness of the fact that they were part of a study.

The students did not offer a successful justification for 18.86% of the problems identified (10 problems) while 7.54% of the problems (four problems) did not have any justification during the first stage. The students who failed to offer a successful justification mentioned that they could not find an equivalent because of their level of language proficiency and therefore applied another strategy to solve six problems or that they guessed how to solve four problems. For example, student M3ZH justified his decision for translating the verb “house” into Chinese as “be equipped with” by expressing dissatisfaction with the solutions he offered rather than stating the reason for translating this verb in this particular way.

- Example 5.17: M3ZH: “maybe not accurate enough”.

Unlike the first stage, the number of unsuccessful justifications and problems with no justifications dropped during the second and third stages; the students did not offer successful justifications for 5.17% of the problems (three problems) during the second stage while no justification was offered for two problems (3.44%). During the third stage, the students did not offer successful justifications for 3.84% of the problems identified (two problems) while 1.92% of the problems (one problem) did not have any justification. Comparing the number of problems with no justifications across the three stages indicates that this number dropped by 4.1 percentage points during the second stage (54.37%), to further decrease by 1.52 percentage point towards the end of the year in comparison with the second stage (44.18%). However, despite this drop in the number of problems with no justification, the chi-square test indicates that the difference is not statistically significant, which supports the H_0 and suggests that the variation could be due to chance $\{x^2 = 2.18, df = 2, P = 0.3362\}$. This indicates that the H_0 cannot be rejected in terms of the trainee translators' ability to describe their justifications for the strategies used to solve translation problems. Similarly, the number of unsuccessful justifications dropped by 13.69 percentage points during the second stage (72.58%), to further decrease by 1.33 percentage point towards the end of the year (25.72%). Unlike problems with no justification, the drop in the number of unsuccessful justifications is statistically significant $\{x^2 = 8.84, df = 2, P = 0.012\}$, which supports the H_1 and could allow us to hypothesise that the students develop their ability to justify their decisions after following the translation training programme.

At this stage, it is possible to summarise the more significant changes in the students' patterns of developments through the academic year. It would appear that the effect of the translation training can be perceived in the multidimensional nature of the explanation of problems and the tendency to focus on the text's communicative function as students progress. It seems also that there is sufficient basis to present a tentative hypothesis, whereby students started to focus on linguistic equivalence and when confronted to translation theory and the analysis of translations, they start to pay more attention to how the target text reads on its own right, which is reflected in their focus on the communicative norm. It also seems that this change occurs in the first few months of

the programme, remaining stable after that. This suggests that the most significant development occurs in the first months, and this development is then consolidated throughout the following months.

5.7 The Language Used by the Trainee Translators

The language of the students was examined in order to look at the most frequently used words to see if there was a relation between the students' lexical choices and the theoretical literature they had been exposed to at the UoB. In particular, attention was paid to the use of theoretical terms and jargon. The concordance tool provided by the qualitative data analysis computer software (Nvivo 10) produced by QSR International was used. This software is part of the Computer-Assisted Qualitative Data Analysis (CAQDAS) Networking Project that is based at the University of Surrey¹³. This concordance tool allowed us to sort words according to their frequency of occurrence and to study them in their context.

5.7.1 The Language Used by the Trainee Translators in the Forms

Using the list of words created by Nvivo from analysing the language produced by the students in the forms, we manually selected those that we considered to be linked with the theories discussed throughout the TS programme at UoB, thus producing the list found in table 5.7. One of the problems encountered while forming this list was deciding whether certain vocabulary is related to translation theory or not. For example, student M2DE used the word 'distortion' while justifying the translation of the verbs 'discover' and 'uncover' from the source texts into German:

- Example 5.18: M2DE: "Two words are similar and could be translated with the same word in German, however, out of stylistic reasons I had to use a different word in the third sentence ... There is a slight distortion of the meaning in German"

¹³ Information about the CAQDAS Networking Project is available at: <http://www.surrey.ac.uk/sociology/research/researchcentres/caqdas/> (last accessed on 15/4/2015)

It was difficult to decide whether such a word reflects some concepts in translation such as the idea of gain and loss in translation discussed by Baker (1992). However, in order to avoid any vagueness and subjectivity, only vocabulary which had direct link to translation theories were selected and thus words such as ‘distortion’ was not included in the list.

In addition, students used different forms of the same lemma as it is clear in examples 5.19 and 5.20:

- Example 5.19: F4EL: “We do not have an *equivalent* or exact word for Gift Shop”
- Example 5.20: M3ZH: ‘lack of *equivalence* in Chinese’

Student F4EL (example 5.19) used the adjective ‘equivalent’ while explaining her problem with translating ‘gift shop’ into Greek meanwhile student M3ZH used the noun ‘equivalence’ in his explanation of the problem he encountered in translating the word ‘reredos’ into Chinese. Different forms of the same lemma were included under the same entry.

No statistical test was applied for each term in this section due to the small proportions represented by the words analysed in relation to the total number of words; this would make the statistical results unreliable and not capture important patterns. Thus, only a comparison of the percentages was carried out in order to discuss any observations and the chi-square was applied only to the total number of words.

Table 5.7: The Frequency of Words Used by the Students in the Forms						
Keywords	1st stage		2nd stage		3rd stage	
	RF	Percentage	NF	Percentage	NF	Percentage
Total number of words	1385		2281		2874	
Equivalen*	26	1.87%	37	1.62%	45	1.56%
Context*	24	1.73%	31	1.35%	43	1.49%
Cultur*	6	0.43%	14	0.61%	31	1.07%
Target	14	1.01%	25	1.09%	40	1.39%
Product	0	0	7	0.3%	7	0.24%
Audience	0	0	5	0.21%	16	0.55%
Reader*	8	0.57%	14	0.61%	18	0.62%

Natural*	6	0.43%	15	0.65%	22	0.76%
Serve*	0	0	2	0.08%	2	0.06%
Function*	0	0	3	0.13%	4	0.13%
Purpose	0	0	2	0.08%	2	0.06%
Affect*	0	0	2	0.08%	2	0.06%
Synonym*	0	0	4	0.17%	7	0.24%
Transliteration*	0	0	3	0.13%	3	0.1%
Explanat*, explain*, and explicative	18	1.29%	28	1.22%	48	1.67%
Foreignisation	4	0.28%	2	0.08%	8	0.27%
Domestication	2	0.14%	3	0.13%	8	0.27%
Compensat*	2	0.14%	4	0.17%	7	0.24%
Loyal	0	0	1	0.04%	1	0.03%
Total number	110	7.94%	202	8.85%	314	10.92%

During the first stage, the students used the words “equivalence” and “equivalent” {frequency = 26} to refer mainly to literal translation despite the fact that this term can have many different meanings (see Catford: 1965 and Nida: 1964), as was the case in example 5.21. In example 5.21, student F1EL was explaining the problem she encountered in translating the verb “house” into Greek by stating that there is no literal equivalent for this verb so substituting it with “have”:

- Example 5.21: F1EL: “No verb *equivalent* in TL”

The students further used the terms “equivalent” and “equivalence” in the middle and during the end of the academic year (frequency = 37, 45 respectively) which decreased by 13.36% during the second stage, only to further decrease by 3.7% during the third stage but the use of the term was not restricted to literal translation, as was the case in example 5.22. In example 5.22, student F4EL explained the reason for encountering a problem in translating the word “Cadbury” by stating that they do not have this brand in Greek.

- Example 5.22: F4EL: “No *equivalence* for the word Cadbury”

During the first stage, the students mentioned the words “context” and “culture” (frequency = 24, 6). The frequency of these words increased during the second (frequency= 31, 14) and third stages (frequency= 43, 31). The percentage of words such as “context” and “contextual” decreased by 21.96% in the middle of the programme, only to increase again by 10.37% towards the end of the programme. Similarly, the percentage of words such as “culture” and “cultural” increased by 41.86% during the second stage and 75.4% during the third stage in comparison with the second stage. This could be the effect of many translation theories offered in the TS programme which emphasised the significance of contextual factors in translation (see Hatim and Mason: 1997), as well as the role of cultural awareness in translation. In example 5.23, student M2DE described the strategy he used to translate the term “listed building” into German by focusing on the context of the text.

- Example 5.23: M2DE: “Translate terms with double/ multiple meaning or translation possibilities according to the *context*”

The frequencies of words such as “target”, whether it refers to text or readers, “product”, “audience” and “reader”, increased thorough the year. The use of the word “target” increased by 7.92% in the middle of the programme and 37.62% by the end of the academic year in comparison with the beginning of the programme. Similarly, the use of words such as “reader” or “readership” increased by 7.01% during the second stage and by 8.77% during the third stage in comparison with the first stage. At the second stage, the students started to use the words “product” and “audience”, which increased by 20% and 161.9% respectively during the third stage. This could be drawn from different theories offered in the programme, such as Gutt’s relevance theory (2000) which insists on producing a target text that can be relevant to the target audience (see example 5.24). In example 5.24, student F8FR added the word “city” to the name “Redditch” to clarify it to the target reader.

- Example 5.24: F8FR: “Makes it clearer to the *target* audience”

The more frequent references to reader, readership and audience, as well as the use of ‘product’ to refer to the translation could potentially reflect an increased awareness of translation as a social process.

Words such as “natural” and “naturally” increased by 51.16% during the second stage and 76.74% towards the end of the year in comparison with the beginning of the year which might also be another indication of the effect of the call of different translation theorists (e.g. House: 1997) to produce a natural text while translating a tourist brochure in order to retain the function of the source text (example 5.25). In example 5.25, student F9ES added information to the title “Needle Mill” in order to make it sound more natural to the target audience.

- Example 5.25: F9ES: “Makes more *natural* sense”

In this regard, the use of words such as “function”, “purpose”, “affect” and to “serve” the function began during the second stage in the middle of the programme. This could be an indication the effect of Functional theory (see Nord, 1997/2005) which focuses on the function of translation and could be drawn from the Nida’s concept of dynamic equivalence (1964) which discusses the effect of translation. It is interesting to note that students were introduced to the Functional theory during the third week of the first term of their academic year (Autumn term, see appendix B) during the first stage of the data collection process. However, the use of these terms appeared during the second stage which means that it took some time for these terms to be internalised and used by the students (example 5.26). In example 5.26, student F1EL changed the structure of the sentence “from learning how your favourite confectionery is made and uncovering the fascinating story of Cadbury chocolate, to playing in chocolate rain and creating your own delicious taste sensation covered in warm liquid Dairy Milk” into Greek in order to retain the function of the text.

- Example 5.26: F1EL: “I altered this sentence so that stylistically it would sound better in the target context and *serve the function* of the text (advertising cadbury’s tour)”.

The names of some strategies such as “transliteration” and the use of “synonyms” also began to appear during the second and third stages which can be an indication of development in the students’ ability to name the strategies they used to solve translation problems. Moreover, the number of words related to “explanation” decreased during the second (5.42%), while increased during the third stage (29.45%) in comparison with the

first stage. This could be related to the change in the students' justification of translation norms throughout the academic year, where they justified most of their decisions in terms of the communication norm; producing a clear target text towards the end of the programme in comparison with the beginning of the programme (example 5.27). In example 5.27, student F8FR explained the title "Forge Mill Needle Museum" into French since it is a proper noun as she explained.

- Example 5.27: F8FR: "It is the name of the institute, so a direct translation would not be appropriate. *Explanation* provides additional information."

The frequencies of a few words which could be borrowed from some translation theories also increased by the end of the academic year, such as "domestication" and "foreignization" discussed by Venuti's theory (2005: 240). "Foreignization" remained stable while "domestication" increased by 92.85% during the third stage. In addition, "compensation" in translation, increased by 71.42%, which could be drawn from the discussion of the concepts of loss and gain in translation by Baker (1992). One student also mentioned the word "loyal" during the second and third stages, which was discussed by Nord (1997: 123) in the Functional theory.

The comparison of the total number of words across the three stages of data analysis indicates that names of translation strategies appeared in the middle and towards the end of the translation training programme. It also seems to indicate that the total frequency of the words which reflected theoretical background in Translation Studies and terms used by scholars in this field increased towards the end of the programme in comparison with the first (37.53%) and second stages (23.38%). The chi-square test indicates that the difference across the three stages is statistically significant $\{\chi^2 = 11.69, df = 2, P = 0.0029\}$, which supports the H_1 and suggests that the variation is not due to chance. This indicates that attending the translation training programme clearly impacted the students' language used to describe translation problems and their solutions.

5.7.2 The Language Used by the Trainee Translators in the Interviews

The same method used in the questionnaire was used in the interviews; a frequency list of words from the language offered by the students in the interviews was also created, using the qualitative data analysis software (Nvivo). Following that, the words which

were considered directly or indirectly related to the theories discussed throughout the TS programme at UoB were manually extracted. Similar to the forms, only the percentages of the data were used in the discussion and no statistical analysis was carried out for each term because of the relatively small frequencies, as shown in table 5.8. However, the chi-square was applied to the total number of words used by the students. It is noticeable in table 5.8 that fewer instances of each word were used in the interviews than in the forms. This could be due to the small number of students who were interviewed throughout the three stages (five students).

Table 5.8: The Frequency of Words Used by the Students in the Interviews						
Keywords	1st stage		2nd stage		3rd stage	
	RF	Percentage	RF	Percentage	RF	Percentage
Total number of words	4758		6890		5716	
Equivalen*	10	0.21%	13	0.18%	19	0.33%
Context*	4	0.08%	14	0.2%	16	0.27%
Cultur*	1	0.02%	7	0.1%	9	0.15%
Target	2	0.04%	11	0.15%	8	0.13%
Product	0	0	2	0.02%	0	0
Audience	1	0.02%	8	0.11%	3	0.05%
Reader*	8	0.16%	14	0.2%	10	0.17%
Natural*	6	0.12%	6	0.08%	10	0.17%
Serve*	0	0	1	0.01%	0	0
Function*	0	0	4	0.05%	1	0.01%
Purpose	0	0	1	0.01%	0	0
Affect*	0	0	0	0	1	0.01%
Paraphrase	1	0.02%	1	0.01%	3	0.05%
Transliterated*	3	0.06%	2	0.02%	4	0.06%
Explanat*, explain*, and explicative	14	0.29%	31	0.44%	27	0.47%

Domestication	0	0	1	0.01%	0	0
Total number	50	1.05%	116	1.68%	111	1.94%

Similar to the data analysed from the forms, the students used the words “equivalence” and “equivalent” (frequency = 10) to refer to literal translation during the first stage, as was the case in example 5.28. In example 5.28, student F6ZH was explaining the problem she encountered in translating the word “forge” in the title “Forge Mill” into Chinese whether to transliterate it or translate it literally

- Example 5.28: F6ZH: “Forge means to (pause). In English, it means to create some material like that and there is a Chinese *equivalence* and I used that word.”

The frequency of words such as “equivalence” and “equivalent” increased by 57.14% towards the end of the programme in comparison with the beginning of the programme (frequency = 13, 19 respectively). The frequency of the words “context” and “culture” also increased during the second (frequency= 14, 7) and third stages (frequency= 16, 9). The percentage of words such as “context” and “contextual” increased by 150% in the middle of the programme, and by 35% towards the end of the programme in comparison with the second stage. The percentage of words such as “culture” and “cultural” also increased by 400% during the second stage and 650% during the third stage in comparison with the beginning of the programme. In example 5.29, student M2DE explained the problem he encountered with the literal translation of the verb “define” into German.

- Example 5.29: M2DE: “The thing here is just that ‘define’ here cannot be used in the same form in the German *context*.”

Similar to the data collected from the forms, the students used words such as “target”, “product”, “audience” and “reader”. The use of the word “target” used by the students increased by 275% in the middle of the programme and 225% by the end of the academic year in comparison with the beginning of the programme. Similarly, the use of words such as “reader” or “readership” increased by 25% during the second stage and by 6.25% during the third stage in comparison with the beginning of the programme. The use of the word “audience” increased by 450% during the second stage and 150% during the third

stage in comparison with the beginning of the programme. At the second stage, the students started to use the words “product” but did not use any during the third stage, unlike the data analysed from the forms. In example 5.30, student FF1EL explained the problems she encountered with translating the title “Witley Court” into Greek.

- Example 5.30: F1EL: “It is very ... very British thing. We do not have such courts in the *target culture*”

Additionally, the frequency of the words “natural” and “naturally” increased by 41.66% towards the end of the year in comparison with the beginning of the programme, as was the case in the forms. In example 5.31, student M2DE justified translating the term “listed building” into “a historical building” instead of translating it literally.

- Example 5.31: M2DE : “It is my best guess I think and it sounds quite *natural* to me.”

The use of words such as “function”, “purpose”, “affect” and to “serve” or “fulfil” seem to have appeared during the second or third stages in the interviews similar to data collected from the forms. In example 5.32, student F1EL changed the structure of the sentence “from learning how your favourite confectionery is made and uncovering the fascinating story of Cadbury chocolate, to playing in chocolate rain and creating your own delicious taste sensation covered in warm liquid Dairy Milk”.

- Example 5.32: F1EL: “The *purpose* of the target text of the Greek translation is again to *serve* as an advertisement of these chocolate factories. That’s why I made all the stylistic changes”.

In terms of the names of the strategy, instead of mentioning the use of “synonyms” by the students as was the case in the forms, the frequency of names such as “paraphrasing” and “transliteration” decreased by 50% and 66.66% respectively during the second stage, only to increase by 400% and 200% respectively towards the end of the year in comparison with the middle of the programme. However, the number of words related to “explanation” increased during the second (51.72%) and third stages (62.06%) in comparison with the first stage, similar to the data collected from the forms. In example 5.33, student F9ES justified elaborating on the word “mill” in the phrase “Needle Mill

museum” and translating it as “a factory: a place where you manufacture sewing needles” into Spanish.

- Example 5.33: F9ES: “They do not have these factories. They do not have this kind of history, so I *explained* the term.”

Not many words emerged which could be borrowed from some translation theories; one instance of “domestication” was used during the second stage, as was the case in example 5.34. In example 5.34, student F9ES justified translating the phrase “liquid dairy milk” as “melted chocolate” into Spanish.

- Example 5.34: F9ES: “So like when I said *domestication*, I mean to make more readable and more natural sounding and more kind of culturally targeted towards the target audience”

Similar to the data obtained from the forms, the comparison between the three stages of data analysis seems to indicate that some names of translation strategies appeared in the middle and/or towards the end of the translation training programme. It also indicates that the frequency of the words which reflected theoretical background in Translation Studies and could be borrowed from translation theories increased by 60% during the second stage and by 84.76% towards the end of the programme in comparison with the beginning of the programme. This consequently could indicate the effect of the training offered in the TS programme on the language offered by the students, especially as the chi-square test indicates that the difference across the three stages is statistically significant $\{\chi^2 = 13.7, df = 2, P = 0.0011\}$. This result supports the H_1 and suggests that the variation is not due to chance. This would allow us to hypothesize that the translation training programme seems to affect the students’ vocabulary in discussing translation decisions. This confirms Gregorio Cano’s hypothesis (2014) that the richness of the metalanguage used by the students evolves throughout the TS programme.

5.8 Conclusion

Despite the small number of instances, it is possible to draw some tentative hypotheses concerning the students’ perception of translation problems and the way they justify their decisions from analysing the data provided by the students. The decrease in the number

of linguistic and extralinguistic problems identified and the increase in the number of multidimensional problems as perceived by the students indicate that the participant students' perception of the concept of translation problems changes throughout the academic year, where the participants begin to look at translation problems from more than one perspective. In terms of the translation strategies used by the students, the decrease in the number of problems with no associated description of strategies across the three stages would allow us to hypothesise that following a translation training programme has an impact on the students' ability to describe the translation strategies they applied to solve problems. In addition, the decrease in the number of problems with no strategies applied since no solutions were found for the translation problems by the end of the year in comparison with the beginning of the programme could indicate a development in the participant students' ability to apply translation strategies.

Studying the justifications for translation decisions offered by the students indicates an increase in number in the answers justified according to communication norms, which could be attributed to the effect of the module of translation theories offered throughout the programme, in particular theories such as House's and functional approaches (e.g. Vermeer: 1989; Reiss: 1981/2000; and Nord: 2005) which called for producing a natural clear text to the reader to achieve a functional equivalent between the source text and the target text. Additionally, the decrease in the number of unsuccessful justifications towards the end of the year in comparison with the beginning of the programme could indicate a development in the students' ability to discuss their translation decisions after following the TS programme.

Moreover, examining the language used by the students in the forms and interviews indicates an increase in the frequency of the words reflecting theoretical background in TS and the use of terms discussed by TS theorists and names of translation strategies by the end of the academic year in comparison with the beginning of the programme. This might indicate the impact of the translation training programme on the students' language used to describe translation problems and their solutions, in particular the vocabulary used in discussing translation decisions. It is worth noting that these hypotheses are based on the results that are statistically significant according to the statistical analysis test (chi-square), which suggests that the differences in the data were not due to chance.

6. Attitudes Expressed by Trainee Translators: Methods and Analysis

In order to investigate how the students in the current study evaluated the problems they encountered and the strategies they used, and what stances they adopted while discussing the translation decisions they made, the language employed by the students was analysed using the appraisal system developed by Martin and White (2005) within the theoretical framework of Systemic Functional Grammar (SFG). In this chapter, we shall introduce Systemic Functional Grammar and explain the rationale for using Martin and White's appraisal system. This is followed by an explanation of the three domains of the appraisal theory: attitude, engagement and graduation. We shall then describe the coding system used to analyse the data provided by the students in the forms, as part of the translation task, as well as in the interviews. Finally, the attitude domain of appraisal theory will be explained in more detail, and the data provided by the students will be analysed and discussed according to this domain while the other two domains, engagement and graduation, will be the focus of chapter seven.

6.1 Theoretical Framework: Systemic Functional Grammar (SFG) and the Appraisal System

SFG, introduced by Halliday (1970), is based on the assumption that “most speech is functionally highly coherent” and the structure of the speech reflects its purpose (Halliday and Matthiessen, 2004: 323). SFG equates meaning with function and considers grammar as a description of the match between function and wording (Thompson, 2004: 28-30). Thus, the ends the language is used to serve and the potential meanings related to these ends should be considered in order to explain any text and understand how it interacts with the context of culture and the context of situation. According to Halliday and Matthiessen (2004: 33):

“The context of culture is what the members of a community can mean in cultural terms; we interpret culture as a culture of high level meanings – as an environment of meanings in which various semiotic systems operate, including language, paralanguage (gesture, facial expressions, voice quality, timbre, tempo, and other systems of meaning accompanying language and expressed through the human body) and other human systems of meaning

such as dance, drawing, painting and architecture.”

The context of situation is characterised in the interplay between three variables: 1) field (what is going on in a situation), 2) tenor (who is taking part in the situation) and 3) mode (what role is being played by language and other semiotic systems in the situation) (ibid). According to SFG, each clause in a text performs more than one function and the three basic functions of language in relation to the social environment, according to Halliday and Matthiessen (2004: 29), are:

- A) Ideational function (language as a reflection of human experience)
- B) Interpersonal function (language as a means of enacting out our personal and social relationships)
- C) Textual (language as a system which is relevant to a specific context).

The interpersonal function plays an important role in negotiating meaning between the interactants (Munday, 2012b) and expressing positioning (Butt et al, 2001: 124). An analysis of language focusing on the interpersonal function involves studying social relations and the participation of different individuals as reflected in the text (Halliday, 1970: 335). Many aspects of SFG have been applied to the analysis of translated texts, for example the register analysis (House, 1997 and Baker, 2011), discourse analysis, in particular the analysis of ideology (Hatim and Mason, 1997) and comparative functional analysis (Steiner and Yallop, 2001).

SFG was chosen because of its sophisticated model for representing interpersonal meanings, which is particularly relevant in terms of studying the linguistic resources used by the students to evaluate their decisions and acknowledge their positions in relation to other textual voices and opinions while discussing translation problems and strategies. Exploring the interpersonal meanings expressed by the students would reveal their positions in relation to the validity of their arguments while attempting to justify their decisions.

6.1.1 The Unit of Analysis in SFG

Since the interpersonal meanings are encoded in the structure of clauses (Eggins, 2004: 144), the unit of this interpersonal analysis is the clause. In SFG, the clause is the main source for making meanings (Thompson, 2004: 195-202). Each clause consists of two

components: the mood block and the residue. The mood block “carries the burden of the clause as an interactive event” by achieving the semantic function of encoding the speaker’s opinion of the stated proposition (Halliday and Matthiessen, 2004: 120). In interpersonal terms, the mood block is the core of the exchange while the rest of the clause merely fills in the details (Thompson, 2004: 54).

The mood block consists of two essential components: the subject and the finite operator. The subject is the nominal group which specifies the element which/who is responsible for the action taking place or the validity of the stated clause (Halliday and Matthiessen, 2004: 117). The finite operator, which is the first functional element of the verbal group links the verb to its subject, which makes the proposition debatable or arguable, allowing for discussion (Butt et al, 2001: 113). The finite connects the proposition to its surrounding context through reference to the time of speaking or the speaker’s opinion about the proposition (Halliday and Matthiessen, 2004: 115). In example 6.1, student F3AR used a complex clause while describing the problem she had with the word order in Arabic. This clause includes two finites: ‘have not’ which indicates the tense of the main clause ‘present’ and ‘does’ fused with the event ‘depends’ in the dependant clause.

Example 6.1: F3AR			
	I	have not	found a solution
	Subject	Finite	
	Mood block		Residue
because	it	depends	on the fundamental of the system
	Subject	Finite	
	Mood block		Residue

In English, only independent clauses have the choice of mood, that is declarative, interrogative and imperative, while dependent and embedded clauses have no choice and are dependent in their tense and mood on the main clause (Thompson, 2004: 195-202). Non-finite clauses do not have a subject either so they are not open for discussion since they are not tied in a relationship to the finite (Thompson, 2004: 48). Therefore, the unit of analysis in functional terms is the clause complex: a combination of two or more clauses into a larger unit (ibid). Thus, in order to carry out an interpersonal analysis of the

students' answers in the translation forms, data provided by the students were divided into clauses, as in example 6.2. For instance, student F4EL described the problem she encountered while translating the title of the text 'Whitley court' into Greek by saying: "Whitley Court: in Greek 'court' is the court were the lawyers appear but as I read on the internet, it was not a Court, but it looked like a mansion house". This description of the problem was divided into three main clauses, as follows:

Example 6.2: F4EL				
Clause 1	In Greek	it	is	"court" the court were the lawyers
		Subject	Finite	appear
		Mood block		Residue
Clause 2	But as	I	read	on the internet, it was not a court
		Subject	Finite	
		Mood block		Residue
		it	was not	a court
		Mood block		Residue
Clause 3	But	it	looked like	a mansion house
		Subject	Finite	
		Mood block		Residue

Dividing the data into clauses was more difficult in the interviews because of disfluencies typical of spoken discourse. Such disfluencies (e.g. corrections, false starts, filled pauses and incomprehensible utterances) are self-repair devices which speakers use to obtain cognitive or linguistic planning time before embarking on or completing an utterance (Clark and Wasow, 1998 and Rieger, 2000). In order to facilitate comparison with the results drawn from the analysis of the written data in the forms and for the purpose of this study, these disfluencies and phonological elements, such as stress, changes in sound pitch and intonation were not analysed. For example, student F1EL justified the strategy she used (changing the title of the text 'the Forge Mill needle museum' into a descriptive phrase) by stating: "Which is still I think I did not solve the problem (pause). Yes, I could not mmm. The title of the museum, as the name of the museum, it also gives what kind of museum it is. But you cannot just translate that exactly in Greek. The phrasing is not.

It is too English.” This justification was divided into six clauses according to the mood block, as follows:

Example 6.3: FIEL							
Clause 1	Which	is	still	I think	I	did not	solve the problem
	Subject	Finite			Subject	Finite	
	Mood block				Mood block		Residue

Clause 2	Yes	I	could not	Mmm
		Subject	Finite	
		Mood block		Residue

Clause 3	The title of the museum as the name of the museum, it	also	gives	what kind of museum it is
	Subject		Finite	
	Mood block			Residue

Clause 4	But	you	cannot	just translate that exactly in Greek
		Subject	Finite	
		Mood block		Residue

Clause 5	The phrasing	is not	
	Subject	Finite	
	Mood block		

Clause 6	It		is	too English
	Subject		Finite	
	Mood block			Residue

The way speakers or writers express their feeling about their propositions and articulate their viewpoints on phenomena can be described within the SFG framework using Appraisal theory. Appraisal is “the global potential of the language for making evaluative meanings, e.g. for activating positive/negative viewpoints, graduating force/focus,

negotiating intersubjective stance” (Martin and White, 2005: 164). Thus, the evaluative lexical choices available for speakers or writers can be examined using the Appraisal theory (Hunston and Thompson, 2000: 142).

Although “evaluative meanings have been insufficiently researched in Translation Studies” Pan, 2015: 219), appraisal theory has been applied to the study of translations by few scholars, such as Munday (2012a, 2012b) and Pan (2015). Munday (2012a, 2012b) applied the appraisal theory to analyse speech interpreting and online subtitles in order to identify the points in the text which reveal translators’ intervention in the translated texts. In his study, Munday examined the attitudinal values used in the source and target texts, realised in the form of adjectives, adverbs, verbs and connectives to investigate whether translators/interpreters preserved the same types of attitudes or there were shifts in these types in the translated texts, which would reflect the translators’/interpreters’ intervention in the target text. The analysis showed that translators/interpreters tended to omit intensifiers and counter expectancy connectors, such as ‘however’ and ‘only’, which signals their intervention in the lexical choices in the translations of the texts. Pan (2015) also applied the appraisal theory and Critical Discourse Analysis developed by Fairclough (1995a, 1995b) to analyse Chinese translations of English news reports with the purpose of examining the ideological positioning adopted by the translators. In this study, Pan compares the target texts in Chinese with the English source texts in order to examine how the evaluative resources were manipulated to construct a different ideological positioning. Pan found out that the evaluative resources which depicted a negative stance towards the Chinese government were omitted or blurred to draw a positive pro-government positioning in the translations.

The present study also uses the same appraisal system for exploring interpersonal meanings by explaining and describing the way language users evaluate arguments, adopt textual stances and negotiate positioning and relationships (White, 2001). One of the problems with applying appraisal theory in the present study is that it was developed to analyse written texts and therefore its application to the format of the data gathered in the current study (forms with open-ended questions) was slightly problematic. Because the students were completing forms, they did not use full clauses. As a way of solving this, we decided to assume that students were taking the headlines as part of their own clauses, thus many of the answers provided by students were considered to include elliptical

elements. Table 6.1, which is completed by student M1ES when encountering a problem with translating a few sentences and names into Spanish, offers an example of this:

Table 6.1: A Translation Form Completed by Student M1ES		
1- Problem	2- Problem type	3- Information sources
Sentence structure in Spanish: Formal names of church and court.	Word level: syntax	Articles in target language that have these names in context
4- Solution	5- Strategy	6- Justification for the strategy used/ Justification for not being able to find a solution
Use an adequate Spanish translation or make one adequate.	Word for word translation, translation in context	It was the most effective way to translate in the context of the text.

To expand on just one example from this form, consider the answer that student M1ES gives under ‘solution’: “use an adequate Spanish translation or make one adequate” (example 6.4). In such a case, we relied on the context in order to fill in the gap and assume that the student was taking ‘solution’ to be the subject and considered it an elliptical element:

Example 6.4: M1ES		
[The solution]	[is]	[to] use an adequate Spanish translation or make one adequate
Assumed subject	Assumed finite	
Mood block		Residue

6.1.2 The Domains of the Appraisal Theory

According to Martin and White (2005: 35), the appraisal system consists of three interacting domains: attitude, engagement and graduation. Attitude indicates the way feelings and emotional reactions are expressed, behaviours are judged and phenomena are evaluated, as in example (6.5). In example 6.5, student M2DE used a negative finite (am not) along with the adjective ‘sure’ to signal his uncertainty of his translation of ‘scouring mill’ when encountering a terminology problem into German.

Example 6.5: M2DE				
Clause 1	I mean	I	described	that in a way that the German reader will understand that
		Subject	Finite	
		Mood block		Residue

Clause 2	But	I	am not	sure for 100% that the correct term applied in this situation
		Subject	Finite	
		Mood block		Residue
	Attitude			

Engagement deals with “the linguistic resources by which speakers/ writers adopt a stance towards the value positions being referenced by the text and with respect to those they address” (Martin and White, 2005: 92). In example 6.6, student F7PT justified translating the words ‘court’ and ‘church’ into Portuguese, rather than leaving them in English, by challenging other viewpoints which might indicate that ‘Witley Court’ is a famous place through the use of the connective ‘although’ which counter the expectancy of any alternative textual voices. In the same example, student F7PT also employed ‘not’ in order to deny any alternative textual opinions which might state that the words ‘court’ and ‘church’ are names of places.

Example 6.6: F7PT				
Although		it	is	a famous place,
		Subject	Finite	
		Mood block		Residue
the names “court” and “church”	are	items in both the ST and TT, not a unique name of place.		
Subject	Finite			
Mood block		Residue		
Engagement				

Graduation values “construe greater or lesser degrees of positivity or negativity” and “scale for the degree of the speaker/writer’s intensity, or the degree of their investment in

the utterance” (Martin and White, 2005: 135-136). In example 6.7, the use of the adjectives ‘appropriate’ and ‘correct’ by student M2DE signals his positive assessment of his translation of ‘enamel’ as ‘painted enamel work’ into German. In example 6.7, clause 2, student M2DE used the token ‘more’ in order to intensify his investment in the value position reflected in the proposition.

Example 6.7: M2DE				
Clause 1	This	is	how it works in German to give it an appropriate meaning,	
	Subject	Finite	to give a whole picture actually	
	Mood block		Residue	

Clause 2	and stylistically	it	is	more correct
		Subject	Finite	
		Mood block		Residue
	Graduation			

These three domains include many subcategories, as table 6.2 shows, which will be explained later on in more detail (see sections 6.3.1, 7.1.1 and 7.2.1).

Table 6.2: The Appraisal System				
Categories	Sub- categories	Types	Sub-types	Value
Attitude	<u>Affect</u>	Security		positive/negative
		Happiness		positive/negative
		Satisfaction		positive/negative
	<u>Judgment</u>	Social esteem	Normality	positive/negative
			Capacity	positive/negative
			Tenacity	positive/negative
		Social sanction	Veracity	positive/negative
			Propriety	positive/negative
	<u>Appreciation</u>	Reaction		positive/negative
		Composition		positive/negative
		Valuation		positive/negative

Engagement	<u>Monogloss</u>			
	<u>Heterogloss</u>	Contract	Disclaim	Deny
			Proclaim	Counter
				Concur
				Pronounce
		Expand	Entertain	Endorse
			Attribute	Acknowledge
				Distance
Graduation	<u>Force</u>	Intensification	Upscaling	
			Downscaling	
		Quantification	Upscaling	
			Downscaling	
	<u>Focus</u>		Sharpening	
			Softening	

6.2 Coding and Analysis

The coding scheme was designed prior to the actual act of coding and was added as an extra layer of information to the analysis of mood carried out and illustrated in example 6.24. The coding template included three major categories: attitude, engagement and graduation, which included sub-categories according to the model used by Martin and White (2005), shown in table 6.2 above (see appendices O and P for the data provided by the students in the forms and interviews and their codes). Example 6.8 illustrates how the clauses used by the students were coded according to this model. In this example, student M2DE's use of the negative finite 'was not' disclaims any other textual voices which might indicate that 'the exact meaning was clear' and excluding alternative opinions, and therefore, according to the engagement system, it was coded as: denial-disclaim-contractive. Student M2DE's employment of the attitudinal adjective 'clear' in a negative form 'not' signals his negative assessment of the meaning in the source text when encountering a problem in translating the phrase 'which is fired every day during the main

season’ into German, and thus according to the Attitude system, it was coded as: appreciation-valuation-negative.

Example 6.8: M2DE		
The exact meaning	was not	clear
Subject	Finite	
Mood block		Residue
Engagement/contractive-disclaim-denial - Attitude/appreciation-valuation-negative		

One of the problems with applying appraisal theory to spoken language is that many clauses included more than one token of evaluation which posed difficulty in classifying these clauses, as was the case in example 6.9. In example 6.9, student M2DE described the problem encountered with translating the phrase ‘which is fired every day during the main season’ into German. The student used ‘cannot’ to challenge other points of views and the connective ‘just’ to counter alternative expectations. In the second clause, the student used a counter expectancy connective ‘but’ and negation ‘not’ in the same clause which was coded as an instance of both counter-expectancy and denial. Therefore, although in SFG the unit of analysis is the clause complex, it was more effective in the present study to consider both the clause complex and tokens of evaluation as units of analysis, and discuss the data accordingly. Based on this, in example 6.9, we have two attitudinal clauses and four attitudinal tokens in the two clauses, each including instances of both denial and counter-expectancy.

Example 6.9: M2DE				
Clause 1	You	cannot		just say “fire fountain” in German
	Subject	Finite		
	Mood block			Residue
	Engagement/contractive-disclaim-denial - Engagement/contractive-disclaim-counter			
	because	it	is	figurative
		Subject	Finite	
		Mood block		Residue
	Engagement/Monoglossic			

Clause 2	But	it	does not	have this figurative equivalence in German
		Subject	Finite	
		Mood block		
	Engagement/contractive-disclaim-counter - Engagement/contractive-disclaim-denial			

6.3 Attitude in the Appraisal Theory

Attitude can be divided into three regions of feelings: A) affect, B) judgment and C) appreciation, which can be realized in tokens of grammatical types: epithets, verbs, comment adjuncts or metaphors (Martin and White, 2005: 10).

- A) Affect registers positive or negative feelings, where expressed emotions can be grouped into four major sets: un/happiness, in/security and dis/satisfaction, and dis/inclination (see example 6.10). In example 6.10, student F1ZH explained the problem she encountered with translating the sentence ‘step back in time and experience the atmosphere of a Victorian needle polishing mill’ into Chinese. The use of the first person pronoun ‘I’ by student F6ZH in example 6.10 (clause 2) as well as the adjective ‘sure’ with the negation ‘not’ indicates her uncertainty.

Example 6.10: F6ZH			
Clause 1	I	know	the meaning of this sentence
	Subject	Finite	
	Mood block		Residue

Clause 2	But	what I am not sure about	is	its evocative meaning; just to ask the visitors to step back in time when they enter the museum.
		Subject	Finite	
		Mood block		Residue
	Attitude/affect-insecurity			

- B) Judgment refers to the assessment of behaviour and is divided into those dealing with ‘social esteem’ and those oriented to ‘social sanction’. Judgments of social esteem have to do with how unusual someone is, i.e. ‘normality’, how capable they are, i.e. ‘capacity’, and how resolute they are, i.e. ‘tenacity’. Judgments of

social sanction have to do with how truthful someone is, i.e. ‘veracity’ and how ethical someone is, i.e. ‘propriety’. Attitudinal values can also be classified into positive emotions which are enjoyable to experience or negative emotions that are better avoided as popularly construed by the culture (see example 6.11). In example 6.11 (clause 2 and 3), the use of the negative form of the modal verb ‘could’ indicates a negative judgment by student FIEL of her capacity to find an equivalent for the term ‘water power machinery’ into Greek while justifying translating it into a descriptive phrase: ‘Machinery which works with water’.

Example 6.11: FIEL			
Clause 1	It	is	a very specific term
	Subject	Finite	
	Mood block		Residue

Clause 2	But but	I	could not	find the exact term to give it back
		Subject	Finite	
		Mood block		Residue
	Attitude/judgement-incapacity			

Clause 3	It		might	be there
	Subject		Finite	
	Mood block			Residue

Clause 4	But	I	could not	mmm find something like that
		Subject	Finite	
		Mood block		
	Attitude/judgement-incapacity			

- C) Appreciation deals with resources that indicate the value of phenomena and is divided into three regions depending on speakers’/writers’ reactions (related to affection-interpersonal significance) to these phenomena, their composition (related to perception-textual organization), and their value (e.g. related to recognition-ideational worth). As with affect and judgement, it is possible to

recognize negative and positive evaluations of appreciation which vary according to the context (see example 6.12). In example 6.12, the adjectives ‘natural’ and ‘elegant’ used by students F1EL to describe the structure in the target text indicate a positive valuation of the strategy used; that is changing the structure of some sentences.

Example 6.12: F1EL		
It	is	more natural and elegant structure for the target group
Subject	Finite	
Mood block		Residue
Attitude/Appreciation-valuation-positive		

This model has been applied to genres such as newspapers, articles and reviews where finding examples of attitude (e.g. arresting, manipulative and sensitive) are quite straightforward. However, the type of data used in the present study presents quite complex cases as in example 6.13. This statement can be understood as purely descriptive; i.e. presenting the fact that student F8FR does not know the meaning of the term ‘listed building’ and does not know how to translate it into Chinese. At the same time, it can be described as indirectly invoking a judgment about capacity (Martin and White, 2005: 62). The judgment is invoked because there are no evaluative words explicitly expressing the evaluation. In order to avoid confusion, only instances which included direct and clear tokens of evaluation were considered as in the previous examples.

Example 6.13: F6ZH		
[I]	do not	know its specific meaning
Assumed subject	Finite	
Mood block		Residue

The border between the attitudinal tokens of the affect, judgment and appreciation are also blurred, as in example 6.14. In this example, it was not clear whether the attitudinal values attached to ‘acceptable and if not perfect translation’ used by student F8FR indicate a positive assessment of the strategy used, the translation of the term ‘listed

building’ as ‘historical building’ into French, or a positive judgement of herself for using such strategy. Martin and White (2005: 67) discussed “double codings” where an instance can reflect an inscribed (explicit and direct evaluation) and invoked (indirect evaluation) attitude. In example 6.14, there is an explicit appreciation of the strategy used by student F8FR ‘e.g. acceptable’ which can also invoke a positive judgement of the student’s behaviour for using this equivalent, indicated by the use of the first person pronoun [I].

Example 6.14: F8FR		
[I]	Found	an acceptable equivalent that has a similar meaning if not perfect translation
Subject	Finite	
Mood block		Residue
Attitude/Appreciation-valuation-positive		

For purposes of clarity and in order to avoid overlapping between the different categories, coding was based on the explicit target of evaluation:

- 1) Human beings, the students themselves (affect, as in example 6.15). In example 6.15, student M2DE used the adjective ‘sure’ along with the first person pronoun ‘I’ in order to signal her own uncertainty when encountering a problem in translating the word ‘recital’ into German.

Example 6.15: M2DE			
“Recitals”	I	was not	sure how to say that exactly
	Subject	Finite	
	Mood block		Residue
Attitude/affect-insecurity			
because here again	it	is	kind of verse story.
	Subject	Finite	
	Mood block		Residue

- 2) Their own behaviour (judgement, as in example 6.16). In example 6.16, student F3AR judged her own capacity for understanding the structure of the sentence ‘the outside gives only one hint – a golden dome above the church clock – of the astonishing feast for the eyes inside, with an amazing and fully restored Perseus

and Andromeda fountain which is fired every day during the main season’ by using a negative form of the adjective ‘able’ along with the first person pronoun ‘I’.

Example 6.16: F3AR			
	I	was not	able to understand the sentence structure
	Subject	Finite	
	Mood block		Residue
Attitude/judgement-incapacity			
because	they	put	the dash and then a dash then a comma in the same sentence
	Subject	Finite	
	Mood block		Residue

- 3) The texts and translation strategies (appreciation, as in example 6.17). In example 6.17, student F6ZH used the adjectives ‘weird’ and ‘understandable’ along with the negative form in order to indicate his negative assessment of the literal translation of the sentence ‘there is something truly wonderful about Whitley Court that’s hard to define’ within the source text.

Example 6.17: F6ZH					
Clause 1	If	you	just	translate	it word for word
		Subject		Finite	
		Mood block			Residue
		it	will		be very weird
		Subject	Finite		
		Mood block			Residue
	Attitude/Appreciation-valuation-negative				

Clause 2	It	is not	understandable
	Subject	Finite	
	Mood block		Residue
	Attitude/Appreciation-valuation-negative		

Thus, example 6.17 was coded as an instance of appreciation since the attitudinal tokens used describe an object, more specifically, a piece of text, rather than a human being or behaviour.

Another borderline case is Example 6.18 where the attitudinal value ‘most effective’ used by student M1ES indicates a positive valuation of the strategy he used, that is literal translation of some sentences and names into Spanish. However, ‘way’ could be understood as referring to both a strategy and behaviour, so someone else could have coded this as an instance of judgment.

Example 6.18: M1ES		
It	was	the most effective <u>way</u> to translate in the context of the text
Subject	Finite	
Mood block		Residue
Attitude/Appreciation-valuation-positive		

We classified this particular example as a case of appreciation merely for the purpose of consistency in the current study. Translation strategies can be defined as ways to solve translation problems (see Toury, 2011: 169-173) and attitudinal values used to describe translation strategies in the current study were coded as instances of appreciation, as previously mentioned.

6.4 Attitudinal Values in the Language Used by the Trainee Translators

In this section, the data provided by the students in the forms and interviews was divided into clauses which included attitudinal values and those which did not include any attitudinal tokens. In addition, the number of tokens used in attitudinal clauses was calculated. The aim was to investigate whether the students justified their decisions objectively or tended to be more subjective by evaluating their answers explicitly through the use of attitudinal tokens. The use of any attitudinal token (affect, judgment, appreciation) can be considered as indicative of the students’ subjectivity as it reflects their positioning in the language. According to Martin and White (2005: 95), these tokens reflect “the subjective presence of writers/speakers in texts as they adopt stances towards

both the material they present and those with whom they communicate”, as it is evident in example 6.19. In example 6.19, student M1ES used three attitudinal adjectives ‘natural, coherent and fluent’ while justifying the use of both literal translation and sense for sense translation when encountering a problem related to sentence structure into Spanish. These adjectives reflect student M1ES’s positive attitude towards the strategies he applied, and indicates his subjective positioning in the clauses presented while discussing his translation decision.

Example 6.19: M1ES forms		
It	makes	for a natural, coherent and fluent TT piece.
Subject	Finite	
Mood block		Residue
Attitude		

In comparison, student M2DE, in example 6.20, uses the attitudinal adjectives ‘clumsy’ and ‘not natural’ to express a negative attitude towards a literal translation of ‘how’ in the phrase ‘how Redditch came’ into German. The use of these adjectives signals student M2DE’s subjective positioning and attempt to align their readers with their positions.

Example 6.20: M2DE interviews					
Clause 1	I mean if	you	just	translate	it literally
		Subject		Finite	
		Mood block			Residue
		it	sounds		clumsy in German so clumsy
		Subject	Finite		
		Mood block			Residue
	Attitude				

Clause 2	It		‘s not	natural
	Subject		Finite	
	Mood block			Residue
	Attitude			

Attitudinal Values in the Language Used by the Trainee Translators in the Forms

First, it is interesting to note (see table 6.3) that the total number of clauses and words used by the students in the forms in order to describe translation problems and strategies increased during the second and third stages in comparison with the first stage. This could be attributed to several reasons. The students might have gained more experience in completing the task and hence became more expressive, while at the same time they might have developed their ability to discuss their decisions while translating by the end of the translation training programme. It is also noticeable in table 6.3 that the number of clauses used by the students peaked during the second stage in comparison with the first and third stages. This is interesting to consider in the light of other patterns to be discussed later, which suggest that the second stage could represent a period of ‘adjustment’ on the part of trainee translators, after the initial encounter with the different translation theories and models which the programme offers at the beginning of the year, and before the assimilation of these theories and models towards the end of the year.

Table 6.3: The RF and Percentage of Attitudinal Clauses and Tokens Used by the Students & Number of Words in the Forms						
Attitude	1 st stage		2 nd stage		3 rd stage	
Total number of clauses	236		331		305	
Total number of attitudinal clauses	RF	Percentage	RF	Percentage	RF	Percentage
	33	13.98%	53	16.01%	31	10.16%
Total number of words	1385		2281		2874	
Total number of attitudinal tokens	RF	Percentage	RF	Percentage	RF	Percentage
	38	2.74%	67	2.93%	36	1.25%

Comparing the total number of clauses including attitudinal tokens across the three stages of data analysis indicates that the number of these clauses changes slightly throughout the academic year, as table 6.3 indicates. The comparison of the percentages across the three stages indicates that the number of attitudinal clauses increased by 2.03 percentage points (14.52%) during the second stage in comparison with the first stage, and then decreased by 5.85 percentage points (36.53%) during the third stage in comparison with the second stage. The chi-square indicates that the changes in the number of attitudinal clauses and those which did not include any tokens of attitudes across the three stages are not

statistically significant $\{\chi^2 = 4.76, df = 1, P = 0.0926\}$. This result indicates that the H_0 cannot be rejected and these changes could be due to chance. Therefore, we cannot claim with certainty that the slight decrease in the number of attitudinal clauses by the end of the academic year in comparison with the beginning and middle of the programme is related to the translation training the students followed in the programme. However, we need to take into consideration that the effects of training might require more time to become evident, and to therefore be captured by statistical tests.

The percentage of attitudinal tokens used by the students across the three stages increased by 0.19 percentage points (6.93%) during the first stage in comparison with the second stage, only to decrease by 1.68 percentage point (57.33%) during the third stage in comparison with the second stage. Despite the slight change in terms of the percentages, the chi-square indicates that the change in the number of attitudinal tokens out of the total number of words across the three stages is statistically significant $\{\chi^2 = 19.99, df = 2, P = <.0001\}$. The result of the statistical test supports the H_1 and suggests that the decrease in the number of attitudinal tokens by the end of the academic year in comparison with the beginning of the year is not due to chance. Despite the fact that no significant changes were observed in the number of attitudinal clauses, the fact that the decrease in the number of attitudinal tokens is significant and that the changes in the number of attitudinal clauses and tokens are parallel and consistent with one another could allow us to present very provisional hypotheses that: (1) students become more objective after following the translation training programme and possibly that (2) this happens after a period of increased subjectivity in the middle of the programme, reflected in the increase in the number of attitudinal clauses and tokens during the second stage.

Attitudinal Values in the Language Used by the Trainee Translators in the Interviews

It is also interesting that table 6.4 indicates that the total number of clauses and words used by the students in the interviews increased during the second and third stages in comparison with the first stage. It is also evident that the number of clauses and words used by the students peaked during the second stage in comparison with the first and third stages. These results are the same as the ones drawn from analysing the data from the forms, which we interpreted as the students became more expressive, while they simultaneously could have developed their ability to discuss translation decisions while

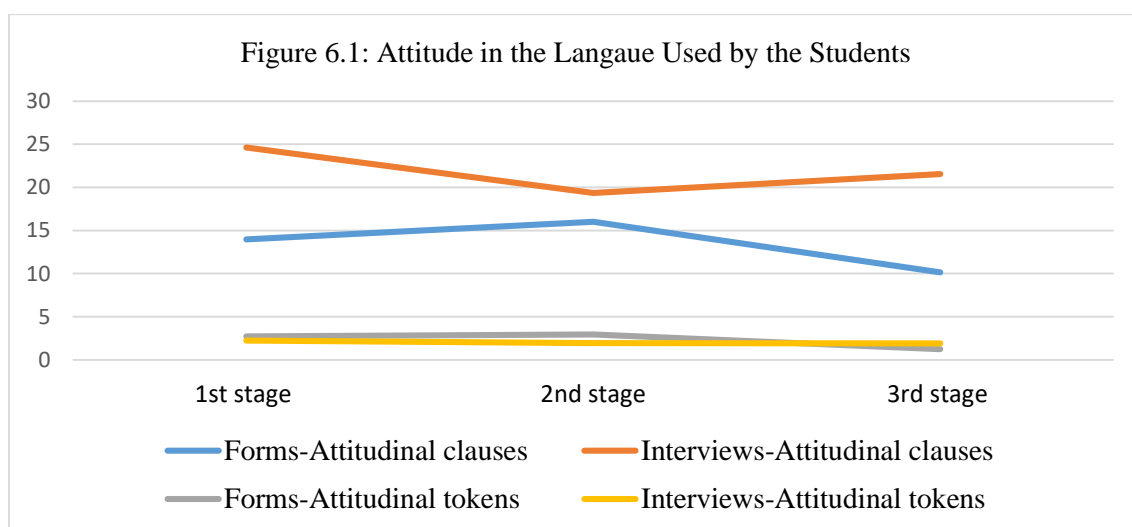
following the translation training programme. The peak in the number of clauses and words during the second stage in comparison with the first and third stages could be also considered as an indication of the ‘adjustment’ period the students passed through in the middle of the programme. The characteristics of this period will become clearer when analysing the types of attitudinal values in more detail.

Table 6.4: The RF and Percentage of Attitudinal Clauses and Tokens Used by the Students & Number of Words in interviews						
Attitude	1 st stage		2 nd stage		3 rd stage	
Total number of clauses	426		625		492	
Total number of attitudinal clauses	RF	Percentage	RF	Percentage	RF	Percentage
	105	24.64%	121	19.36%	106	21.54%
Total number of words	4758		6890		5716	
Total number of attitudinal tokens	RF	Percentage	RF	Percentage	RF	Percentage
	107	2.24%	134	1.94%	109	1.90%

Comparing the percentages of the three stages of data analysis indicates that the number of clauses including attitudinal values decreased by 5.28 percentage points (21.42%) during the second stage in comparison with the first stage, only to increase by 2.18 percentage points (11.26%) during the third stage in comparison with the second stage. The chi-square indicates that the changes in the number of attitudinal clauses and those which did not include any tokens of attitudes across the three stages of data analysis are not statistically significant $\{x^2 = 4.2, df = 2, P = 0.1225\}$. Thus similar to the results obtained from the forms, the H_0 cannot be rejected, and therefore the variation in the data could be due to chance. However, it is worth remembering that the number of interviewees was only five, and therefore any figures presented may be biased.

Concerning the number of attitudinal tokens, as opposed to attitudinal clauses, the numbers remained stable throughout the three stages. The chi-square indicates that the changes in the number of attitudinal tokens out of the total number of words across the three stages of data analysis are not statistically significant $\{x^2 = 1.83, df = 2, P = 0.4005\}$. This does not allow us to reject the H_0 and means that the variation could be due to chance. Considering the results from the tables and interviews together, we find that the only result that proved statistically significant was the overall decrease in the percentage of

attitudinal tokens in the forms. However, it is still interesting to point out that in all cases – whether the data came from forms or interviews and whether we were measuring the number of attitudinal clauses or tokens – the change was towards a decreased use of attitudinal tokens by the end of the academic year (see figure 6.1 below). Thus, the provisional hypothesis (1) concerning an increase in objectivity on the part of the students after following the translation training programme need not be totally discarded at this stage. On the other hand, the data from the interviews does not support the suggestion of a period of decreased objectivity in the middle of the programme, so our provisional hypothesis (2) will need to be reconsidered.



6.4.1 Types of Attitudinal Tokens in the Language Used by the Trainee Translators

The attitudinal tokens used by the students in the forms and interviews were classified into values of affect, judgement and appreciation (see examples 6.21, 6.22 and 6.23). It is interesting to look at each type of attitude separately because it will allow us to examine whether the target of evaluation is the students themselves (affect), their behaviour (judgement) or the strategies or texts (appreciation), and whether there was any increase or decrease in the level of objectivity concerning any of these targets in particular.

When students evaluated themselves, they tended to express for example uncertainty, as in example 6.21, where the negative form of the adjective ‘sure’ was used

to describe the student's level of confidence when attempting to justify transcribing certain names within the source text (Rysbrack and Foley) into Chinese.

Example 6.21: M3ZH			
I		am not	sure whether the translation is correct
Subject		Finite	
Mood block			Residue
Attitude/affect			
as	I	am not	sure about the pronunciation of ST
	Subject	Finite	
	Mood block		
Attitude/affect			

In order to evaluate their behaviour, students used tokens such as 'cannot' in example 6.22, where student F5ZH used this verb to negatively judge her own ability to translate the adjective 'superb' into Chinese.

Example 6.22: F5ZH		
[I]	cannot	find word to translate into TL
Assumed subject	Finite	
Mood block		Residue
Attitude/judgement		

When students evaluated the strategies or texts themselves, they used attitudinal tokens of appreciation such as 'proper' in example 6.23. In this example, student M2DE used the adjective 'proper' in order to reflect his positive assessment of translating the two verbs 'uncover' and 'discover' literally into German rather than translating them into one word, although this was not commonly used.

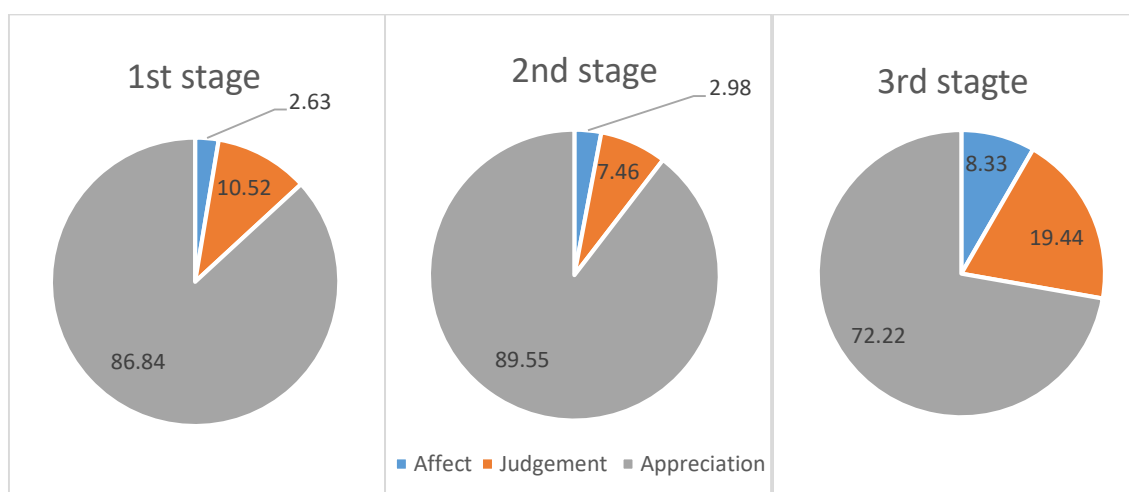
Example 6.23: M2DE				
Clause 1	Well	it	is	the most proper translation of that.
		Subject	Finite	
		Mood block		
	Attitude/appreciation			

Clause 2	I	used	this
	Subject	Finite	
	Mood block		Residue
	which	is not	so common really
	Subject	Finite	
	Mood block		Residue

Types of Attitudinal Tokens in the Language Used by the Trainee Translators in the Forms

Examples of affect, judgement and appreciation tokens were found in the students' description of translation problem and translation strategies. However, by looking at the percentages of affect, judgement and appreciation out of the total number of attitudinal tokens (see figure 6.2), we can see that only a few instances of affect and judgement were used by the students during the three stages while the tokens of appreciation were considerably more common.

Figure 6.2: The percentage for tokens of affect, judgement and appreciation used by the students in the forms



The use of tokens of appreciation more than tokens of affect and judgement could indicate that the students preferred to describe their strategies in terms of what the language offers instead of evaluating their behaviour, which is likely to be a result of the nature of the task given, which required them to explain and justify translation decisions rather than, for example, their own competence. Moreover, by looking at the percentages of the

number of tokens of affect and judgement out of the total numbers of words in table 6.5 below, we can see that these percentages remained stable across the three stages of data analysis.

Table 6.5: The RF and Percentage of Tokens of Affect, Judgement and Appreciation Used by the Student in the Forms						
Tokens of Attitude	1 st stage		2 nd stage		3 rd stage	
	RF	Percentage	RF	Percentage	RF	Percentage
Affect tokens	1	0.07%	2	0.08%	3	0.1%
Judgment tokens	4	0.28%	5	0.21%	7	0.24%
Appreciation tokens	33	2.38%	60	2.63%	26	0.9%
Total number of words	1385		2281		2874	

Concerning the number of tokens of appreciation out of the total numbers of words, table 6.5 indicates that the percentages of the number of tokens of appreciation increased by 0.25 percentage points (10.5%) during the second stage and decreased by 1.73 percentage point (65.77%) during the third stage in comparison with the second stage. The chi-square test indicates that the changes in the number of the attitudinal tokens of appreciation out of the total number of words across the three stages is statistically significant $\{x^2 = 24.32, df = 2, P = <.0001\}$. This supports the H_1 , and indicates that this change could be related to translation training. Despite the small percentages, it is possible to note that the decrease in the number of tokens of appreciation reflects the decrease in the overall number of attitudinal tokens towards the end of the academic year in comparison with the beginning of the programme. This suggests that the students were more objective towards the end of the year, and that this objective attitude concerned their evaluation of the texts or strategies rather than themselves or their behaviour. It is also possible to notice that the peak in the percentage of tokens of appreciation in the middle of the programme also reflects the peak in the percentage of total number of attitudinal tokens during the second stage. This suggests that the students were most subjective in the middle of the year and that their subjectivity was signalled in their evaluation of the strategies they used or the texts they translated.

Types of Attitudinal Tokens in the Language Used by the Trainee Translators in the Interviews

By looking at the percentages of affect, judgement and appreciation out of the total number of attitudinal tokens (see figure 6.3), we can see that fewer instances of affect were used by the students in comparison with tokens of judgement and appreciation during the three stages of data analysis.

Figure 6.3: The percentage for tokens of affect, judgement and appreciation used by the students in the interviews

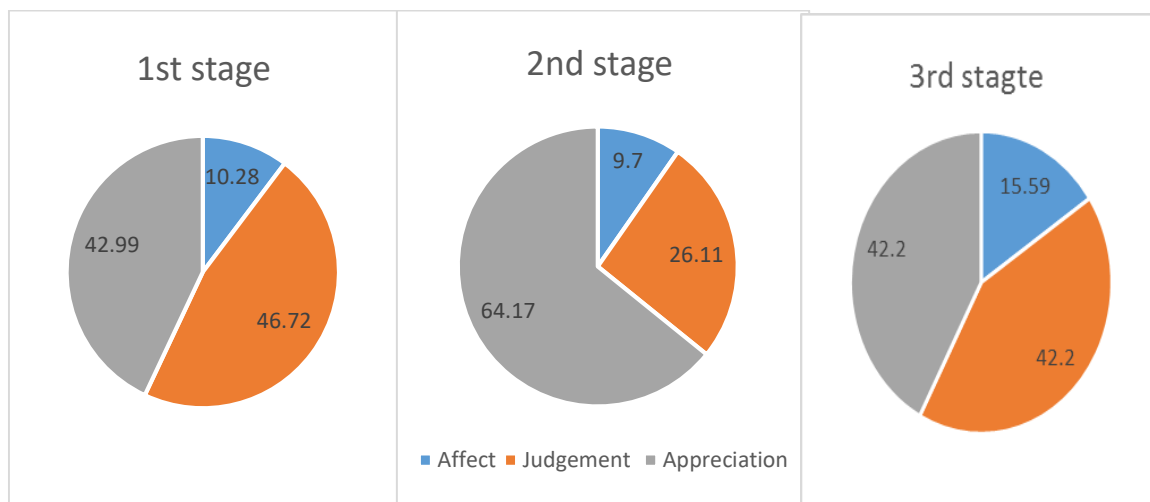
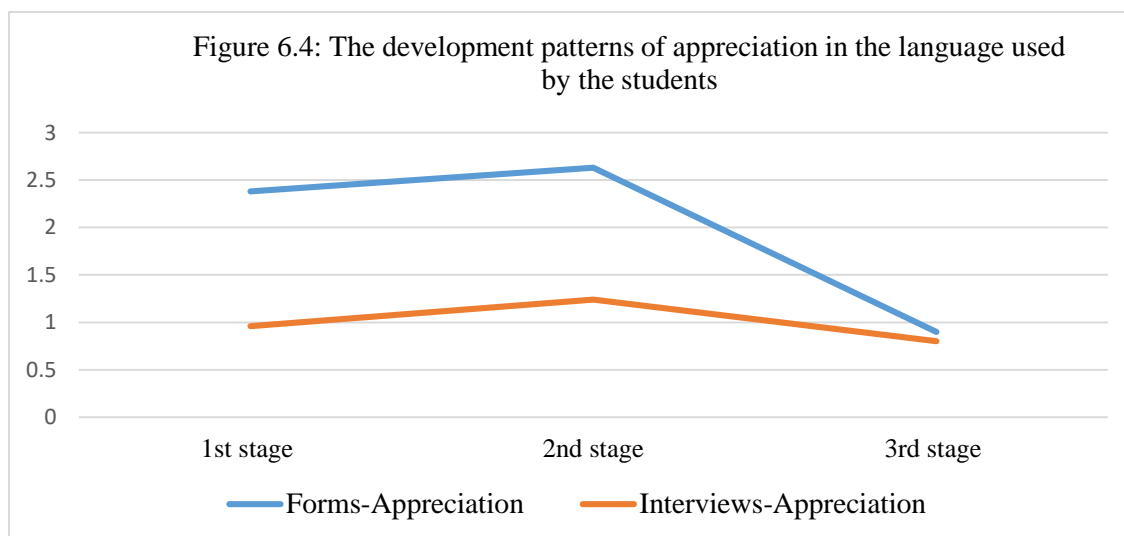


Table 6.6 illustrates, the students used more instances of affect and judgment in the interviews than in the forms which can be due to the nature of the data; interviews allowed for more subjective reflection than forms.

Table 6.6: The RF and Percentage of Tokens of Affect, Judgement and Appreciation Used by the Student in the Interviews						
Tokens of Attitude	1 st stage		2 nd stage		3 rd stage	
	RF	Percentage	RF	Percentage	RF	Percentage
Affect tokens	11	0.23%	13	0.18%	17	0.29%
Judgment tokens	50	1.05%	35	0.5%	46	0.8%
Appreciation tokens	46	0.96%	86	1.24%	46	0.8%
Total number of words	4758		6890		5716	

Comparing the percentages of tokens of affect out of the total number of words across the three stages indicates that they remained stable. The percentage of tokens of judgement decreased by 0.55 percentage points (52.38%) during the second stage, while it increased by 0.3 percentage points (60%) during the third stage in comparison with the second stage. The chi-square test indicates that the difference in the number of attitudinal tokens of judgement out of the total number of words used by the students across the three stages is statistically significant $\{x^2 = 11.37, df = 2, P = 0.0034\}$. This result supports the H_1 and indicates that the variation in the results is not due to chance. The decrease in the number of tokens of judgment by the end of the year follows the same development pattern of attitudinal tokens in general. Similarly, the decrease in the number of tokens of appreciation follows the same development pattern of judgement tokens; the number of tokens of appreciation increased by 0.28 percentage points (29.16%) during the second stage and decreased by 0.44 percentage points (35.48%) during the third stage in comparison with the second stage. The chi-square test indicates that the changes in the number of the attitudinal tokens of appreciation out of the total number of words across the three stages is statistically significant $\{x^2 = 6.27, df = 2, P = 0.0435\}$. This result supports the H_1 and indicates that the variation is not due to chance. This development pattern in relation to appreciation is similar to the students' development pattern in relation to appreciation in the forms (see figure 6.4 below) which is also supported by statistical tests and therefore could indicate that the students' increased objectivity towards the end of the year concerned their evaluation of the text translated or strategy used rather than themselves or their behaviour. Similar to the development pattern of appreciation in the forms, the peak noticeable in the number of tokens of appreciation in the interviews in middle of the year could also indicate that the higher degree of subjectivity which the students showed while following the programme was reflected in their evaluation of the strategies or the texts they translated.



6.4.1.1 Types of Tokens of Affect Used by the Trainee Translators

The tokens of attitudinal values of affect were categorised according to whether the students expressed un/happiness, dis/satisfaction, in/security and dis/inclination in order to investigate the students' attitude towards their decisions while translating. Due to the small numbers of tokens of affect out of the total number of words, the changes in the data were not quantified in this section and the chi-square test was not used as there were not significant changes across the three stages of data collection.

Table 6.7: The RF and Percentage of Tokens of Affect Used by the Students in the Forms			
Tokens of affect	1st stage	2nd stage	3rd stage
Insecurity tokens	1	1	3
Disinclination tokens	0	1	0

By looking at the data in the forms (table 6.7), we can see that very few tokens of affect were employed by the students throughout the three stages, which does not allow us draw any hypotheses. The only types of tokens that were found in the forms were of insecurity (see example 6.21 above) and disinclination (example 6.24). In example 6.24, student F7PT justified adding the adjective 'normal' to the word 'tour' in the title 'a visit to Cadbury World is not a factory tour' into Portuguese, using the negative form of the verb 'want'. Using this form indicates student F7PT's disinclination to use other strategies

such as explaining the title which would complicate the text or keeping the title as it is which would not convey the same meaning of the source text.

Example 6.24: F7PT		
[I]	do not	want to affect the simplicity of the title by describing differences to a great extent or no change meaning.
Assumed subject	Finite	
Mood block		Residue
Attitude/affect-disinclination		

The tokens of affect by which the students expressed their emotions throughout the three stages in the interviews were both positive and negative. Table 6.8 illustrates that these tokens were indicating insecurity/security, disinclination/inclination or dissatisfaction/satisfaction on the part of the participant students.

Table 6.8: The RF and Percentage of Tokens of Affect Used by the Students in the Interviews						
Tokens of affect	Insecurity	Security	Disinclination	Inclination	Dissatisfaction	Satisfaction
1 st stage	8	0	0	2	1	0
2 nd stage	4	0	1	8	0	0
3 rd stage	11	1	0	4	0	1

Concerning negative tokens of judgement, in addition to using tokens of insecurity and disinclination, similar to the ones employed in the forms (see examples 6.21 and 6.24 above), an instance of dissatisfaction was found in the interviews; student M2DE's dissatisfaction with his translation of the term 'scouring mill' into German (example 6.25) was reflected in the employment of negation 'not' along with the phrase 'satisfy me'.

Example 6.25: M2DE			
Clause 1	I	could not	find an answer to satisfy me
	Subject	Finite	
	Mood block		Residue
	Attitude/affect-dissatisfaction		

Clause 2	It	was	kind of a difficult term
	Subject	Finite	
	Mood block		Residue

As we can see in table 6.8, more instances of insecurity were used by the students in the interviews than in the forms which could be attributed to the nature of the interviews that allowed the students to be more expressive. It is also interesting to note that the number of instances of insecurity increased towards the end of the year in comparison with the first and second stages, similar to the data in the forms. However, stage two stands out again as the number of instances of insecurity decreased during the second stage in comparison with the first and third stages.

On the other hand, positive instances of affect (inclination) were used by the students throughout the academic year of the type used in example 6.26. In this example, student F1EL's employment of the verb 'preferred' indicates her inclination to use the 2nd person plural rather than the 2nd person singular when translating the sentence 'step back in time and experience the atmosphere of a Victorian needle polishing mill' into Greek.

Example 6.26: F1EL			
Clause 1	I	preferred	To
	Subject	Finite	
	Mood block		Residue
	Attitude/affect-inclination		

Clause 2		I	preferred	to translate it into the plural formal
		Subject	Finite	way
		Mood block		Residue
	Attitude/affect-inclination			
	because	it	is	more general
		Subject	Finite	
		Mood block		Residue
	and because	the whole text it	is not	that direct
		Subject	Finite	
		Mood block		Residue

Other types of positive tokens of judgement were used during the third stage. These included an instance of security (example 6.27) and another of satisfaction (example 6.28). In example 6.27 (clause 1), student M2DE stated the proposition without including any token of attitudes. In example 6.27 (clause 2), the use of the positive finite ‘was’ along with the adjective ‘sure’ indicated student M2DE’s certainty while justifying translating the verb in the phrase ‘which is fired every day during the main season’ as ‘shooting into the air’ into German. In example 6.28, student F9ES used the adjective ‘happy’ along with the first person pronoun ‘I’ in order to signal her satisfaction with the strategy she used; translating the word ‘court’ in the title ‘Whitley Court’ into Spanish rather than leaving it in English.

Example 6.27: M2DE			
Clause 1	I	looked up	what exactly this means
	Subject	Finite	
	Mood block		Residue

Clause 2	So	I	was	then sure it was just about an active fountain so
		Subject	Finite	shooting into the air
		Mood block		Residue
	Attitude/affect-security			

Example 6.28: F9ES			
	I	am	happy to have translated it
	Subject	Finite	
	Mood block		Residue
	Attitude/affect-satisfaction		
Because	I	did not	know whether court would suggest an English idea and whether they actually exist in Spain.
	Subject	Finite	
	Mood block		Residue

However, as mentioned before, the small numbers make it difficult to draw any conclusions on the development patterns and the students’ level of objectivity in relation to the types of tokens of affect used in the forms and interviews.

6.4.1.2 Types of Tokens of Judgment Used by the Trainee Translators

The attitudinal tokens of judgement employed by the students in the forms and interviews were classified according to whether they reflected normality, capacity, veracity, tenacity or propriety in order to examine the way the students' assessed their own behaviour while discussing translation decisions.

Types of Tokens of Judgment Used by the Trainee Translators in the Forms

Because of the small numbers of tokens of judgement out of the total number of words, as table 6.9 indicates, the chi-square test was not used to test the data in the forms.

Table 6.9: The RF and Percentage of Tokens of Judgement Used by the Students in the Forms			
Tokens of Judgement	1 st stage	2 nd stage	3 rd stage
Tokens of Negative capacity	2	0	6
Tokens of Positive capacity	1	0	0
Tokens of Negative normality	0	0	1
Tokens of Positive normality	1	5	0
Total number of words	1385	2281	2874

It is noticeable in table 6.9 that, during the second stage, the most common tokens of judgement used to describe translation problems and translation strategies were tokens of positive normality of the type used in example 6.29. On the other hand, during the third stage, the students used more tokens of negative capacity, similar to the one employed in example 6.30. In example 6.29, student F4EL justified keeping the English words 'gift shop' while translating into Greek by using the modal adverb 'usually' along with the first person plural pronoun 'we' in order to reflect the normality of the strategy she used. In example 6.30, student F2ZH described the problems she encountered with translating some terms into Chinese, using a negative form of the modal verb 'could' to reflect her negative judgement of her ability to translate such terms.

Example 6.29: F4EL		
We	usually	keep the word in English as it is
Subject	Finite	
Mood block		Residue
Attitude/judgement- normality-positive		

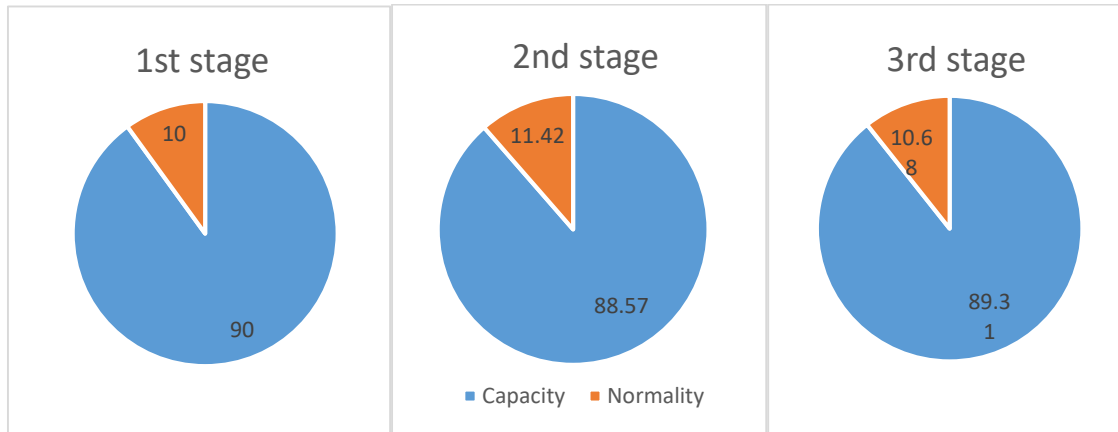
Example 6.30: F2ZH			
Clause 1	There	are	specific terms that
	Subject	Finite	
	Mood block		Residue
	I	couldn't	find meaning in the dictionary. Listed building and water power machinery.
	Mood block		Residue
	Attitude/judgement-incapacity		

Thus the most prominent patterns in this section are the use of positive normality during the second stage and negative capacity during the third stage. Despite their prominence, the overall small numbers make it difficult to draw any hypotheses based on these patterns. However, these patterns will become clearer in the interviews.

Types of Tokens of Judgment Used by the Trainee Translators in the Interviews

By looking at the percentages of tokens of normality and capacity in the interviews out of the total number of tokens of judgement (see figure 6.5 below), we can see that the students used more tokens of capacity than of any type throughout the three stages of data analysis, followed by tokens of normality, although the frequencies for the latter were rather small.

Figure 6.5: The percentage for tokens of judgment used by the student in the interviews



More tokens of normality and capacity (similar to the ones employed in examples 6.29 and 6.30) were used in the interviews than in the forms, as table 6.10 indicates. The nature of the data may explain the fact that judgement becomes more prominent in the interviews than in forms.

Table 6.10: The RF and Percentage of Tokens of Judgement Used by the Students in the Interviews

Tokens of Judgment	1 st stage		2 nd stage		3 rd stage	
	RF	Percentage	RF	Percentage	RF	Percentage
Negative capacity	34	0.71%	15	0.21%	27	0.47%
Positive capacity	11	0.23%	16	0.23%	14	0.24%
Total instances of capacity	45	0.94%	31	0.44%	41	0.71%
Negative normality	1	0.02%	2	0.02%	1	0.01%
Positive normality	4	0.08%	2	0.02%	4	0.06%
Total instances of normality	5	0.1%	4	0.05%	5	0.08%
Total number of words	4758		6890		5716	

The percentage of tokens of normality remained stable throughout the three stages. A comparison of the percentages of tokens of capacity across the three stages indicates that they decreased by 0.5 percentage points (53.19%) during the second stage, only to increase by 0.27 percentage points (61.36%) during the third stage in comparison with the second stage. Although the percentage points are small, the chi-square test indicates that the difference in the number of the tokens of capacity across the three stages is

statistically significant $\{x^2 = 10.58, df = 2, P = 0.005\}$. This result supports the H_1 , and indicates that the variation is not due to chance. Thus the decrease in the percentage of attitudinal tokens of capacity during the third stage in comparison with the beginning of the year reflects the decrease in the total number of attitudinal tokens and suggests that the students became more objective concerning the evaluation of their capacities towards the end of the year.

Table 6.10 also indicates that the students used more tokens of negative capacity rather than positive during the first and third stages except for stage two where the percentages of negative and positive tokens evened out. The percentage of tokens of positive capacity remained stable across the three stages and the chi-square indicates that the change is not statistically significant $\{x^2 = 0.03, df = 2, P = 0.9851\}$. This result does not allow us to reject the H_0 , and indicates that the variation could be due to chance. On the other hand, the number of negative tokens of capacity decreased by 0.5 percentage points (70.42%) during the second stage, only to increase by 0.26 percentage points (123.81%) during the third stage in comparison with the second stage. The chi-square indicates that the difference in the number of negative tokens of capacity out of the total number of words is statistically significant across the three stages $\{x^2 = 16.18, df = 2, P = 0.0003\}$. This result supports the H_1 , and therefore the decrease by the end of the year could indicate that the students became more objective in their negative evaluation of their capacity towards the end of the academic year. Despite the small number of tokens of judgement in the interviews, a decrease was noticeable in the percentages of overall number of capacity tokens, especially in terms of the negative tokens, during the second stage in comparisons with the first and third stages. This could indicate that the students, in the middle of the programme, passed through an ‘adjustment’ period, showing more objectivity in their negative evaluation of their capacities in the discussion of translation decisions.

6.4.1.3 Types of Tokens of Appreciation Used by the Trainee Translators

Classifying the instances of appreciation into reaction, composition and valuation did not present important differences between these three types because of the limited context provided in the forms. Because this classification did not add a worthwhile layer of depth into the analysis of the data provided by the students in the forms, the tokens of

appreciation were merely classified into positive and negative values, as examples 6.31 and 6.32 illustrate. In example 6.31, student M2DE used the adjective ‘proper’ in order to reflect his positive assessment of the translating of the two verbs ‘uncover’ and ‘discover’ literally into German rather than translating them into one word, although this is not commonly used. On the other hand, student F9ES (example 6.32) used the adjectives ‘strange’ and ‘forced’ to signal her negative assessment of using two different words for translating the verbs ‘uncover’ and ‘discover’ instead of translating them into the same word.

Example 6.31: M2DE				
Clause 1	Well	it	is	the most proper translation of that.
		Subject	Finite	
		Mood block		
	Attitude/appreciation-negative			

Clause 2	I	used	this	
	Subject	Finite		
	Mood block		Residue	
	which	is not	so common really	
	Subject	Finite		
	Mood block		Residue	

Example 6.32: F9ES			
Clause 1	It	would	sound strange
	Subject	Finite	
	Mood block		Residue
	Attitude/appreciation-negative		

Clause 2	It	would	sound forced
	Subject	Finite	
	Mood block		Residue
	Attitude/appreciation-negative		

Types of Tokens of Appreciation Used by the Trainee Translators in the Forms

It is worth noting that overall there were more instances of positive appreciation than negative, as figure 6.6 indicates. However, this cannot be directly interpreted as an overall positive appreciation of their strategies since we need to take into account that the forms required students to present and justify their solutions and justifications. In other words, the actual format of the questions could explain the tendency to use tokens of positive appreciation.

Figure 6.6: The percentage for tokens of appreciation used by the student in the forms

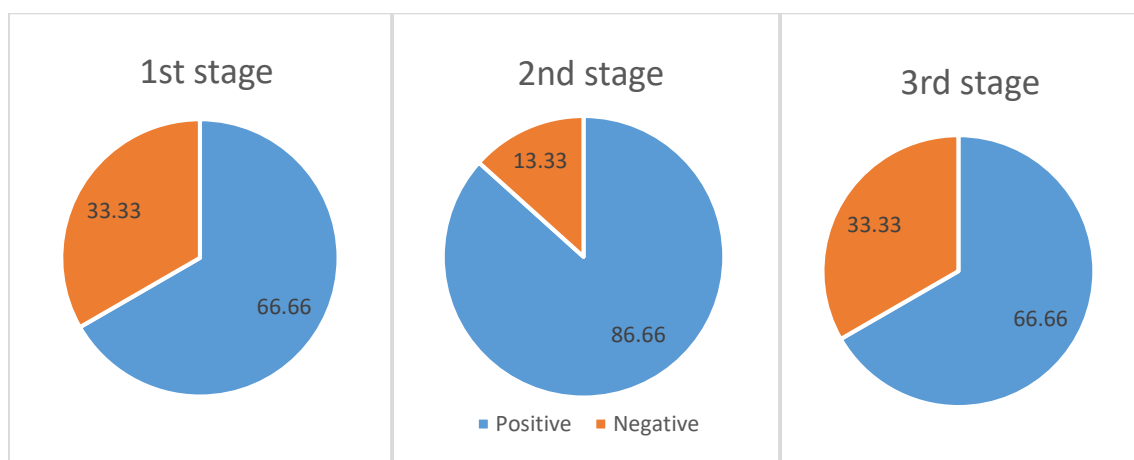


Table 6.11 indicates that the percentages of the negative tokens remained stable across the three stages of data analysis, and the chi-square shows that the change is not statistically significant $\{x^2 = 3.94, df = 2, P = 0.1395\}$. Therefore, the H_0 cannot be rejected and the variation in data in relation to the change in the students' use of negative tokens of appreciation could be due to chance.

Table 6.11: The RF and Percentage of Tokens of Appreciation Used by the Students in the Forms						
Tokens of Appreciation	1 st stage		2 nd stage		3 rd stage	
	RF	Percentage	RF	Percentage	RF	Percentage
Negative tokens	11	0.79%	8	0.35%	12	0.41%
Positive tokens	22	1.58%	52	2.27%	24	0.83%
Total number	1385		2281		2874	

The comparison of the percentages of positive tokens of appreciation indicates that they increased by 0.69 percentage points (43.67%) during the second stage, only to decrease again by 1.44 percentage points (63.43%) during the third stage in comparison with the second stage. The chi-square test indicates that the changes in the number of positive tokens of appreciation used by the students across the three stages is statistically significant $\{x^2 = 18.08, df = 2, P = 0.0001\}$, which supports the H_1 . Based on the statistical test, the decrease in the percentage of positive tokens of appreciation reflects the decrease in the overall number of tokens of appreciation and suggests that the students became more objective concerning their positive evaluation of the texts or strategies towards the end of the year in comparison with the beginning of the programme. Again, we can see that the frequencies in the second stage stand out in comparison with the first and third stages; there was an increase in the percentage of positive tokens of appreciation in the middle of the programme. This could also indicate that the students passed through an ‘adjustment period’, reflected in atypical positive evaluation in their discussion of translation decisions.

Types of Tokens of Appreciation Used by the Trainee Translators in the Interviews

For the purpose of consistency, the data provided by the students in the interviews were classified into merely positive and negative values, similar to the data provided in the forms, instead of dividing them into composition, reaction and valuation tokens. In comparison with the data collected from the forms, we can see that more positive tokens of appreciation were used than tokens of negative attitudes during the three stages, as figure 6.7 shows.

Figure 6.7: The percentage for tokens of appreciation used by the student in the interviews

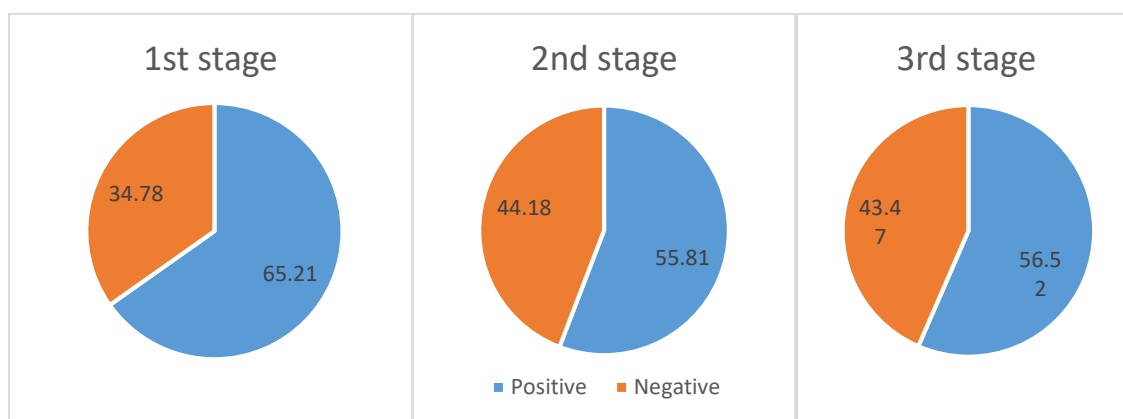
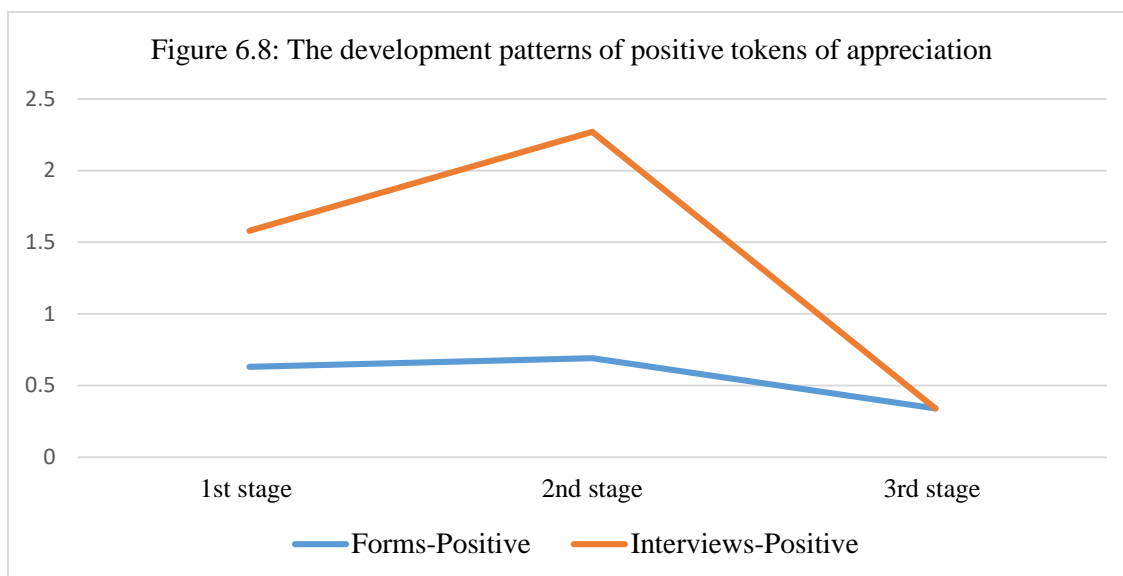


Table 6.12: The RF and Percentage of Tokens of Appreciation Used by the Students in the Interviews						
Tokens of Appreciation	1st stage		2nd stage		3rd stage	
	RF	Percentage	RF	Percentage	RF	Percentage
Negative instances	16	0.33%	38	0.55%	20	0.34%
Positive instances	30	0.63%	48	0.69%	26	0.45%
Total number	4758		6890		5716	

Similar to the data collected from the forms, comparing the percentages of the negative tokens of appreciation also indicates that they remained stable across the three stages (see table 6.12), and the chi-square indicates that the change is not statistically significant $\{x^2 = 4.24, df = 2, P = 0.12\}$. This indicates that the H_0 cannot be rejected in terms of the use of negative tokens of appreciation. The comparison of the percentages of positive tokens of appreciation indicates that the number of positive tokens increased by 0.06 percentage points (9.52%) during the second stage, only to decrease by 0.24 percentage points (34.78%) during the third stage in comparison with the second stage. The chi-square test indicates that the difference in the number of positive tokens of appreciation used by the students across the three stages is not statistically significant $\{x^2 = 3.18, df = 2, P = 0.2039\}$. Thus, unlike the data collected from the forms, the result of the statistical test in the interviews does not allow us to reject the H_0 , and therefore the variation in data could be due to chance. This contradiction in the data between the forms and interviews makes further research in the topic necessary in order to investigate whether the changes observed are a result of the translation training followed. However, it is interesting that the data collected from the forms and interviews showed the same development pattern (see figure 6.8 below), where there was a decrease in the percentage of positive tokens of appreciation towards the end of the year and a peak during the second stage. The decrease in the percentages of positive tokens of appreciation could support the suggestion that the students became more objective towards the end of the year concerning their positive evaluation of the strategies and texts. The peak in the middle of the programme also suggests that the students showed less objectivity, during the ‘adjustment’ period, concerning their positive evaluation of translation strategies.



6.5 Conclusion

Despite the small number of instances, the frequency of occurrences and subsequent minimal change in the data across the three stages, it could be possible to draw a number of tentative hypotheses to pursue in future research. The decrease in the number of attitudinal tokens towards the end of the year could allow us to hypothesise that the students become more objective in their evaluation of translation problems and strategies after following a translation training programme. These results were statistically significant in the translation forms, but not in the interviews. However, we need to consider that the small number of interviewees might have affected the results and therefore future research in this area is required.

As the breakdown into categories of attitude shows, the evaluation seems to be related to how the students appreciate the texts or strategies rather than how they evaluate their behaviour or themselves. This could be due to the nature of the data; forms which did not give the student an opportunity to be expressive. The decrease in the number of tokens of appreciation towards the end of the year, which was statistically significant in the forms and interviews, suggests that trainee trainees become more objective towards the end of the year, and that this objective attitude concerned their evaluation of the texts or strategies rather than their own behaviour. Furthermore, the decrease in the number of positive tokens of appreciation towards the end of the year, which was statistically significant in the forms and interviews, suggests that the students show more objectivity

in their positive evaluation of the texts translated or strategies used. Additionally, the decrease in the number of judgement tokens of negative capacity towards the end of the year could indicate that the students became more objective, and that this objectivity was reflected in the more positive evaluations of their capacities after following a translation training programme. These results were statistically significant in the interviews, but not in the forms. However, we need to take into consideration that the format of data (forms) did not probably allow the students to be expressive and particularly evaluative of their behaviour.

Changes in the students' patterns of development during the second stage in the middle of the programme, as opposed to the first and third stages at the beginning and the end of the programme, were noticeable throughout the academic year. The second stage represents a period after the initial encounter with the different translation theories and models in the field of Translation Studies, which the programme offers at the beginning of the year, and before the assimilation of these theories and models towards the end of the year. Although the data was too limited to allow for conclusions, we can hypothesise that, as a result of encountering new and challenging theories, students go through an 'adjustment period' in the middle of the programme which could explain the fluctuation in the results during this stage where students were possibly questioning and testing their existing conceptions in translation against the theoretical basis offered in the TS programme at UoB.

During this stage, the students showed greater subjectivity by making their evaluation of the texts and strategies more explicit, which was evident in the peak in the percentages of attitudinal tokens of appreciation and represented the majority of attitudinal tokens during the second stage in comparison with the first and third stages. This was based on the statistically significant data collected from the forms and interviews. This again could be related to the fact that, after having been introduced to a range of translation theories that challenged their existing assumptions, students started to become more aware of their choices and felt a need to question themselves. This 'adjustment period' was also characterised by an increasing positive evaluation on the part of the students when expressing their attitudes, represented in the peak in the number of positive attitudes of appreciation in the middle of the year in comparison with the beginning and the end of the programme. This was statistically significant in the forms,

but not in the interviews, which makes further research in this area necessary. These patterns will become clearer after examining the data in relation to the engagement and graduation subsystems in the next chapter.

7. The Use of Evaluative Language by Trainee Translators: Methods and Analysis

This chapter is a continuation of chapter six, where the aim is to examine the language employed by the students in order to investigate the way the students evaluated the problems they encountered and the strategies they used, as well as the stances they adopted while discussing their translation decisions, using the appraisal system developed by Martin and White (2005). In chapter six, the data provided by the students was analysed according to the first subsystem of the appraisal system: attitude. In this chapter, we shall explain the second subsystem of the appraisal theory: engagement, and then discuss the data provided by the students. This is followed by a description of the last subsystem of the appraisal theory: graduation in more detail and the analysis and discussion of the data according to this subsystem.

7.1 Engagement in the Appraisal Theory

According to the system of engagement, utterances can be classified into (Martin and White, 2005: 99-100):

- Monoglossic or ‘bare assertions’ when they make no reference to other voices and viewpoints (example 7.1, clause 1), and
- Heteroglossic when they allow for alternative viewpoints and responses (example 7.1, clause 2).

Example 7.1: F1EL			
Clause 1	There	is	a Greek term
	Subject	Finite	
	Mood block		Residue
	Engagement/monoglossic		
	Which	is	used with the same meaning
	Subject	Finite	
	Mood block		Residue
	Engagement/monoglossic		

Clause 2	So	there	is no	loss in translation
		Subject	Finite	
		Mood block		
	Engagement/heteroglossic			

In example 7.1, student F1EL used two clauses while justifying using an equivalent for the term ‘listed building’ into Greek. In example 7.1 (clause 1), student F1EL excludes other opinions by producing her propositions as statements with positive finites. However, in example 7.1 (clause 2), student F1EL refers to other possible opinions while challenging them through the use of negation which allowed her to limit the scope of her argument and refuse alternative viewpoints. Martin and White explain the case presented in example 7.1, clause 1, as opposed to example 7.1, clause 2, as follows:

“Bare assertions obviously contrast with these heteroglossic options in not overtly referencing other voices or recognising alternative positions. As a consequence, the communicative context is construed as single voiced ... By this, the speaker/writer presents the current proposition as one which has no dialogistic alternatives which need to be recognised, or engaged with, in the current communicative context – as dialogistically inert and hence capable of being declared categorically.” (2005: 99)

Examining the system of engagement as used by the students will allow us to investigate the way they positioned their voices in respect to other voices in the communicative context construed while discussing their translation decisions. According to the system of engagement, heteroglossic clauses can be divided into: a) dialogic contractive or b) dialogic expansive, depending on the degree to which an utterance makes allowances for alternative positions and voices. In dialogic contractive, speakers or writers can either:

- 1) **Proclaim** or limit the scope of dialogistic alternatives by endorsing, pronouncing or concurring different opinions. Speakers and writers can endorse and construe that alternative authorial voice as correct and valid by using verbs, such as ‘show’ and ‘prove’. Pronouncement involves authorial emphases and authorial interventions which can be realized through the use of locutions, such as ‘I contend’ and ‘the facts of the matter are’. Speakers and writers can also concur and agree with the alternative voice by using locutions, such as ‘naturally’ and ‘of

course’ (example 7.2). In example 7.2 (clause 2), student M2DE employed the token ‘of course’ in order to show that he concurred with other viewpoints which can state that ‘workshops’ might be used in German and limit the scope of his argument while justifying translating ‘workshops’ into ‘workgroups’.

Example 7.2: M2DE			
Clause 1	It	is	“workgroups” in German
	Subject	Finite	
	Mood block		Residue

Clause 2	Of course	you	can	say nowadays “workshops”
		Subject	Finite	
		Mood block		Residue
	Engagement/heteroglossic-contractive-proclaim-concur			

Clause 3	I thought	it	is	better to translated in more German like way
	Metaphor of modality	Subject	Finite	
	Mood block			Residue

- 2) Or **disclaim** and reject contrary positions by either using counter expectancy conjunctions or connectives (e.g. although, yet, and still) or denial (negation), as in example 7.3. In this example (clause 1), student F4EL described the strategy she used to translate the phrase ‘of the astonishing feast for the eyes inside’ into Greek, using a monoglossic clause with a positive finite ‘used’. In example 7.3 (clause 2), student F4EL used a heteroglossic clause employing the negation ‘not’ and the counter expectancy token ‘but’ in order to negate and counter any alternative opinions.

Example 7.3: F4EL			
Clause 1	[I]	used	a semi-translation
	Assumed subject	Finite	
	Mood block		Residue
	Engagement/monoglossic		

Clause 2	But	it	does not	make any sense in the target
		Subject	Finite	language
		Mood block		Residue
	Engagement/heteroglossic			

In dialogic expansion, speakers/writers allow for alternative viewpoints. They indicate that their proposition is one of a wide range of possible positions by either:

- 1) Attributing their propositions to other resources showing where the authorial voice stands with respect to the proposition by either acknowledging other stands (e.g. X believes) or distancing their voices from the attributable propositions (e.g. X claimed). No instances of attribution were found in the forms and interviews.
- 2) Or entertaining and invoking other opinions by indicating the subjectivity of other opinions (e.g. the report suggests). They can also entertain other opinions through the use of expressions of modality (e.g. may and probable), discussed by Halliday and Matthiessen (2004). In the data provided by the students in the forms and interviews, the expansive tokens used were of an entertaining type, as in example 7.4. In this example, the potentiality employed by student F7PT inscribed by the use of the modal adjunct ‘probably’ indicates the subjectivity of her opinion and an acceptance on her part of other textual opinions or points of view.

Example 7.4: F7PT			
Probably	adult	[are]	reading the page
Modal adverb	Subject	Assumed finite	
Mood block			Residue
Engagement/heteroglossic-expansive-entertainment			

Thus, in the present study, monoglossia or ‘bare assertions’ will be interpreted as indicating assertiveness, and heteroglossia will be considered as signalling tentativeness.

7.2 Engagement in the Language Used by the Trainee Translators

Clauses used by the students in the forms and interviews were categorised as monoglossic, which did not include any tokens of engagement, and heteroglossic

(including tokens of engagement). Thus they were classified according to whether the students negotiated their decisions by making a reference to alternative voices and viewpoints or presented their justifications objectively, as is clear in example 7.5. In this example, student F8FR justified including an explanation of her translation of the title of the text into French, using monoglossic and heteroglossic clauses. Clauses 1 and 3 are monoglossic since student F8FR excludes other opinions by using a positive finite ‘is/provides’. However, clause 2 is heteroglossic since student F8FR makes reference to other opinions by challenging them through the use of negation ‘not’.

Example 7.5: F8FR				
Clause 1	It	is	the name of the institute	
	Subject	Finite		
	Mood block		Residue	
	Engagement/monoglossic			

Clause 2	so	a direct translation	would not	be appropriate
		Subject	Finite	
		Mood block		
	Engagement/heteroglossic			

Clause 3	Explanation	provides	additional information
	Subject	Finite	
	Mood block		Residue
	Engagement/monoglossic		

Engagement in the Language Used by the Trainee Translators in the Forms

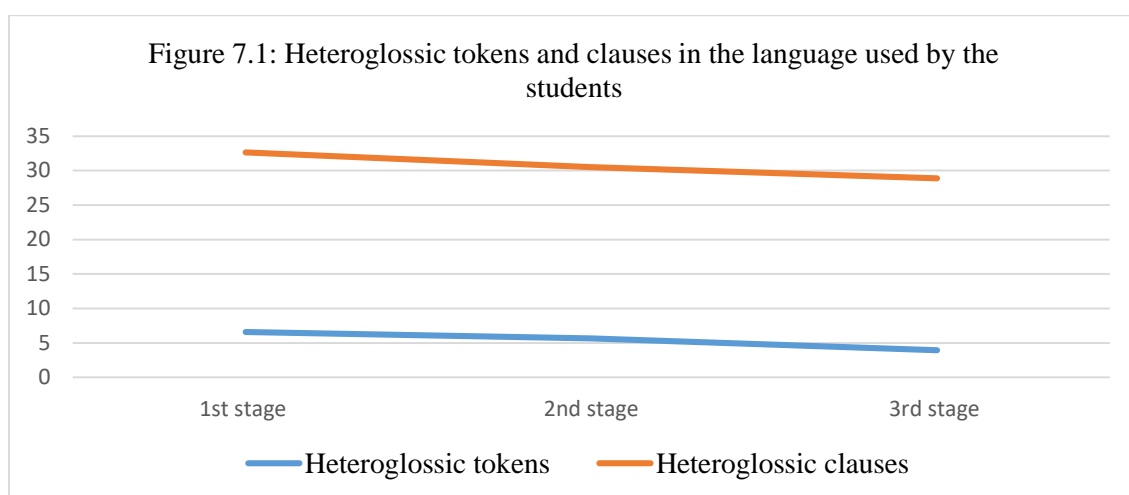
As mentioned in chapter six, in some cases an elliptical subject and finite were assumed. Since these cases are less clear cut than those where the subject and finite are explicit, and they involve an extra layer of interpretation on the part of the researcher, these clauses were considered separately from the explicit ones, so as to offer a more transparent view of the analysis. Table 7.1 gives an overview of results.

Table 7.1: The FR and Percentage of the Monoglossic and Heteroglossic Clauses Used by the Students in the Forms						
Engagement	1 st stage		2 nd stage		3 rd stage	
	RF	Percentage	RF	Percentage	RF	Percentage
Total number of monoglossic clauses	159	67.37%	230	69.48%	217	71.14%
Total number of monoglossic clauses with assumed subject and verb	137	58.05%	196	59.21%	191	62.62%
Total number of explicit monoglossic clauses	22	9.32%	34	10.27%	26	8.52%
Total number of heteroglossic clauses	77	32.62%	101	30.51%	88	28.85%
Total number of clauses	236		331		305	
Total number of heteroglossic tokens	RF	Percentage	RF	Percentage	RF	Percentage
	91	6.57%	129	5.65%	114	3.96%
Total number of words	1385		2281		2874	

By looking at the table, we can notice that the students used more monoglossic clauses than heteroglossic clauses while discussing translation problems, which is expected. A diachronic comparison shows that the number of monoglossic clauses increased by 2.11 percentage points (3.13%) during the second stage when compared with the beginning of the programme. This number further increased by 1.66 percentage points (2.38%) during the third stage in comparison with the second stage, leading to a decrease in the number of heteroglossic clauses. However, the chi-square test indicates that this development is not statistically significant $\{x^2 = 0.89, df = 2, P = 0.6408\}$, which means that the H_0 cannot be rejected, and as a result this distribution could be attributed to chance. This suggests that students showed a stable preference towards monoglossic clauses throughout the programme.

Concerning the number of heteroglossic tokens, the comparison of the three stages of data analysis indicates that the number of heteroglossic tokens used in the language offered by the students decreased by 0.92 percentage points (14%) in the middle of the year, only to further decrease by 1.69 percentage point (29.91%) by the end of the year in comparison with the second stage. The chi-square test indicates that the change in the number of the heteroglossic tokens used by the students across the three stages is statistically significant $\{x^2 = 15.25, df = 2, P = 0.0005\}$. This supports the H_1 , and suggests

that the decrease in the number of heteroglossic tokens by the end of the year is not due to chance. As explained above, monoglossia is typical of more assertive positions, where the speaker/writer does not feel the need to refer to alternative viewpoints and opinions, and heteroglossia suggests an awareness of multiple viewpoints and a less categorical attitude. Thus, despite that no significant changes were observed in the number of heteroglossic clauses, the fact that the decrease in the number of heteroglossic tokens towards the end of the year is significant and that the changes in the percentages of heteroglossic clauses and tokens are parallel and consistent with one another, as figure 7.1 shows, could allow us to tentatively hypothesise that trainee translators become more assertive after following a translation training programme.



Engagement in the Language Used by the Trainee Translators in the Interviews

Unlike the translation forms, there was no need to assume subjects and verbs due to the different format of data; interviews gave the students the opportunity and time to express themselves and hence used complete sentences rather than shortened answers. Table 7.2 gives an overview of the results.

Table 7.2: The FR and Percentage of the Monoglossic and Heteroglossic Clauses Used by the Students in the Interviews						
Engagement	1 st stage		2 nd stage		3 rd stage	
	RF	Percentage	RF	Percentage	RF	Percentage
Total number of monoglossic clauses	121	28.40%	171	27.36%	116	23.57%

Total number of heteroglossic clauses	305	71.59%	454	72.64%	376	76.42%
Total number of clauses	426		625		492	
Total number of heteroglossic tokens	RF	Percentage	RF	Percentage	RF	Percentage
	477	10.02%	721	10.46%	585	10.23%
Total number of words	4758		6890		5716	

Comparing the total number of monoglossic and heteroglossic clauses used by the students indicates that the heteroglossic type prevailed over the monoglossic, contrary to the results obtained from the forms, and to expectations. According to Anderwald (2002: 200), “negative clauses are much less frequent than their positive counterparts in spoken language. Although it has been shown that negation is far more frequent in conversation than in written texts, negative clauses are still much rarer than positive ones”. Thus the results suggest that the format of the data has an important influence on the use of either heteroglossia or monoglossia.

Diachronically, the number of heteroglossic clauses increased by 1.05 percentage points (1.46%) during the second stage, only to further increase by 3.78 percentage points (5.2%) by the end of the year in comparison with the second stage. Similar to the data collected from the translation forms, the chi-square test indicates that this development is not statistically significant $\{x^2 = 3.19, df = 2, P = 0.2029\}$. This indicates that the H_0 cannot be rejected and this change could be due to chance, and that the students used monoglossic and heteroglossic clauses with approximately the same frequency throughout the programme.

It is also noticeable that there seems to be no difference in the percentages of heteroglossic tokens across the three stages of data analysis. The chi-square test indicates that the difference in the number of the heteroglossic tokens used by the students across the three stages is not statistically significant $\{x^2 = 0.6, df = 2, P = 0.7408\}$. The result of the test does not allow us to reject the H_0 , and therefore indicates that any change could be due to chance. This result contradicts the development pattern noticed in the forms, where the decrease in the number of heteroglossic tokens towards the end of the year was statistically significant. This contradiction in the development patterns concerning the number of heteroglossic tokens and clauses between the forms and interviews makes it difficult to support the previous hypothesis that trainee trainees become more assertive

after following a translation training programme. However, it is worth considering that the number of interviewees is small and therefore any results could be biased, and therefore this hypothesis cannot be totally disregarded.

7.2.1 The Types of Heteroglossic Tokens Used by the Trainee Translators

The heteroglossic tokens provided by the students in the forms and interviews were classified into contractive and expansive tokens. This classification was based on whether the students included or excluded alternative viewpoints while discussing their translation decisions. When students included alternative viewpoints, they used expansive tokens of the type employed in example 7.6. Student M3ZH (example 7.6, clause 1) used the verb ‘tend to’ to hedge and tone down his description of the problem he encountered while translating the sentence ‘there is so much to see and do’ into Chinese. Student M3ZH also used the modal finite of probability ‘may’ in his description of the problem (example 7.6, clause 2) to signal that his proposition is open for negotiation.

Example 7.6: M3ZH				
Clause 1	In Chinese,	meaning of words	tend to	be more concrete
		Subject	Finite	
		Mood block		Residue
	Engagement/expansive			

Clause 2	Literal translation		may	sound strange here
	Subject		Modal finite	
	Mood block			Residue
	Engagement/expansive			

When students excluded alternative viewpoints, they used contractive tokens, similar to the one employed by student M2DE in example 7.7. In example 7.7, student M2DE justified explaining the title ‘Cadbury World’ into German, rejecting other textual opinions by negating clause 1 in order to counter the expectations of alternative voices through the use of the tokens ‘however’ in clause 2.

Example 7.7: M2DE				
Clause 1	In German,	the name of the brand/firm	Remains	Untranslated
		Subject	Finite	
		Mood block		
	Engagement/contractive			

Clause 2	However,	there	was	a need of translation in regards to the next sentence describing this world.
		Subject	Finite	
		Mood block		Residue
	Engagement/contractive			

The Types of Heteroglossic Tokens Used by the Trainee Translators in the Forms

Instances of both contractive and expansive tokens were employed by the trainee translators in their discussion of translation decisions. Comparing the number of contractive and expansive tokens out of the total number of heteroglossic tokens indicates that most of the tokens used by the students were contractive (see example 7.6 above), challenging other textual voices, rather than expansive, through which they allowed alternative opinions to take part in the argument during the three stages, as in example 7.7 (see figure 7.2).

Figure 7.2: The percentage for the contractive and expansive tokens used by the students in the forms

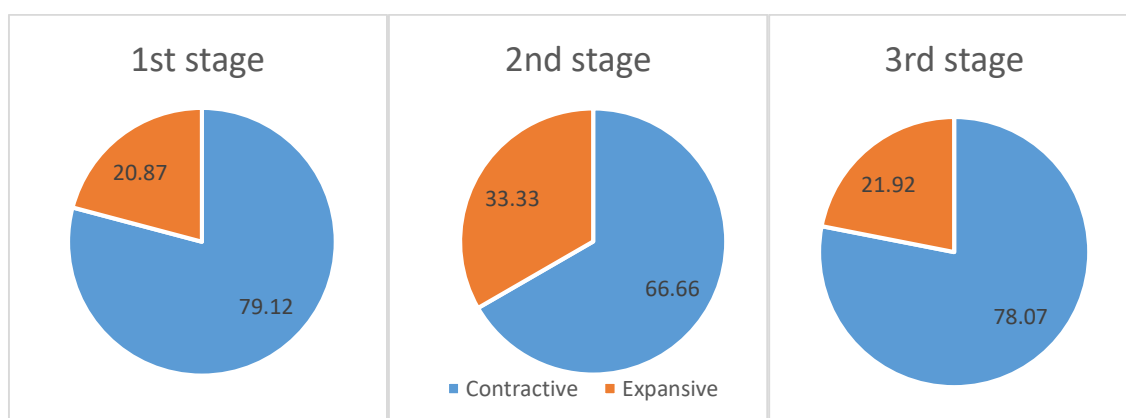


Table 7.3: The RF and Percentage of the Contractive and Expansive Tokens Used by the Students in the Forms						
Tokens of Engagement	1 st stage		2 nd stage		3 rd stage	
	RF	Percentage	RF	Percentage	RF	Percentage
Total number of contractive tokens	72	5.19%	86	3.77%	89	3.09%
Total number of expansive tokens	19	1.37%	43	1.88%	25	0.86%
Total number of Words	1385		2281		2874	

The comparison of the percentages of expansive tokens across the three stages indicates that they remained stable, as table 7.3 shows. Concerning the trainee trainees' development in relation to contractive tokens, comparing the percentages of contractive tokens out of the total number of words across the three stages indicates that they decreased by 1.42 percentage point (27.36%) during the second stage, only to remain stable towards the end of the year in comparison with the second stage. The chi-square test indicates that the difference in the number of contractive tokens used by the students out of the total number of words across the three stages is statistically significant $\{x^2 = 11.36, df = 2, P = 0.0034\}$, supporting the H_1 . This indicates that the change in the number of contractive tokens is not due to chance. This suggests that translation training affects the way students present their discussion of translation problems, in which they become less concerned about excluding alternative opinions and viewpoints while following a translation training programme.

The Types of Heteroglossic Tokens Used by the Students in the Interviews

Figure 7.3 shows that, similar to the data obtained from the forms, the students used more contractive tokens than expansive tokens while discussing translation decisions throughout the academic year of the types used in examples 6.7 and 7.7 above.

Figure 7.3: The percentage for the contractive and expansive tokens used by the students in the interviews

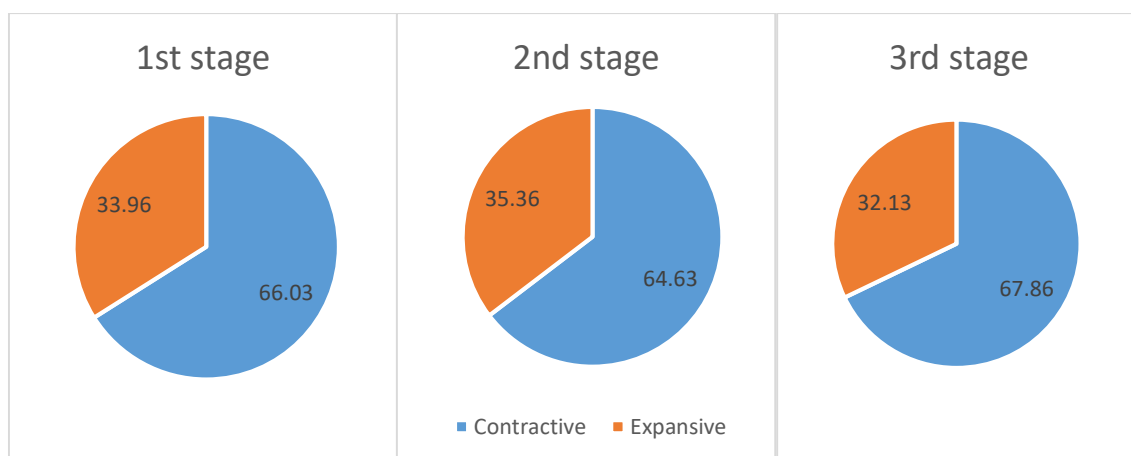


Table 7.4: The RF and Percentage of the Contractive and Expansive Tokens Used by the Students in the Interviews

Tokens of Engagement	1 st stage		2 nd stage		3 rd stage	
	RF	Percentage	RF	Percentage	RF	Percentage
Total number of contractive tokens	315	6.62%	466	6.76%	397	6.94%
Total number of expansive tokens	162	3.4%	255	3.7%	188	3.28%
Total number of words	4758		6890		5716	

In relation to the trainee translators' development patterns, table 7.4 indicates that the percentages of expansive tokens across the three stages remained stable. It also indicates that there was no change in the percentages of contractive tokens out of the total number of words throughout the academic year. Also, the chi-square test indicates that the difference in the number of the contractive tokens out of the total number of words across the three stages is not statistically significant $\{x^2 = 0.44, df = 2, P = 0.8025\}$, thus the H_0 cannot be rejected and this distribution is most likely due to chance. Thus, it seems that the development pattern drawn from the data collected in the interviews does not support the indication drawn from the forms: a decrease in the number of contractive tokens was noticeable towards the end of the year in comparison with the beginning of the programme. This contradiction necessitates further research in this area in order to

investigate the effect of translation training on changes to the students' level of assertiveness while discussing translation decisions.

7.2.1.1 Types of Expansive and Contractive Tokens Used by the Trainee Translators

The expansive tokens used by the students in the forms and interviews were of an entertaining type, as previously mentioned, where the students showed their subjectivity while opening their arguments for discussion, as it is evident in example 7.8. In example 7.8, student M3ZH used a grammatical interpersonal metaphor 'I think' adjusted to the main clause to frame his justification of explaining certain names (e.g. Reredo, Pulpit, pew) into Chinese. The use of this interpersonal metaphor indicates the subjectivity of student M3ZH's opinion, and that he can be persuaded otherwise.

Example 7.8: M3ZH			
I think	the translation	is	Clear
Metaphor of modality	Subject	Finite	
Mood block			Residue
Heteroglossic-expansive-entertainment			

Concerning the types of contractive tokens used, the students 1) proclaimed and limited the scope of their arguments by either endorsing or pronouncing different opinions, as evident in examples 7.9 and 7.10. In example 7.9, student F8FR used a monoglossic clause (clause 1), followed by a heteroglossic clause (clause 2), in which she used 'much more' to emphasise the popularity of the strategy she used, i.e. changing the phrase 'shop open to non-visitors' into 'open to public' into French. In example 7.10, student F4EL employed the locution 'indeed' to limit the scope of her argument while showing an agreement with alternative viewpoints when describing the solution used to solve the problem encountered in translating the title 'Whitley Court' into Greek.

Example 7.9: F8FR			
Clause 1	The literal translation	leads to	an awkward phrase
	Subject	Finite	
	Mood block		Residue

Clause 2	“Open to public”	is	much more common
	Subject	Finite	
	Mood block		Residue
	Heteroglossic-contractive-proclaim-pronounce		

Example 7.10: F4EL			
Indeed	I	used	the word “έπαυλη” (mansion) for the word court
	Subject	Finite	
	Mood block		Residue
Heteroglossic-contractive-proclaim-concur			

The students also 2) disclaimed and rejected contrary positions by either using counter expectancy conjunctions or negation, as it is clear in example 7.11. In this example, student F9ES explained why she translated the two verbs ‘discover’ and ‘uncover’ into one word in Spanish by negating her proposition (clause 1) to challenge other viewpoints which might indicate that Portuguese had two separate words for these two verbs. Student F9ES also limited the scope of her argument by using the connective ‘just’ to counter the expectancy of any alternative textual voices in clause 2.

Example 7.11: F9ES			
Clause 1	They	do not	have a separate word for these two
	Subject	Finite	
	Mood block		Residue
	Heteroglossic-contractive-disclaim-denial		

Clause 2	They	just	Use	the same word
	Subject		Finite	just one
	Mood block			Residue
	Heteroglossic-contractive-disclaim- counter-expectancy			

By classifying the contractive tokens employed by the students into disclaim and proclaim, we will examine whether the students excluded alternative opinions and closed

down their arguments by challenging alternative textual voices, using tokens of disclaim, or by endorsing different opinions through the employment of tokens of proclaim. This will help us investigate in more depth the changes in the manner in which trainee translators justified their decisions while following the translation training programme.

The Types of Contractive Tokens Used by the Trainee Translators in the forms

The comparison of the percentages of disclaim and proclaim tokens used by the students out of the total number of contractive tokens indicates the overall prominence of disclaim tokens through the three stages, as figure 7.4 shows.

Figure 7.4: The percentage for the types of contractive tokens used by the students in the forms

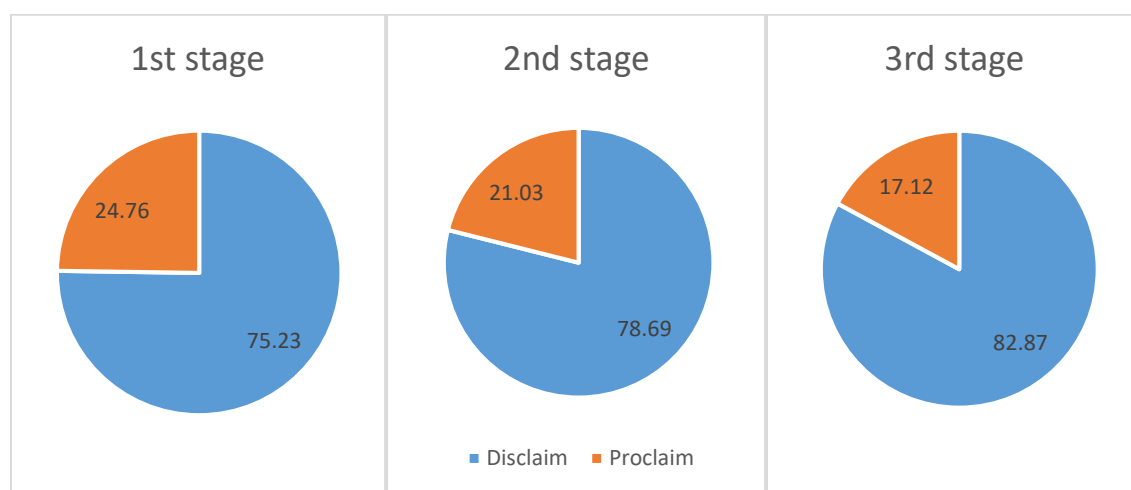


Table 7.5: The RF and Percentage of the Types of Contractive Tokens Used by the Students in the Forms							
Contractive tokens		1 st stage		2 nd stage		3 rd stage	
		RF	Percentage	RF	Percentage	RF	Percentage
Disclaim	Counter	8	0.57%	21	0.92%	10	0.34%
	Denial	43	3.1%	35	1.53%	58	2.01%
	Total	51	3.68%	56	2.45%	68	2.36%
Proclaim	Pronounce	21	1.51%	28	1.22%	20	0.69%
	Concur	0	0	2	0.08%	1	0.03%
	Total	21	1.51%	30	1.31%	21	0.73%
Total number of Words		1385		2281		2874	

Comparing the percentages of tokens of proclaim across the three stages indicates that they remained stable. By comparing the percentages of contractive tokens of disclaim out of the total number of words (see table 7.5 above), we find that the number of tokens where the students disclaimed alternative opinions decreased by 1.23 percentage point (33.42%) during the second stage in comparison with the first stage, only to remain stable during the third stage in comparison with the second stage. The chi-square test indicates that this development across the three stages out of the total number of words is statistically significant $\{x^2 = 6.87, df = 2, P = 0.0322\}$. This result supports the H_1 and suggests that this is not due to chance and could be related to translation training. The decrease in the number of tokens of disclaim reflects the decrease in the total number of contractive tokens. This also suggests that the students become less willing to challenge alternative viewpoints after following a translation training programme.

Types of Contractive Tokens Used by the Trainee Translators in the Interviews

Similar to the data obtained from the forms, the comparison of the number of disclaim and proclaim tokens out of the total number of contractive tokens used by the students indicates the overall prominence of disclaim tokens throughout the three stages of data analysis, as shown in figure 7.5.

Figure 7.5: The percentage for the types of contractive tokens used by the students in the interviews

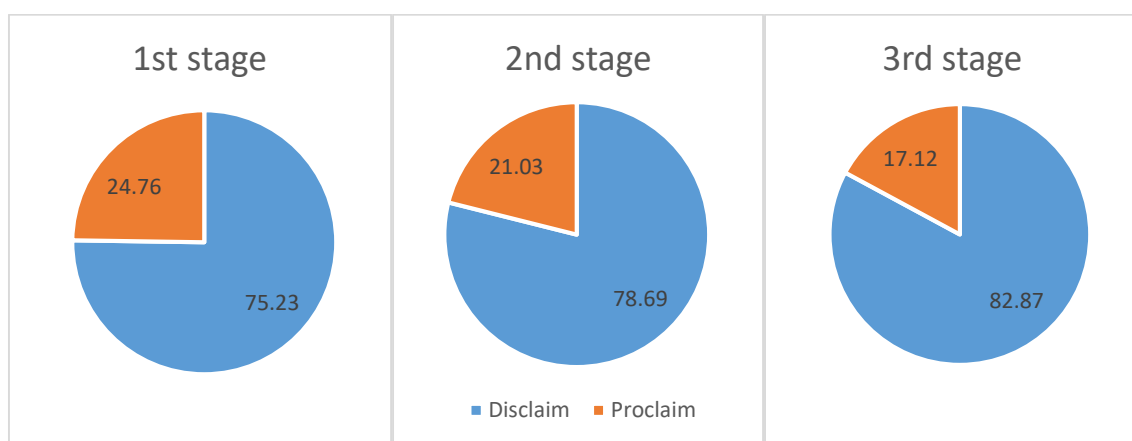


Table 7.6: The RF and Percentage of the Types of Contractive Tokens Used by the Students in the Interviews							
Contractive tokens		1st stage		2nd stage		3rd stage	
		RF	Percentage	RF	Percentage	RF	Percentage
Disclaim	Counter	116	2.43%	211	3.06%	168	2.93%
	Denial	121	2.54%	157	2.27%	161	2.81%
	Total	237	4.98%	368	5.34%	329	5.75%
Proclaim	Pronounce	65	1.36%	78	1.13%	50	0.87%
	Concur	13	0.27%	20	0.29%	18	0.31%
	Total	78	1.63%	98	1.42%	68	1.18%
Total number of Words		4758		6890		5716	

Similar to the forms, comparing the percentages of tokens of proclaim across the three stages indicates that these percentages remained stable (see table 7.6 above). Similarly, the comparison of the percentages of tokens where the students disclaimed alternative opinions indicates that the number of these tokens remained stable across the three stages. The chi-square test suggests that the difference in the number of the contractive tokens of disclaim used by the students is not statistically significant $\{x^2 = 3.09, df = 2, P = 0.2133\}$. This does not allow us to reject the H_0 , and therefore any difference in the numbers across the three stages could be due to chance. Thus the result from the interviews does not support the suggestion based on the data collected from the forms, which could be due to the small number of interviews, as previously mentioned.

In conclusion, the changes in the data in relation to the system of engagement were statistically significant in the forms while they were not in the interviews. Based on the data from the forms, there was a decrease in the overall number of heterologous tokens towards the end of the academic year, which was reflected in the decrease in the number of contractive tokens of disclaim. This suggests that trainee translators adopt more assertive positioning in their discussion of translation problems after following a translation training programme, and this positioning is reflected in how they are less concerned about challenging alternative opinions and viewpoints.

7.3 Graduation in the Appraisal Theory

Graduation works across two scales:

- a) Force refers to the grading according to intensity or amount. The assessment of the degree of intensity is called intensification (example 7.12) while the up/downscaling according to the amount (number, size and weight) is called quantification (example 7.13). In example 7.12, the use of attitudinal adjectives, such as ‘natural’ and ‘correct’, signals student F9ES’ positive attitude towards her translation which is further intensified through the use of the intensifier locution ‘more’. In example 7.13, student F5ZH explained the problem she encountered in translating the title ‘Cadbury World’ in Chinese by intensifying the number of British people who might know that Cadbury is a brand of chocolate by using the token ‘all’, indicating that not all Chinese people know this brand of chocolate.

Example 7.12: F9ES		
It	is	more natural sounding text, grammatically correct
Subject	Finite	
Mood block		Residue
Graduation/force-intensification-upscaling		

Example 7.13: F5ZH			
For UK people,	they	might	all know that is brand of chocolate
	Subject	Finite	
		Mood block	
Graduation/force-quantification-upscaling			

- b) Focus grades the preciseness of not scalable categories. Under focus, values of softening (hedges) or sharpening (boosters and amplifiers), upscale or downscale the prototypicality of the categories. In example 7.14, while describing the strategy used to translate the phrase ‘attractive and well equipped area’, student M2DE hedged his proposition, lessening his investment in the value position of his clause and accepting contrary opinions which might indicate that it is not literal translation.

Example 7.14: M2DE				
	I	kind of	translated	Literally
	Subject		Finite	
	Mood block			Residue
Graduation/focus-softening				
Because	there	is		no direct connotation
	Subject	Finite		
	Mood block			Residue

The upscaling and downscaling of items can be achieved by using certain words such as ‘more’ and ‘never’, as in examples 7.15 and 7.16 or via repetition, as in example 7.17. In example 7.15, student F9ES justified translating the word ‘mill’ in the title ‘the Forge Mill Needle Museum’ into ‘factory’ while translating into Spanish, using the intensifier ‘more’ in order to intensify the positive attitude expressed through the use of the adjective ‘natural’. On the other hand, student F1EL (example 7.16) used the modal adverb ‘never’ in order to upscale the degree of negativity expressed in the proposition while describing the problem encountered in translating the words ‘zones’ in Greek. In example 7.17, student F6ZH intensified the difficulty she encountered in translating the term ‘listed building’ into Chinese by repeating the clause “it is hard for us”, first mentioned in clause 1, in clause 2 while describing this problem.

Example 7.15: F9ES		
[It]	makes	more natural sense
Assumed subject	Finite	
Mood block		Residue
Graduation/force-intensification-upscaling		

Example 7.16: F1EL			
You	never	hear	about zones.
Subject	Modal verb	Finite	
Mood block			Residue
Graduation/force-intensification-upscaling			

Example 7.17: F6ZH				
Clause 1	Maybe	this kind of expression	is	hard for us
		Subject	Finite	
		Mood block		Residue
	because	we	do not	say it in this way in
		Subject	Finite	Chinese
		Mood block		Residue

Clause 2	So	it	is	hard for us to know the exact meaning of the original text.
		Subject	Finite	
		Mood block		Residue
	Graduation/force-intensification-upscaling			

Typically, softening or downscaling attitudinal and engagement values lessens the speaker/writer's investment in the value position, indicating an acceptance of contrary views and partial commitment to the value position being adopted (Martin and White, 2005: 139). On the other hand, intensification or sharpening indicates higher investment by the authorial voice in the value position advanced, either negative or positive, strongly aligning the addressee with this value position (ibid). Studying the use of graduation will help us to understand the degree of students' investment in their propositions while justifying their translation decisions and thus their positions in relation to alternative textual voices and viewpoints.

7.4 Graduation in the Language Used by the Trainee Translators

The clauses used in the translation forms and interviews were divided into those including tokens of graduation and those which did not include any such tokens, in order to examine whether the students used graduation tokens to increase or decrease the degree of investment in their clauses and investigate the stance they adopted in their discussion of translation decisions, as in example 7.18. In this example, student F9ES justified translating the phrase 'water power machinery' into 'the mechanical machines which were powered by water'. While students F9ES did not use any tokens of graduation in clause 1, she employed the token 'a bit' in addition to the token 'more' in order to

downscale her investment in the proposition in clause 2, thus showing her subjectivity in her statement.

Example 7.18: F9ES			
Clause 1	I	said:	'the mechanical machines which were powered by water'
	Subject	Finite	
	Mood block		Residue

Clause 2	It	is	like a similar thing but just a bit more explanatory
	Subject	Finite	
	Mood block		Residue
	Graduation		

Graduation in the Language Used by the Trainee Translators in the Forms

Tokens of graduation were found in the data provided by the students in the forms throughout the three stages of data analysis, as table 7.7 indicates.

Table 7.7: The RF and Percentage of Graduated Clauses Used by the Students in the Forms						
Graduation	1 st stage		2 nd stage		3 rd stage	
Total number of clauses	236		331		305	
Total number of graduated clauses	RF	Percentage	RF	Percentage	RF	Percentage
	28	11.86%	48	14.5%	30	9.83%
Total number of words	1385		2281		2874	
Total number of tokens of graduation	RF	Percentage	RF	Percentage	RF	Percentage
	31	2.23%	53	2.32%	32	1.11%

The comparison of the percentages of the graduated clauses indicates that the number of graduated clauses increased by 2.64 percentage points (22.25%) during the second stage, and decreased by 4.67 percentage points (32.2%) during the third stage in comparison with the second stage. The statistical test (chi-square) indicates that this change across the three stages of data analysis is not statistically significant $\{x^2 = 3.26, df = 2, P = 0.1959\}$.

This result does not allow us to reject the H_0 which means that this variation could be due to chance in terms of the number of graduated clauses employed by trainee translators.

In terms of the number of tokens of graduation used by the students, we can notice that the number of tokens of graduation remained stable during the first and second stages, only to decrease by 1.21 percentage point (52.15%) during the third stage in comparison with the second stage. Despite the small changes in the percentage points, the chi-square test indicates that the difference in the number of tokens of graduation used by the students across the three stages is statistically significant $\{x^2 = 12.87, df = 2, P = 0.0016\}$. This result supports the H_1 and suggests that this difference is not due to chance. Therefore, the decrease in the number of tokens of graduation by the end of the academic year in comparison with the beginning of the programme could indicate that the students became less concerned about explicitly signalling the value position being advanced in their argument. This could allow us to hypothesise that students adopt a more detached stance in their discussion of translation problems after following a translation training programme.

Graduation in the Language Used by the Trainee Translators in the Interviews

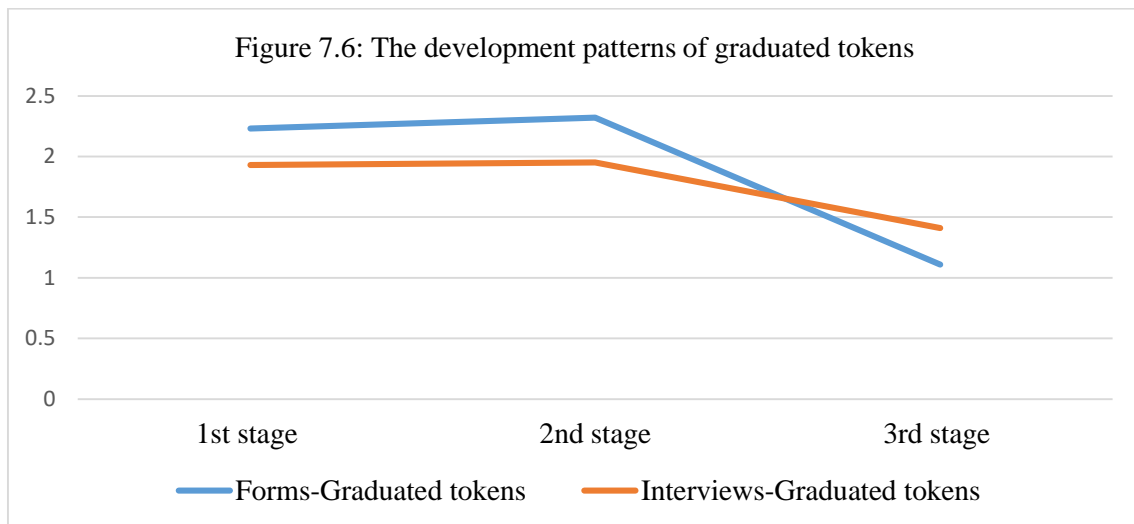
More instances of graduation were found in the data provided by the students in the interviews than in the forms, as table 7.8 illustrates. This could be due to the nature of the method used to elicit these data, as noted in previous instances.

Table 7.8: The RF and Percentage of Graduated Clauses Used by the Students in the Interviews						
Graduation	1st stage		2nd stage		3rd stage	
Total number of clauses	426		625		492	
Total number of graduated clauses	RF	Percentage	RF	Percentage	RF	Percentage
	87	20.42%	126	20.16%	78	15.85%
Total number of words	4758		6890		5716	
Total number of tokens of graduation	RF	Percentage	RF	Percentage	RF	Percentage
	92	1.93%	135	1.95%	81	1.41%

The comparison across stages indicates that the percentage of the graduated clauses remained stable during the second stage in comparison with the first stage, before

decreasing by 4.31 percentage points (21.37%) towards the end of the year. However, similar to the data collected from the forms, the chi-square test indicates that the difference in the number of graduated clauses used by the students across the three stages is not statistically significant $\{\chi^2 = 4.28, df = 2, P = 0.1177\}$. This does not allow us to reject the H_0 and suggests that this variation could be attributed to luck.

In terms of the tokens of graduation used by the students, the percentages of graduation tokens remained stable during the second stage in comparison with the first stage, before decreasing by 0.54 percentage points (27.69%) towards the end of the year. Despite the small changes in the percentages of the total number of graduated tokens throughout the year, the chi-square test indicates that the variation out of the total number of words across the three stages is statistically significant $\{\chi^2 = 6.23, df = 2, P = 0.0444\}$, supporting the H_1 , and suggesting that this is not due to chance. This development pattern is similar to the one drawn from the table (see figure 7.6), where a decrease in the number of tokens of graduation was noticeable towards the end of the year. Therefore, the result in the interviews supports the hypothesis drawn from the forms that students adopt a more detached stance in their discussion of translation problems after following a translation training programme.



7.4.1 Types of Graduation Tokens in the Language Used by the Trainee Translators

The tokens of graduation used by the students in the forms were of force either of intensification or quantification, illustrated in examples 7.19 and 7.20 respectively. In example 7.19, student F9ES justified translating the title ‘Cadbury World’ into Spanish, rather than leaving it in English, through the use of the comparative suffix –er in order to upscale the intensity of her positive attitude towards the strategy she used. In example 7.35, student F9ES described the problem she encountered while translating the text by upscaling the quantity of cultural references in order to intensify the problem.

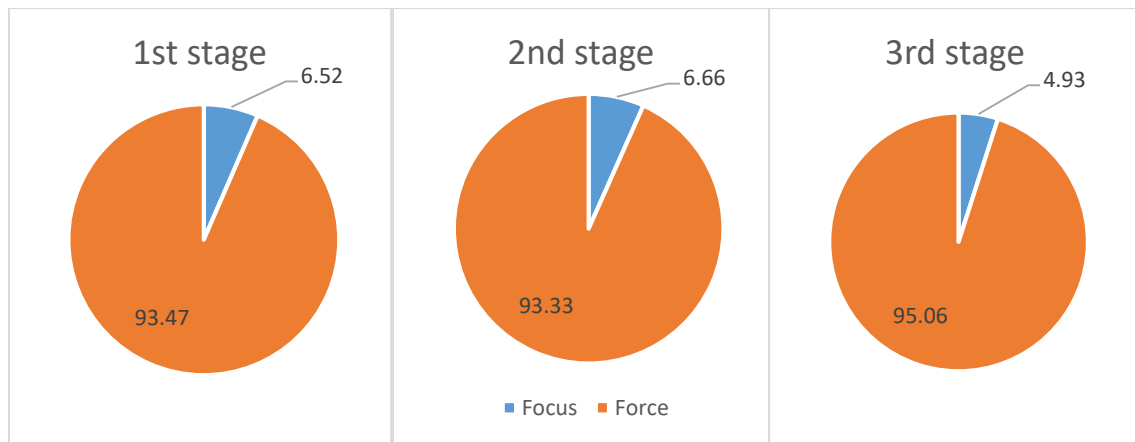
Example 7.19: F9ES				
Clause 1	I just thought	it	flowed	Better
		Subject	Finite	
		Mood block		Residue
	Graduation/force			

Clause 2	[There]	[is]	not really other reasons
	Subject	Finite	
	Mood block		Residue

Example 7.20: F9ES		
There	are	a lot of culture specific references such as dairy milk
Subject	Finite	
Mood block		Residue
Graduation/force-quantification		

Most of the tokens of graduation used by the students in the interviews were also of force, similar to ones used in the forms in examples 7.18 and 7.19 above, while a few instances of graduation tokens of focus were employed (see example 7.20 below), as figure 7.7 illustrates.

Figure 7.7: The percentage for the types of tokens of graduation used by the students in the interviews



This indicates that the students focused more on the degree of their investment in the clauses they produced rather than the prototypicality of their utterances, similar to the data obtained from the forms. In example 7.20, student F6ZH described the strategy she used to translate the title ‘Cadbury World’ by downscaling her investment in the prototypicality of the strategy she used, signalling her acceptance of alternative viewpoints which could question this type of strategy and indicating that her translation is not a transliteration of the title ‘Cadbury World’.

Example 7.20: F6ZH				
Clause 1	In China	it	is	the widely accepted translation of ‘Cadbury world’
		Subject	Finite	
		Mood block		Residue

Clause 2	It	is	kind of transliteration
	Subject	Finite	
	Mood block		Residue
	Graduation/focus		

Table 7.9 indicates that out of the total number of words, the percentages of graduation tokens of force in the interviews across the three stages of data analysis remained stable across the three stages of data analysis. The chi-square test indicates that the difference in the number of the graduation tokens of force used by the students across the three

stages is not statistically significant $\{x^2 = 5.25, df = 2, P = 0.0724\}$. This indicates that the H_0 cannot be rejected and this decrease could be due to chance in terms of the types of graduation tokens used by trainee translators.

Table 7.9: The RF and Percentage of the Types of Graduation Tokens Used by the Students in the Interviews

Tokens of Graduation	1 st stage		2 nd stage		3 rd stage	
	RF	Percentage	RF	Percentage	RF	Percentage
Number of tokens of force	86	1.8%	126	1.82%	77	1.34%
Number of tokens of focus	6	0.12%	9	0.13%	4	0.06%
Total number of words	4758		6890		5716	

Thus, an overall prominence of tokens of force was noticeable in the language offered by the students in the forms and interviews. However, no hypotheses can be drawn concerning the types of tokens of graduation used by the students in relation to the translation training they followed. This is due to the fact that no significant changes were noticed in their development patterns based on the data provided in the forms and interviews.

7.4.2 Graduation Values of Force: Upscaling vs. Downscaling

The graduation tokens of force used by the students throughout the year were classified into values of upscaling and downscaling, which would reflect the degree of students' investment in their propositions, as explained in examples 7.21 and 7.22. In example 7.21, student F3AR used the token 'most' to show a strong investment in her justification of her translation of the proposition 'around' as 'towards' into Arabic, intensifying her positive attitude towards this translation as reflected in the adjective 'suitable'. In example 7.22, student F1EL justified not translating the sentence 'from learning how your favourite confectionery is made and uncovering the fascinating story of Cadbury chocolate, to playing in chocolate rain and creating your own delicious taste sensation covered in warm liquid Dairy Milk' literally into Greek by using a negative form of the intensifier 'very' to signal her weak commitment in this proposition and indicate that this is open to negotiation.

Example 7.21: F3AR			
Clause 1	The meaning of “around”	might not	be a proposition
	Subject	Finite	
	Mood block		Residue

Clause 2	But	I	do not	know whether its translation is correct
		Subject	Finite	or not
		Mood block		Residue

Clause 3	This	is	the most suitable one	
	Subject	Finite		
	Mood block			Residue
	Graduation/force-intensification-upscaling			

Example 7.22: F1EL					
Clause 1	Translating word for word	it	won't	Sound	I think
		Subject	Finite		
		Mood block			Residue

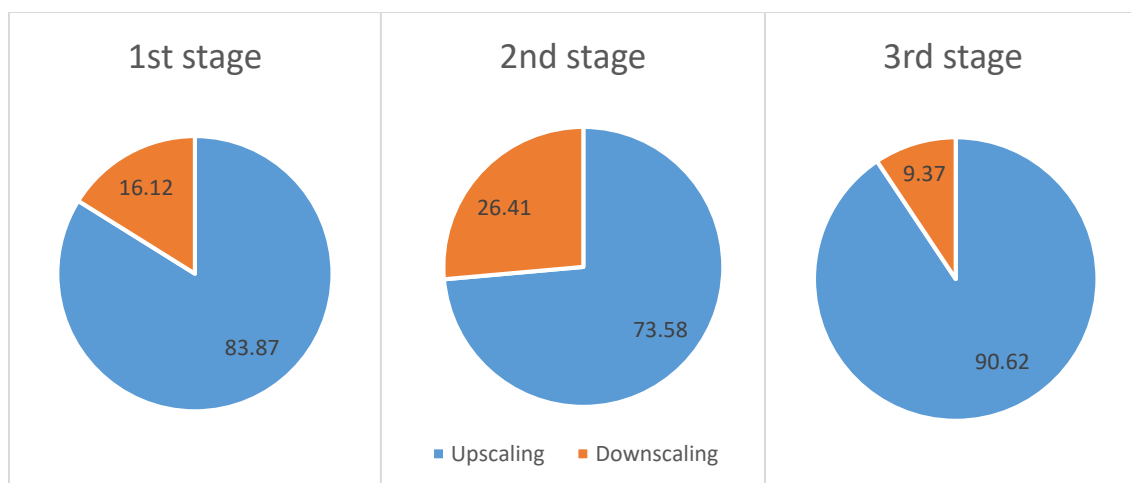
Clause 2	It	will not	sound very good		
	Subject	Finite			
	Mood block				Residue
	Graduation/force-intensification-downscaling				

Graduation Values: Upscaling vs. Downscaling in the Forms

The students used graduation tokens to upscale and downscale their positions in the arguments they were making while discussing the translation decisions. Figure 7.8 indicates that most of the tokens of graduation used by the students were of an upscaling type. This suggests that the students upscaled their investment in most of the clauses they used to describe their translation problems and strategies in the forms rather than downscaling their value positions in their statements. This strong preference for upscaling tokens of graduation could be due to the nature of the data and the fact that the students

were asked to present and justify their solutions, which could be considered a source of bias.

Figure 7.8: The percentage for the graduation values used by the students in the forms



Values of Graduation	1 st stage		2 nd stage		3 rd stage	
	RF	Percentage	RF	Percentage	RF	Percentage
Number of tokens of upscaling	26	1.87%	39	1.7%	29	1%
Number of tokens of downscaling	5	0.36%	14	0.61%	3	0.1%
Total number of words	1385		2281		2874	

According to table 7.10, the comparison of the percentages of downscaling tokens across the three stages of data analysis indicates that they remained stable. The comparison of the percentages of upscaling tokens across the three stages of data analysis indicates that they remained stable during the first and second stages, only to decrease by 0.7 percentage points (41.17%) during the third stage in comparison with the second stage. The chi-square test indicates that the difference in the number of the graduation tokens of upscaling out of the total number of words across the three stages is statistically significant $\{x^2 = 6.81, df = 2, P = 0.0332\}$. This supports the H_1 and indicates that the variation in the data is not due to chance. Thus the decrease in the number of graduation tokens of upscaling towards the end of the year suggests that trainee translators reduced

their degree of investment in the value position of their statements after following the translation training programme.

Graduation Values: Upscaling vs. Downscaling in the Interviews

Similar to the data provided in the forms, most of the tokens of graduation used in the interviews were of upscaling, as figure 7.9 shows. More tokens of downscaling were used in the data provided by the students in the interviews than in the forms, which could be due to the fact that the interviews allowed the students to be more expressive.

Figure 7.9: The percentage for the graduation values used by the students in the interviews

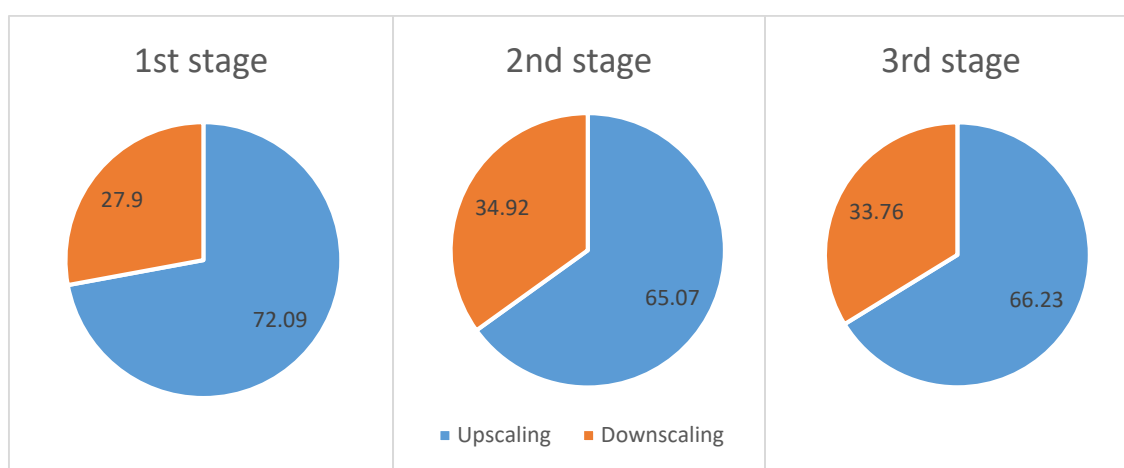
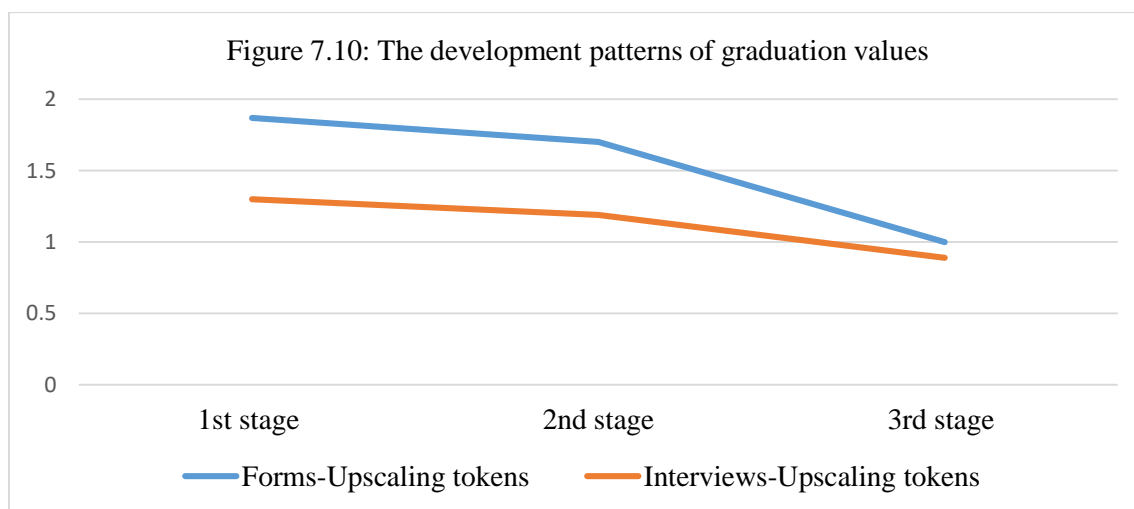


Table 7.11: The RF and Percentage of Graduation Values Used by the Students in the Interviews						
Values of Graduation	1 st stage		2 nd stage		3 rd stage	
	RF	Percentage	RF	Percentage	RF	Percentage
Number of tokens of upscaling	62	1.3%	82	1.19%	51	0.89%
Number of tokens of downscaling	24	0.5%	44	0.63%	26	0.45%
Total number of words	4758		6890		5716	

Table 7.11 shows that the development patterns of graduation values of the forms were replicated in the interviews. The percentages of downscaling tokens across the three stages of data analysis indicates that they remained stable. The percentages of upscaling tokens remained stable during the first and second stages, only to decrease by 0.30 percentage points (25.21%) by the end of the programme, compared to the middle of the

programme. The chi-square test indicates that the difference in the number of graduation tokens of upscaling out of the total number of words across the three stages is not statistically significant $\{\chi^2 = 4.41, df = 2, P = 0.1103\}$. This does not allow us to reject the H_0 , and therefore the variation in the data across the three stages could be due to chance. Although, unlike the data in the forms, this is not statistically significant, we need to take into consideration that the number of interviewees is small in comparison with the number of students who filled in the forms. Thus the fact that the trainee translators' pattern of development in relation to the upscaling value of graduation tokens in the forms and interviews are parallel, as figure 7.10 shows, this reflects the decrease in the overall number of tokens of graduation towards the end of the year in comparison with the beginning of the programme. This suggests that the trainee translators' detached stance which they developed towards the end of the year was reflected in a lower degree of investments in the value position construed in their discussion of translation decisions after following a translation training programme.



7.5 Conclusion

Despite the small number of frequencies, which might explain the minimal changes in the data across the three stages of data analysis, it is possible to draw a number of tentative hypotheses. A study of the engagement system in the data provided by the students indicates a decrease in the number of heteroglossic tokens by the end of the academic year in comparison with the beginning of the year. This could allow us to hypothesise

that trainee translators adopts a more assertive positioning in their discussion of translation problems after following a translation training programme. This assertiveness was reflected in the decrease in the number of contractive tokens, more specifically tokens of disclaim, towards the end of the year. This suggests that this assertive positioning on the part of trainee translators is signalled by fewer cases of heteroglossia used to challenge alternative opinions. Thus the students seemed to be less willing to engage alternative viewpoints, which could be interpreted as an increased confidence in their own judgement, although it could also suggest that they became less critical. These results were statistically significant in the translation forms, while the data from the interviews does not seem to support these findings. However, we need to take into consideration the small number of interviewees which might have affected the results. Therefore, we cannot rule out that there is a development in the students' use of evaluative language which may become clearer through future research using the same type of longitudinal study.

A detached stance on the part of the students towards their work was also noticeable in the decrease in the number of tokens of graduation used by the students by the end of the academic year in comparison with the beginning of the programme, which was statistically significant in both the forms and interviews. Based on this, the decrease in the number of graduation tokens of upscaling throughout the translation training programme could reflect this decrease in the overall number of graduation tokens. It also suggests that the students' detached stance was reflected by a lower degree of investment in the value position of their statements after following the translation training programme. These results were not statistically significant in the interview, but only in the forms, suggesting that further research into the topic is required, as previously expressed.

8. Conclusions, Limitations and Suggestions for Future Research

This chapter summarises the results of the study and presents the hypotheses derived from the main findings. It then evaluates the research methods used to carry out this research. This includes a reflection on the research techniques employed to collect data and the limitations of the methodological approaches followed in order to analyse the data collected in the present study. It also discusses the implications of the findings and finally proposes some recommendations for future research.

8.1 Research Aims and Methods

The aim of this study was to investigate how and to what extent following a translator training programme at postgraduate level affects trainee translators' *strategic-sub competence*, in particular in relation to their perception of translation problems and the way in which they justify their decisions. The main objective of this study was to examine the students' understanding of translation problems, and to what extent following a translator training programme at postgraduate level affects the way trainee translators negotiate their positions in relation to the translation strategies they adopt while translating. This examines more specifically the evaluative language expressed by trainee translators while describing translation problems and justifying their decisions.

In order to achieve the aforesaid aims and objectives, the MA in TS programme at the University of Birmingham was employed as a case study in order to investigate the effect of undertaking a translation training programme at academic level on trainee translators' perceptions of translation problems and the manner in which they justify their solutions. The case study focused on the students following the one-year Master's degree in TS at the University of Birmingham throughout the academic year 2012-2013. Many research techniques were employed as part of this case study. The students following the programme were asked to answer a short questionnaire concerning their professional, linguistic and educational background. They were then required to translate a short text and simultaneously complete a form about the translation problems identified, the solutions, the strategies used and the justification for using these strategies or for failing to use any. Where possible, this translation task was followed by interviews, in order to

explore in more depth the data provided by the students in the translation forms. The translation task and interviews were replicated at three stages throughout the translation training programme for comparative purposes: at the beginning, in the middle and towards the end of the academic year. Textual analysis using the Appraisal theory developed by Martin and White (2005) was used in order to examine the language used by the students to describe translation problems and justify their decisions in the forms and interviews.

8.2 The Main Findings of the Present Study

The individuality of each case study makes it difficult to generalise the findings in relation to other cases. Therefore, the study resulted in a number of tentative hypotheses to be tested in further studies based on the findings presented in chapters five, six and seven. The findings were tested using a statistical analysis test (chi-square). A few results were statistically significant which supports the H_1 while others were not, confirming the H_0 that any change in the data across the three stages could be due to chance. As a result, the hypotheses generated were based on the results which were statistically significant in the forms and interviews.

Concerning the first research question, how following a translator training programme at postgraduate level affects trainee translators' perception of translation problems, the results observed were as follows:

- 1) A decrease in the number of linguistic problems and an increase in the number of multidimensional problems identified by the students throughout the academic year.
- 2) A decrease in the number of problems with no associated description of the strategies applied by the end of their training programme in comparison with the beginning of the programme.
- 3) A decrease in the number of problems with no strategies applied because no solutions were found for the translation problems by the end of the year.

My results support the hypothesis raised by Gregorio Cano (2014): the students about to complete their degree are better able to recognise and differentiate between different translation problems than students starting their degree. This hypothesis was neither

confirmed nor refuted in Gregorio Cano's study which was conducted in Translation and Interpreting programmes in Spain with the purpose of observing and analysing the repercussions of TS on the development of trainee translators' ability to identify translation problems.

Therefore, based on the results, it is possible to formulate a number of hypotheses:

- *Hypothesis 1:* Trainee translators' perception of the concept of translation problems changes after following a translating training programme.
- *Hypothesis 2:* Trainee translators begin to look at translation problems from more than one perspective after completing their translation training programme.
- *Hypothesis 3:* Trainee translators improve their ability to apply and describe translation strategies after completing a translation training programme.

In terms of the second research question: how following a translator training programme at postgraduate level affects the manner in which trainee translators justify their solutions to translation problems, the current study revealed:

- 1) A decrease in the number of cases where students failed to offer justification for their decisions towards the end of the year in comparison with the beginning of the programme.
- 2) An increase in the number of justifications which appeal to the communication norm (producing a clear and coherent target text), in comparison with the number of justifications of translation decisions according to the expectancy norm (conforming to the target language grammatical rules) by the end of the academic year.
- 3) An increase in the frequency of the words reflecting a theoretical background in TS and terms used by TS theorists by the end of the academic year in comparison with the beginning of the programme.

Based on these findings, this study suggests that:

- *Hypothesis 4:* Trainee translators' ability to justify translation decisions increases after following a translation training programme.

- *Hypothesis 5:* Trainee translators' ways of justifying translation decisions evolve after completing a TS programme as graduates start to pay more attention to how the target text reads on its own right, which is reflected in their focus on communicative norms, rather than on linguistic equivalence.
- *Hypothesis 6:* The richness of the metalanguage used by trainee translators evolves throughout the TS programme, as suggested by Gregorio Cano in her study.

In terms of the third research question: how following a translator training programme at postgraduate level affects the stance adopted by trainee translators when discussing their strategies, the study showed by the end of the translation training programme:

- 1) A decrease in the use of tokens of attitude, especially in positive tokens of appreciation to evaluate the texts or strategies used, and in judgement tokens of negative capacity to assess their behaviour.
- 2) A decrease in the number of heteroglossic tokens, especially in contractive tokens of disclaim used to deny alternative viewpoints while discussing translation decisions.
- 3) A decrease in the number of tokens of graduation, especially in the number of upscaling tokens.

Building on these results, this study allows us to hypothesise that:

- *Hypothesis 7:* By the end of one year's training, trainee translators adopt a more detached stance towards their work, which is reflected in:
 - Hypothesis 7.1: a more objective attitude towards their capacity and the strategies or text.
 - Hypothesis 7.2: a more assertive positioning in relation to alternative textual voices and points of view.
 - Hypothesis 7.3: a lower degree of investment in the value position advanced in their statements.

It is also interesting to note that there was an increase in the number of attitudinal tokens of appreciation, especially in the number of positive attitudes, and a decrease in the

number of negative tokens of capacity in the middle of the translation training programme in comparison with the beginning and the end of the programme. While the evidence is not strong enough to generate a hypothesis, the possibility of students entering an 'adjustment period' in the middle of a translation training programme should be kept in mind in future research in this area. This would be a period where they question and test their existing conceptions in translation against the theoretical basis offered in the programme. It is also possible that during this period, trainee translators present an explicit subjective attitude which is characterised by showing a less positive assessment of the text or strategies and a more positive evaluation of their capacities. The implications of these findings will be discussed after reflecting on the limitations of the research methods used in the present study.

8.3 Limitations of Research Methods Employed in the Present Study

A convenience approach was used in sampling and using the MA in TS programme at UoB, where the researcher was conducting her own research. This approach can enrich the study with extensive data and thorough analysis (Berg, 1998) since the researcher was familiar with the context and can therefore provide a detailed view of the translation training programme. However, this approach might implicate a high level of subjectivity on the part of the researcher. For the purpose of contextualisation, the MA in TS programme at UoB was compared with two similar programmes at different universities; Aston and Durham. This comparison was then presented in chapter three. Using this convenience approach posed another problem: the heterogeneity of the sample due to the multilingual nature of the programme, leading to the inclusion of trainees from different linguistic and educational backgrounds and making it difficult to control certain variables.

Different procedures were followed in this study to reduce the bias exerted by the researcher and the participants as much as possible, as was extensively described in chapter four. Examples of steps taken are: 1) the explanation of the purpose of the study which was reiterated on several occasions (in the introduction to the questionnaire and at each stage of data collection), 2) the clarity of instructions and phrasing of questions and 3) the fact that the participants were given the researcher's contact details in case they

had any queries. The researcher also avoided establishing close interpersonal relationships with any of these participants to avoid potential influence on the part of the investigator. It was also made clear to the students that their participation was voluntary so that they were under no pressure to take part in the study and that they could withdraw at any time. This, as can be seen from the level of participant attrition, had a negative impact on the response rate of this study.

Attrition was another major problem in this study. The number of students who participated in the study dropped considerably throughout the academic year. Only a small number of students took part in the three stages of the study, possibly due to their lack of time because of the intensive nature of the MA in TS programme at UoB. This problem could have been solved by recruiting participants from different MA TS programmes at different universities or by replicating the study. Think-Aloud protocols (TAPs) could have been used in order to investigate in depth what goes on in the trainee translators' mind when encountering and solving translation problems. However, for logistical reasons including time and resources, such solutions were not available at the time the data was collected.

Concerning the methodological choice of data analysis, existing models of translation problems (PACTE: 2011), strategies and justifications (Chesterman: 2000) were used in order to analyse the data provided by the students in the forms and interviews. This approach helped in systemically organising the data provided by the students. It also offered new insights in relation to the development of students' perception of translation problems and justification of translation decisions, especially as new categories were added to account for answers that combined more than one category: "multidimensional" and "combined".

The nature of the research techniques affected the results of the textual analysis carried out to examine the language provided by the students. The rigid nature of the translation forms did not allow the students to express themselves freely. Open-ended questions could have been used, asking the students to elaborate on their descriptions and justifications of translation problems, to express their attitudes towards their strategies and translations on a specific number of problems to facilitate comparison and to have a reflective set of data to analyse.

Although appraisal theory was useful for exploring the development in the

students' evaluative language, the many terms used in the theory and the lack of clear demarcation in some cases was confusing. This made interpreting the data difficult and posed a problem when analysing the data, especially when coding the data according to the categories of each domain in this theory. Therefore, it was important to clarify how the different categories were used in the present study. Few sub-categories were irrelevant to the study, therefore, they were also neglected. Moreover, examples from the data provided by the trainee translators were employed to clarify how the different categories and subcategories of the theory were interpreted in the present study.

The huge set of data obtained through the use of this diachronic case study necessitated a quantitative analysis rather than a qualitative one, which could have been applied in a synchronic study. The quantification of data was not easy given the low frequencies. This made it even more difficult to show whether the changes in the data across the three stages of data collection were significant or not when using statistics. Although the changes which are not significant are attributed to chance when "language users never choose words randomly, and language is essentially non-random" (Kilgarriff, 2005: 263), the use of chi-square statistical tests helped us in examining whether there were salient relationships between the data provided by the students throughout the academic year. Therefore, given the minimal changes in the data across the three stages, the results were supported by this test of statistical significance.

It is also worth noting that this is a case study, and therefore the conclusions presented in this study cannot be generalised to the whole population in translation training due to the specificities of the current participants and the possible bias in the data collected and analysed. Therefore, the present research instead offered a set of hypotheses to be considered by stakeholders in translation training especially when developing or designing training programmes.

8.4 Implications of the Findings

Despite any subjectivity which may have impacted on this study, we hope that the present research offers helpful insights for translator training programmes in the long term. The findings can be useful for the translation training programme at UoB in particular, and for other programmes which share similar characteristics with this programme, especially in terms of curriculum design. The findings can also provide a source of ideas to improve

translation training while furthering discussion on the link between theory and practice in the context of translation training. For example, the findings suggest that trainee translators' perception of translation problems and the manner in which they justify their decisions develops after following a translation training programme, which combines both theory and practice. These findings may provide new insights in relation to the debate between professional translators and academics about the role of theory in translation training programmes. They may raise awareness to the importance of combining theory and practice in translation training programmes. Translation theories and concepts can be incorporated when developing material for the translation training programmes with the purpose of improving trainee translators' *strategic sub-competence*; the ability to identify and solve translation problems.

The findings also indicate that trainee translators become more objective and assertive after following a translation training programme. This could show that following a translation training programme at academic level can enhance trainee translators' confidence and eventually their self-esteem, and consequently raise their professional standards. However, it also suggests that trainee translators become less considerate of alternative viewpoints and opinions and thus, arguably, become less critical. This might necessitate a reconsideration of translation training approaches followed in such translation training programmes. It might also become important to reconsider priorities in translation training programmes in a way that helps the trainee translators to increase their ability to justify their decisions and claim their rights as active participants in the translation process. It also necessitates considering the ability to critically discuss and justify translation decisions as an essential component of *strategic sub-competence* and hence *translation competence* in general. The study also suggests that trainee translators pass through an 'adjustment period' while following the programme, where after their initial encounter with translation theory, they become less objective. Thus when developing or designing a TS programme, translators' trainers can take into consideration the 'adjustment period' the trainee translators go through when following a translation training programme. The translators' trainers can use this 'adjustment period' to help students improve their critical skills by asking the students to critically discuss translation decisions when they translate, to keep a diary of how they translate and to discuss their decisions throughout the translation training programme. Therefore, the current study

may also contribute to interdisciplinary works between Systemic Functional Grammar and Translation Studies through the application of a mono-linguistic theory within a multilingual context. In particular, incorporating the appraisal theory into translation training might be useful to assess trainee translators' evaluative and critical skills.

8.5 Suggestions for Future Research

This study proposed a set of hypotheses which further research can test. Future research can extend the context of the current case study and include more than one academic translation training programme, and potentially a comparison between the different programmes affects on the students' development. A corpus-based study can be carried out when examining the trainee translators' perceptions of translation problems and decisions from many TS programmes which facilitate both a quantitative and qualitative analysis of data. This study can be also developed by including a comparison between the effects of different theories in translation on the trainee translators' *strategic sub-competence*, to define the type of theories which tend to greater inform their translation decisions.

The Appraisal system used in the current study could also be useful in assessing the student's capacity to evaluate their own work. Future research applying the Appraisal system can focus on one specific domain, for example, to explore in depth the students' attitudes towards themselves, the strategies they applied and the texts they translated. It can also be used to examine in depth the stance they adopted while justifying their decisions using a qualitative textual analysis.

8.6 Summary

In this chapter we concluded the present study by briefly summarising the main aims and research instruments used in the study. We also discussed the limitations to the current study and possible ways of avoiding them in future research. The main findings and the hypotheses based in these findings were also covered briefly. This chapter also made suggestions following the implications of the findings in terms of translation training and ended by making proposals for future research while replicating certain aspects of the current study.

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