



UNIVERSITY OF LEEDS

***Translating into the First Language: Textual Competence,
Disposition and Monitoring as Indicators of Translation
Competence***

Falih Saddam Manshad Al-Emara

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Centre for Translation Studies

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I confirm that the work submitted is my own and that appropriate credit has been given where reference has been made to the work of others.

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Abstract

This thesis reports on an empirical study which attempts to answer basic questions about translation competence as a key issue in translation studies, through the conceptual replication of Campbell's (1998) model to test the applicability of the model on translating into L1. It is a process-oriented study which presents a methodology for the testing of the model through the quantitative statistical analysis of the translator's output. The primary aim is pedagogical and it is carried out in the framework of applied linguistics, translation studies in general and translator training in particular. The study is focused on the investigation of the three components of Campbell's model: textual competence, disposition and monitoring. Theoretically, the model assumes that the interrelation among these components constitutes the function of the translator's competence.

The study investigates questions regarding the ways in which translators into L1 vary in regard of the three components. The central question, which represents the ultimate aim, is about the extent to which these aspects are helpful in characterizing the competence of student-translators as revealed by their individual profiles. The profiles are based on the results of an experiment in which translations of two texts were undertaken by a group of twenty-five participants (L1 Arabic MA translation students translating from English into Arabic). The findings of the study show that translators into the first language markedly vary in their output in respect to the three components of the model, which confirms its applicability.

The current study claims that it has successfully sharpened Campbell's measure by transforming the behavioural statements of characterizing translation competence into numerical values for each component to make the individual's competence more easily interpretable. Certainly, numerical values have easily recognizable discrimination ability which makes them suitable to rank translators in a dependable and justifiable way.

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Key of Abbreviations

The following abbreviations are used throughout this thesis:

Term	Abbreviation
Descriptive Translation Studies	DTS
First Language	L1
Second Language	L2
Source Language	SL
Source Text	ST
Target Language	TL
Target Text	TT
Text One	T1
Text Two	T2
Translation Competence	TC
Translation Studies	TS

Transliteration Chart

This study adopts the DIN 31635 transliteration of the Arabic alphabet, which is a standard set by the Deutsches Institut für Normung (DIN). Below is a chart of the Arabic letters with examples and transliteration designed for this purpose.

Arabic Letter	Letter Name	Example	Gloss	DIN Form	Plain English
ا	'a	حَال	State	ḥāl	Hal
أ	'ia	أَمَل	Hope	'amal	'amal
آ	a'aa	آيَة	Verse	'āya	'aaya
ع	aa	سَمَاء	Sky	samā'	samaa'
ب	ba	بَيْت	House	bayt	Bayt
ت	ta	تَوْبَة	Repentance	tawba	Tawba
ة	ta	فَتَاة	Girl	fatāt	Fataat
ث	ṭa	ثَوْر	Ox	ṭawr	Thawr
ج	ja	جَبَل	Mount	jabal	Jabal
ح	ḥa	حَبْل	Rope	ḥabl	Habl
خ	ḵa	خَوْخ	Peach	ḵawḵ	Khawkh
د	Da	دَامَ	Bloody	dāma	Daama
ذ	ḍa	ذَهَب	Gold	ḍahab	Zhahab
ر	Ra	رَب	God	rab	Rab
ز	za	زَاد	Increase	zayn	Zayn
س	Sa	سَلِيم	Sound	sālim	Salim
ش	Ša	شَوْك	Thistle	šawḵ	Shawḵ
ص	ṣa	صَوْت	Voice	ṣawt	Sawt
ض	ḍa	ضَال	Stray	ḍāl	Dal
ط	ṭa	طَوِيل	Long	ṭawīl	Tawil
ظ	ḍa	ظِل	Shadow	ḍil	Dhil
ع	'a	عَيْن	Eye	'ayn	Ayn
غ	Ġa	غَابَة	Forest	ġāba	Ghaba
ف	Fa	فَرَس	Mare	faras	Faras
ق	qa	قَوْس	Arc	qaws	Qaws
ك	Ka	كَأْس	Cup	ka's	ka's
ل	la	لَيْل	Night	layl	Layl
م	ma	مَهَا	Maha	mahā	Maha
ن	na	نُور	Noor	nūr	Nur
ه	ha	هِلَال	Crescent	hilāl	Hilal
و	wa	وَقْت	Time	waqt	Waqt
و	'a	سُؤَال	Question	s'āl	s'al
ي	ya	يَسُوع	Jesus	yasū'	Yasu
ى	aa	هُوَى	Desire	haw	Haw
ى	'a	بَرِيء	Innocent	barī'	bari'

In addition to the standard letters, Arabic writing uses, the Tashkil, which refers to the short vowels that sit above or below the letters. Below is a chart of how these are transliterated:

Tashkil

Vowel	Form	Example	DIN Letters	Plain English	Meaning	Gloss
fatha	َ	كَتَبَ	kataba	kataba	Wrote	A
ḍamma	ُ	عُوقِبَ	'ūqiba	uqiba	Punished	u or o
Kasra	ِ	يُرِيدُ	yurīdu	yuridu	Wants	i (e is another weaker possibility)
Sukūn	ْ	قَلْبْ	qalb	qalb	Heart	not transcribed into any vowel sound but indicates a stop (silent sound)
Šadda	ّ	مَرَّ	marra	Marra	Passed	geminate (i.e., duplicates) the letter it sits on

Chapter One: Introduction

1.1 General

The present study investigates some questions about translation competence (TC) as a key issue in translation studies (TS), through studying the translation process as manifested by the replication of Campbell's (1998) translation model. It joins other translation process-oriented research in attempting to understand some aspects of the translator's "behavior, competence, expertise, the cognitive processes that orient these and the relations between cognition and the translated (...) product (Saldanha and O'Brien, 2013, p.109). This will be realized through investigating the applicability of Campbell's model of translating into the second language (L2) on translation into the first language (L1). In Section 1.3 below, the settings of the original and the replicate studies are discussed in the light of the translation direction. Thus, this study sets out to empirically replicate the constituents of Campbell's model on translating into the (L1). The primary aim is pedagogical and is carried out in the framework of applied linguistics, TS in general and translator training in particular.

Indeed, an important problem that faces this attempt and adds to its eminence, is that this study seems to be the first to try to replicate this model on translating into L1, which entails that there are no previous studies, rather than the original study, to rely on directly in the experimental design. On the other hand, it is almost taken for granted that the two activities of translating into L1 and translating into L2 are different in some respects (as will be discussed in Section 1.4). In addition, there seems to be some disagreement about whether translating into L2 is an established norm or not (Newmark, 1988, p.52; Pym 1992, p.73; Lonsdale, 2001, p.64; Pokorn, 2005). However, there appears to be no reason why one should not venture to replicate the model on translating into L1 albeit these considerations (Campbell, 1998, p. 161).

In order to solve the problem of the experimental design, it is proposed that a design similar to that used in the original study can be satisfactorily applied in

the current one. The procedures of recruiting the subjects, data collection and analysis will follow the footsteps of Campbell's study as they seem to be relevant and appropriate to carry out the task. While the problem of the difference between the two types of translation (into and out of L2) will be discussed in Chapter Two in order to place the current study in its proper framework and contain the controversy about the function of each.

1.2 Motivation

The study has been mostly prompted by personal observations of what goes on in the routine translation practice classes and sparked by the practical similarity they share with Campbell's findings. Those observations suggest that most of what student-translators perform when translating into their L1 is, in one way or another, reflected in the same components of Campbell's model on translating into L2 despite the difference in the direction of translation they work into. These components are comparably present in both translation directions, though they may assume different patterns or behaviors. This idea has been intensified by what Campbell suggests in the 'wider applicability' of his model and the call to replicate it on the translation into the L1 (ibid, pp.161-2). For example, it is observable that problems of textual competence in translating in either direction can be similar, where some translators successfully deploy their knowledge of grammar and lexis to produce texts which are typical of the TL, whereas some others fail to do that. Definitely, it is interesting to investigate whether these observations are applicable for both directions of translation. Certainly, this cannot be done without limiting the meaning of TC as revealed by a model to be able to assess the variation among translators.

In the same way, translation disposition is an aspect that can be observed in the translators' performance wherever they struggle with a ST to be translated into their L1 or in the L2 despite possible differences. In translating into the L1, most of that struggle takes place in the early phase of comprehending the ST which is central, and to a lesser degree, in the choice of lexical items in the latter phase of producing the TT. In contrast, comprehension of the ST, in translating into the L2, is relatively easier than the choice of lexical items and the deployment of grammar to produce adequate texts. Student-translators

apparently vary considerably in their aptitude to struggle with the ST translation problems as some translators insist on translating the whole text through struggling to comprehend new problematic and difficult lexical items, taking risks and trying to produce perfect TTs. These observations resonate strongly with the findings of Campbell's study, but they need to be empirically investigated to realize the degree of similarity or difference in the translator's disposition between what goes on in translating into L2 and what goes on in translating into L1.

Similarly, student-translators often misjudge, to different extents, their ability to translate, and as a result, they either underestimate or overestimate their level of achievement. This reflects, as Campbell concludes, the lack of awareness those translators have of their TC. This, apparently, happens in both translation directions. On the other hand, translators in general, and student-translators in particular, use to intervene in the text they produce at several times during or after the process of translation in order to amend the quality of the text they are producing. It is worth investigating whether the process of intervention assumes certain patterns, and whether these patterns, if any, are related to TC in certain ways.

1.3 Replication

Although original research has more impact to other researchers than replication studies and that it is more wholeheartedly received by them due to a widely recognized idea that it has more innovation and novelty (Valdman, 1993, p.505), it is determined to carry out the replication with the conviction that some new results will be obtainable to verify and enrich the original study. Hopefully, this replication may also lead as Valdman (ibid.) suggests, to a more valid and reliable research, similar to replication studies in L2 acquisition. In fact, replication is critically needed in TS, and this is very vividly reflected in O'Brien's (2011, p.10) confession that:

Alves et al correctly point out that replicability in translation research has largely been ignored but is something that must be embraced if we are to move forward in understanding translation from a cognitive perspective.

Since there are different kinds of replication, it is plausible to define the kind and level of replication to be used in the study. According to Porte (2012, p.8) there are three main kinds of replication research which include:

- exact or literal replication which aims at confirming the findings of a previous study by following exactly the same methodology, the same subjects and setting, trying to evade as much as possible the inescapable differences between the original and the subsequent study.
- approximate or the partial (also sometimes called systematic) replication, which involves fully repeating a study except changing ‘non-major variables’ to allow for comparing the findings of the two studies. The change may involve the participants’ age, level of proficiency or the setting, with the aim of examining the generalizability of the original study results to another population, situation or concept.
- conceptual or constructive replications where a similar problem is investigated through the use of a ‘new research design’ in some respects that differs from the design used in the original study with somewhat different procedures of data collection. Conceptual studies “present stronger support for the original findings as they provide evidence that the outcomes were not just artifacts of the original methodology” (ibid.).

The current study basically belongs to the conceptual type. Although it aims at investigating the same general problem of TC, it employs a different setting, participants, data collection procedures and also different data analysis and aims. All of these issues will be explained in detail in the methodology of the study in chapter three. Yet, Chun (2012, p.501) asserts that:

(...) it is virtually impossible to hold any significant variable constant in replication studies in the social sciences (including second language studies), as there exists great variability across individuals and contexts.

He also advocates and speaks in favor of the conceptual replication in social sciences and language studies as the most appropriate type of replication (ibid, pp.501-2). Thus, the present study is planned to be a mainly conceptual replication of Campbell’s study.

Moreover the study goes beyond replication as it presents a methodology for quantitative analysis and testing of a theoretical model. Thus, the contribution of this thesis, which is mainly methodological, is not restricted to replication. It surpasses it to how to formally quantify and compare different aspects in the model by relying on empirical data.

1.4 Translation Direction

Before discussing the model and its applicability, it is relevant to elaborate a little on the claim that translating into L2 is not considered the normal translation practice or direction; translating into L1 is the widely-recognized and publicly-accepted practice. Campbell (ibid. pp.57-8) argues the benefits of both translating into L1 and L2. He first admits that "expert (and no doubt) public opinion favors translation into the first language" (p.57). This is due to the belief that a translator's competence in his L1 is more deeply-rooted and better-established than his competence in L2. To this effect he quotes Neubert (1981) who argues that "working into the mother tongue avoids the problem of lack of textual competence in the target language" (ibid. p.57). However, the term 'first language' (L1) will be used throughout this study to refer to **language of habitual use** in place of 'mother tongue' or 'native language'. In fact, Neubert's statement seems questionable and, at the very least, requires empirical validation which will be attempted in this study. On the other hand, and from a theoretical point of view, Campbell views translation into both directions as 'mirror images' (p.57). In translating from L2 into L1 the main difficulty lies in the comprehension of the Source Text (ST), whereas comprehending the ST is the easier task in translating into L2. The difficulty here lies in the production of a "TT [target text] in a language in which composition does not come naturally" (ibid.). So, it is desirable to reveal the areas where those 'mirror images' meet and where they depart, or whether they are at all reversible. However, Campbell (ibid. p.2) believes that:

(...) the acquisition of textual skills is not restricted to second language learners and is, of course, a staple ingredient of first language education in schools, whether it falls under the traditional descriptor of 'stylistics' or the more modern 'genre' approach.

He also emphasizes the idea of interlanguage and finds it strange that it has been virtually ignored by TS. In this connection, he finds Duff's seminal book *The Third Language (1981)* an exception. The main idea is that interference results in the production of some translations that are somehow 'midway' between the SL and TL:

(...) the translator who imposes the concepts of one language onto another is no longer moving freely from one world to another but instead creating a third world—and a third language (Duff, 1981, p.10).

According to Duff this language deters readers, and he thinks that the reason behind the bad reputation and the lack of publicity of translation in the English-speaking countries can be attributed to the fact that “translation does not sound English” (ibid, p.124). Duff's conclusions are drawn from examining translating from an L2 into an L1. In this situation a throwback effect, a negative or retroactive transfer is expected to take place, which participates in the production of that 'third language'. Retroactive transfer here refers to the effect of a latter experience (acquiring or learning an L2) on the individual's performance on an earlier experience (Mednick, 1964, p.92; Haskell, 2000, pp.11, 25-26; Darby and Sloutsky, 2013, p.2130). However, Campbell has investigated the inverse situation where the L1 is the source language [SL] and the L2 is the target language [TL]. Yet, we are not vividly told by Campbell about the degree and scope of the effect of the L1 on the L2 product, but he seems to adopt Selinker's (1992) hypothesis that in the interlingual situation “interlingual identifications and language transfer are central” (Campbell, 1998, p.12).

On the practical side, Campbell asserts that translating into L2 is sharply different from translating into L1 but they have their conditions and necessities. He quotes Ahlsvad (1978) who:

(...) makes virtue out of a necessity by claiming that translation into the second language may even be preferable in some circumstances. The necessity in this case is the near impossibility of finding English speakers who can translate from Finnish. The virtue is found in the claim that non-native readers of English are accustomed to and comfortable with reading textual texts written in second language English, and that accuracy is more important than stylistic felicity (Campbell, 1998, p.57).

He also believes that the "perfectly balanced bilinguals are so rarely found that virtually all human translation falls into one of the two categories—into or from the second language" (ibid, p.57). In addition, he refers to the translators' accreditation in Australia where translators are accredited to 'work in two directions'. A glance at the translator training programs at the centers and departments of translation in different parts of the world support Campbell's argument; translation into L2 is an essential component, if not the main one, in those programs.

The present researcher's online survey of the curriculum of a considerable number of those programs in the USA, the UK, Australia, Canada, Spain, and Holland, and also in countries like Arab Gulf States, Egypt, Iran, Iraq, Lebanon and Libya has shown that translation into the students' L2 is a regular component. In postcolonial societies as well, of which my country (Iraq) is a live example, many people translate into the language of the colonialist which is their L2, as in Afghanistan, Algeria, Tunisia, Libya and the like. The same is true about translation in countries of high immigration like Australia, Canada, The United States and others, where much translation is carried out into the host language which is the language of power, and the immigrants' L2. Still, it is also customary to find an inverse situation where the translation of matters concerning communication about health care, social services or some literature is carried out into the minority language.

In their preface to *Translation into Non-Mother Tongues*, Grosman et al (2009) admit that their conference¹ was held "on a subject which had long been a taboo for translation theory". Notably, they tend to agree with Campbell when he challenges the publicly-held idea of insisting on translation into the L1 on practical grounds, and also they agree on his conviction that translating into the L2 is inevitable where native speakers are hardly available. In this connection they confirm that:

(...) it is actually nothing unusual in professional practice to work into a non-native language particularly in the countries of Central and Eastern Europe-

¹ An international conference at the University of Ljubljana- Slovenia in 1997, from which a selection of papers constitutes the above mentioned book which was first published in 2000.

with their languages of limited diffusion- which are completely dependent on local translators (ibid.).

This statement can be taken as revealing the conflict between theory and practice. Later on, in the same volume and in her answer to the question 'Is the non-mother tongue translation really to be banned?' Grosman expresses interest in the attack launched by Erich Prunc on the theories which hold the idea that:

only native speakers qualify as translators whereas translation into non-mother-tongues should be questionable, pointing out that such theories are in conflict with existing practices (Grosman, 2009, p.22).

In her argument, Grosman (ibid, p.23) insists on examining the consequences of the fact that the translator who works into his native language is not a native speaker of the L2, which is an important issue. She also quotes Ivir (1997, p.4) who points out that:

It is a fact of life that the translator is a non-native speaker of one of the languages with which he/she works– either of the source language (when he translates into his mother tongue) or of the target language (when he translates into the non-mother tongue).

She criticizes the theories which exclusively favor translating into the native language for underestimating and disregarding the role of comprehending the ST. At any rate, in both directions the translator is working with a native and a non-native language, and each direction poses different problems.

In line with Grosman's defense of translation into non-mother tongues, Pokorn presents an analysis of translations by Slovene translators of a short story by Ivan Cankar, the Slovene writer, to show the importance of the translator's knowledge and awareness of his native language and culture in the effectiveness of the translation. She presumes that the translations carried out by the Slovene translators are superior to those produced by English translators in spite of the 'flaws' that the Slovene translators have in their control of the different styles of English. Accordingly, "this fact relativizes the proclaimed superiority of the translations made by native speakers of the TL". (Pokorn, 2009, p.75)

Similarly, in a large-scale study on the translation into a non-mother tongue or inverse translation, Pokorn (2005) sets out to challenge the deeply-rooted and publicly-held view of Western theorists and their axiomatic assumptions about this type of translation. In the introduction, she states that:

Translation into a non-mother tongue or inverse translation, especially of literary texts, has always been frowned upon within Translation Studies in Western cultures with a dominant language, and regarded as an action doomed to failure by both literary scholars and linguists (ibid, VIII).

The results of the investigation and the findings of the study came contrary to the folk-admonition and the axiomatic assumptions held by the Western theorists about the inferiority of the inverse translation. Pokorn concludes that:

(...) the stigma of inappropriateness given to inverse translation by the majority of Western translation theorists stems from a post-Romantic, aprioristic, scientifically-unproven and sometimes ethnocentric conviction of theorists coming from major and central linguistic communities, since inverse translation is mainly practiced in peripheral and minor linguistic cultures (ibid, p.122).

The results of Pokorn's study suggest that a translator's mother tongue is not the decisive factor which governs the translation quality. She demonstrates that factors other than the mother tongue such as knowledge of both cultures, literary education, and understanding of the translation process all take part in shaping the outcome (ibid, p.123). In this concern, the results seem to somehow depart with Duff's assumptions that were mentioned earlier and were based on the idea of interference that happens between the SL and the TL as a result of imposing the concepts of one language onto another. That imposition, according to Duff, produces a strange form of language that he calls a third language, which is somehow 'midway' between the SL and the TL. Conversely, Pokorn stresses the fact that "there are no typical features of translations that could be attributed to the mother tongue of the translator" (ibid.). Thus, from the point of view of the recipient of the translation Pokorn (2004, p.120) asserts that "competent native speakers of English cannot *always* [Italics in original] recognise the foreign and disturbing elements in translations by non-native speakers".

The most important elements in the arguments about the differences between translation into the mother tongue and the inverse translation, and about the directionality of translation that concern the present study can be summarized in the following:

- Applied linguistics and TS are particularly interested in identifying the theoretical and practical similarities and differences between these two activities, and the way they intervene in the process of translation, in which TC is a central issue.
- It is unquestionable that translation into the L2 is no longer an occasional or a marginal activity that can be overlooked in favor of the widely-regarded norm of translating into the L1. In practice, it is well-established and may be as popular as translation into the L1, especially in countries of high immigration, postcolonial countries and countries of languages with limited diffusion.
- Since TC remains a decisive factor in the translation process despite the direction of translation, it can be assumed that it is possible to adopt and replicate TC models in the study of either direction, and they could be equally applicable.
- All in all, the fact remains that translation in both directions is widely practiced, and it is natural that the same translators may work in both directions. This is especially found in translating into or out of lesser-used languages, or where there are few native speakers of the TL available as in the case of translating from Arabic into English in most Arabic-speaking countries. Then, the patterns and features of translation performance in both directions can be of interest to TS in general, and to translator training in particular.

1.5 Focus of the Study

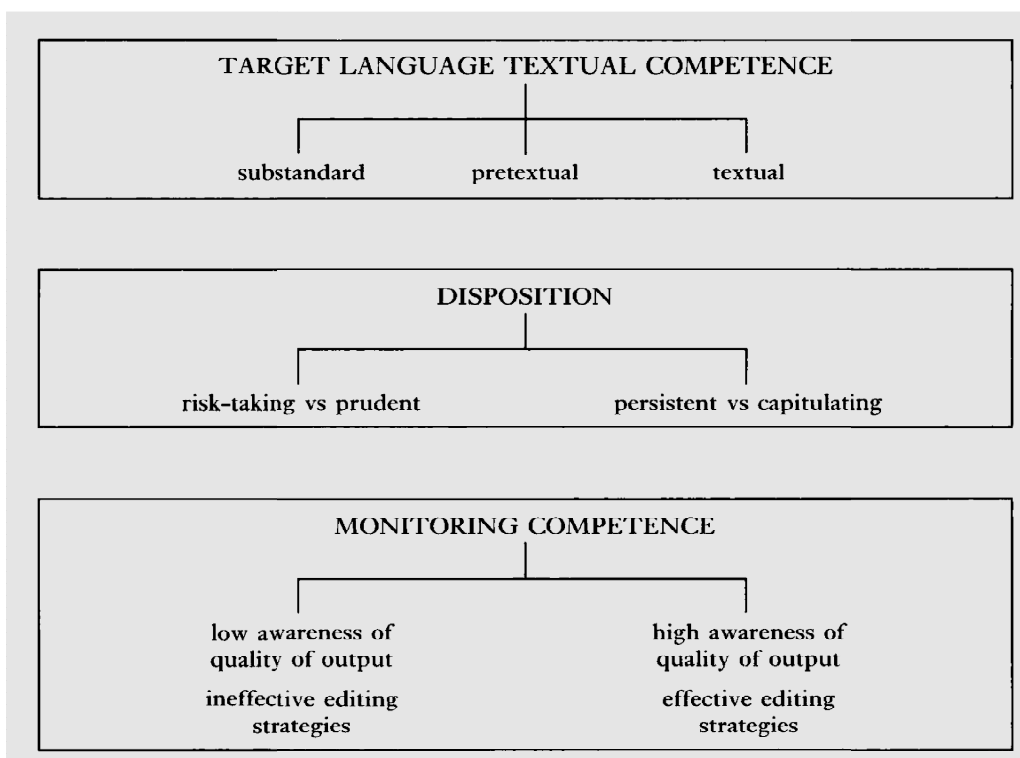
The study is focused on the investigation of the components of Campbell's model and is limited to them. The model comprises three components only: textual competence, disposition and monitoring. The division of competence into separate components, as illustrated in Figure 1.1 below adopted from Campbell, (ibid, p.154), implies that they are relatively independent, and that

they may have different impacts on the process of TC acquisition. The interrelation among those components constitutes the function of the competence a translator has. In addition to the three components of the model, the figure shows the assessment values that can be used for profiling the individual translator's competence.

The components illustrated in the figure can be briefly defined as follows:

(i) Textual competence is generally considered one of the main constituents of TC (Bell, 1991, pp.35-39; Campbell, 1998, pp.2, 6; Montalt, V.; et al. 2008, p.1-3). It refers to the translator's ability to manipulate written genres at the level of text and discourse, or the ability to write in a systematically authentic way to create texts that are comparable to those of the TL. In his investigation of this component, Campbell studies two areas: TC and grammar, and TC and lexis. He draws on resources of genre and L2 acquisition theory to come to an understanding of how grammar is deployed by L2 translators to make texts. His central proposition is to identify the TL system and use it as a yardstick to measure the developing competence of translators.

Figure 1.1 The Three Components of Campbell's Model



Campbell's investigation of this area is based on Biber's (1988) approach to genre variation. Biber's model was set to analyze linguistic features that signal stylistic variation. Besides studying TC and grammar, Campbell studies TC and lexis as the second constituent of textual competence. He empirically investigates textual competence in the L2 translators from the point of view of word-choice or lexical transfers. His examination of lexis in this respect aims to explore how translators choose lexical items from available possibilities and whether their choices were restricted to the sentence level or textually oriented. Yet, this investigation takes him a little beyond the translator's deployment of the TL lexis; he starts to probe the psychological motivations behind the choices and relates that to the disposition of the participants.

Subsequently, the current study investigates both areas of textual competence and lexical transfers, and concurrently uses the same data for investigating disposition. However, the study investigates the area of grammar, even though (at least theoretically) the translator into L1 will rarely (if ever) encounter problems in the grammar of his L1, unlike the translator into the L2 who is expected to encounter many problems. This idea is supported by the prospects of what a native speaker can do in his language. In this connection, Pokorn (2005, p.8) suggests that:

a native speaker is someone who has the capacity to produce fluent, spontaneous discourse in English **[his native language]** and intuitively distinguishes between correct and incorrect forms of English.

The assumption that the native speaker has internalized the rules of his language and can automatically use that language is maintained by Davies (1991, p.94) when he states his expectations:

I expect the native speaker to have internalized rules of use, the appropriate use of language, to know when to use what and how to speak to others. I expect control of strategies and of pragmatics, an automatic feeling for the connotations of words, for folk etymologies, for what is appropriate to various domains, for the import of a range of speech acts (...).

The idea that a native speaker has the intuitive control over the grammar of his native language and the ability to distinguish between grammatical and

ungrammatical sentences dates back to an earlier statement by Chomsky when talking about the idealized native speaker:

A grammar is... descriptively adequate to the extent that it correctly describes the intrinsic competence of the idealized native speaker. The structural descriptions assigned to sentences by the grammar, the distinctions that it makes between well-formed and deviant, and so on, must, for descriptive adequacy, correspond to the linguistic intuition of the native speaker (Chomsky, 1965, p.24).

So, profiling a native speaker's grammatical ability in this way suggests that investigating the grammatical accuracy of his language production both in the spoken and the written mode would yield sharply different results from investigating the grammatical ability of an L2 learner. However, the investigation of grammar is not limited to the structure errors that a translator may make, but it extends to the deployment of grammar to present reality in different ways, for example through cohesion, modality, transitivity, nominalizations... etc.

As for translating into the L1, textual competence can be different from translating into a L2, and is measured by what Campbell (1998, p.162) proposes to be "the ability to possess the linguistic power of the lawyer, the doctor, the engineer, the politician, the public servant". This proposal is very interesting but it is too broad to be investigated in this study, or in any single study, because it requires a number of studies, each one has to investigate a separate genre. The current study will limit itself to the investigation of textual competence in the light of what Campbell describes as the "crude division between a formal written genre and an informal spoken genre" (ibid.), or to study whether the translator deviates from a formal into an informal genre.

(ii) Disposition, according to Campbell, refers to the translator's overall approach to the task of translating a text. So, it deals with whether the translator takes risks or not in rendering certain aspects of the text, whether he persists or gives up easily when faced with aspects of the text that he finds difficult to translate which leave him puzzled whether to transfer them into the TL or to reduce them to sense only. The translator's attitude when tackling a text (persistent or capitulating; risk-taking or prudent) could be interpreted as an attribute of personality or an individual characteristic that is not reflective of TL

competence, but has its impact on his translation performance which is strongly related to his TL competence (ibid.).

In his treatment of this aspect, Campbell believes that “capitulation shades into target language competence” (ibid.). Thus, he ascribes it to either of two reasons: the translators’ poor disposition, or their ‘deficient target language competence’. Whereas he states that, in the process of translation into the L1 “capitulation may be because of both overall approach [translation disposition] and poor source language comprehension” (ibid.).

(iii) Monitoring, according to Campbell (ibid.) refers to the awareness a translator has of his competence in the language s/he translates into. Self-assessment here refers to the translator’s impression about the quality of his output. Campbell maintains that translators have less awareness of their competence when they translate into the L2 than their awareness when they translate into the L1. They may or may not give accurate assessments of their competence through assessing the quality of their output, when they are asked to do it.

Closely related to that awareness and their assessments of their performance, translators usually tend to intervene to improve their product. Their intervention takes the forms of revision and editing [Campbell’s terms] and it varies from one translator to another. Revision aims at making corrections at the lexical and grammatical level where the translator looks for breaches in the spelling, morphology and syntax and repairs them. It also aims at revising the output to ensure the semantic accuracy of the equivalents used in the build-up of the TT. The process of editing, on the other hand, occurs at different structural levels; word, phrase and clause, or it may extend to the levels of sentence and text. It is made by recasting certain units to repair the text (ibid, pp.138-40). These facets of monitoring i.e. self-assessment, revision and editing have been empirically investigated by Campbell. He managed to investigate this component empirically even though, as he admits, it is not theoretically well-grounded and underpinned to the TS research, (ibid, p.153).

1.6 Aims of the Study

As this study attempts to replicate Campbell's model on translation into L1, the aims do not go far from the broad aim of the original study which is basically pedagogical, although deviation is inevitable. The present study attempts to investigate the applicability of that model, which has been empirically tested on inverse translation, to translation into L1. It aims to empirically test the components of the model on their counterparts in translation into L1, to see how these elements of TC function in the process of translation from English as an L2 into Arabic as an L1. It is anticipated that this could lead to conclusions and insights about the nature and the practice of the translation process based on fairly solid and systematic use and analysis of data.

1.7 The Research Questions

The study seeks to answer the following questions:

- i. In what ways do translators into the L1 vary in their textual competence or in their ability to manipulate the TL stylistically, as it is reflected in their lexical choice and grammar accuracy and deployment?
- ii. How far do translators into the L1 vary in their translation disposition, as it is revealed through lexical choice and lexical omissions from the ST?
- iii. In what ways do translators into the L1 vary in their ability to monitor their own translation as it is manifested in the processes of self-assessment and the self-revision they conduct while or after they finish translating a text?
- iv. To what extent are these aspects helpful in characterizing the TC of student-translators as revealed by their individual profiles?

1.8 The Research Hypotheses

The research hypotheses are set in a way to help in answering the research questions as follows:

- i. Translators into the L1 display considerable variation in their textual competence as manifested by their:
 - a. deployment of grammar
 - b. lexical choice

- ii. Translators into the L1 display significant dissimilarity in their disposition competence as manifested by their:
 - a. lexical choice
 - b. lexical omission.
- iii. Translators into the L1 display significant variation in the awareness of own TC in that less competent translators tend to:
 - a. overestimate in self-assessing their translation output.
 - b. make more correction than textual revision when they conduct real-time revision of their translation product.

These hypotheses will be empirically tested in the forthcoming chapters by applying the methodological procedures which will be discussed in Chapter Three.

1.9 Structure of the Study

This section attempts to briefly introduce the chapters of the study, which includes eight chapters in addition to references and appendices:

- Chapter One is an **introduction** of the study as an empirical investigation of TC as a key topic in TS. The motivation of the study is explained, followed by the type of replication which stresses that the study adopts the conceptual replication. However, the study exceeds replication to present a methodology for quantitative analysis and testing of Campbell's model. Since the study investigates the replication of an inverse model of translating into L2 on translating into L1, it is found necessary to tackle the issue of translation direction. Then, focus on the components of the model is stated together with the aims of the study. After that four questions are posed to be answered by the study followed by the hypotheses that are to be tested.
- In chapter 2, the **definition and scope** of the study are treated. The chapter opens with the placement of the study in TS, locating it within the Holmes-Toury map as belonging to the area of Descriptive Translation Studies (DTS) in general, and within the process-oriented research in particular. Then, ideas about the original meaning of the term TC and how it acquired a new and partly different meaning in TS are presented. Further, the different

definitions of TC are explained and evaluated together with the discussion of the closely relevant models to the study. In addition, the scope in which TC is investigated in this study is identified. Finally, the bases for choosing Campbell's model in particular are established.

- Chapter 3 gives an account of the **methodology** of the study. It includes description of the pilot study, participants, data, evaluation dimensions, and statistical tools and expertise that are used in the analysis of the data. The study looks forward to building a fairly objective way to describing the TC of individual translators into their L1 through inferring their product in relation to the three components that constitute the replicated model.
- Chapter 4 presents the study of **textual competence** as a key component in TC. There are some features which characterize it and make it possible to portray by relying on the results of analysing them. Among these are the lexical omissions from the ST, lexical mistranslations, grammatical errors and lexical choices, which all collaborate to draw a picture of textual competence. Lack of control on these features will result in the production of informal texts that are deficient. These features are studied because they decide the match between the ST and the TT and reflect how faithfully and accurately the translation conveys the ST. It is also endeavoured to test the possibility of assessing this type of competence with reasonable objectivity.
- In chapter 5, the translator's **disposition** is investigated as a component in TC. It starts with an attempt to define the term 'disposition' and limit its meaning in TS by first surveying the meaning of the term in the TS sister fields of psychology and education where it is relevantly used. It is dealt with as an intentional learned habit or complex of habits that can be taught, learned and assessed. The type of disposition that is closely related to the study of translation process is the intellectual type (Fowler and Haughy, 2007: 2). It comprises attributes and aptitudes that are required in translating such as anticipation, problem solving, relationship inferring, investigating and persistence. It concludes with an attempt to devise a procedure to assess individual translator's disposition.
- Chapter Six investigates the concept of **self-assessment** as manifested by students' general assessment of their own ability to translate and how it

relates to the other components of TC. Campbell assumes that students' awareness of the quality of their output (self-assessment) can be proposed as a relevant factor in the characterization of TC and, consequently, one of its indicators. This dimension is empirically measured by the responses to a call addressed to the participants to self-assess their output directly after translating each of the experiment texts. The results of these assessments are correlated later with the independent measure of the tutor's general assessment of the overall and cumulative TC of their students, as they observed it throughout teaching.

- Chapter Seven, tackles the translator's opportunity to intervene to improve the output through **real-time revision**. It includes all additions, deletions, and amendments the translator makes in his attempts to improve the quality of his output. Systematic variation among translators in the effectiveness of that intervention can be proposed as a facet of TC because it affects the final outcome positively or negatively. This chapter, in particular presents an adequate theoretical underpinning of revision as a basic component in translation competence. It closes with a suggested scale for revision competence assessment.
- Chapter Eight brings together the **findings** of the research, particularly of the three studies described in the last four chapters which have empirically dealt with the constituents of TC. The aim is to discuss the practical insights of using the model in the profiling of TC of individual translators working into their L1 and the potential implications for translation teaching and measurement. Thus, it relates the findings to the context of TS in an attempt to profile TC. Finally, it looks at the degree of correspondence or disparity between the present results and those of Campbell, and also discusses the limitations of both the present study and the model. At the end, the current research has proven that Campbell's model of translating into the L2 can be equally applied with almost comparable effect on translating into the L1. It is effective in exploring the TC and in measuring the variation among a group of translators. The numerical evaluative scales that were added in this study enhance the sharpness and precision of the model so as to be used reliably. Further experiments and applications on different pairs of

languages, genres and levels of professionalism are liable to yield more supportive results to confirm the present ones.

The study closes with a list of the references that were used, followed by appendices.

Chapter Two: Translation Competence: Definition and Scope

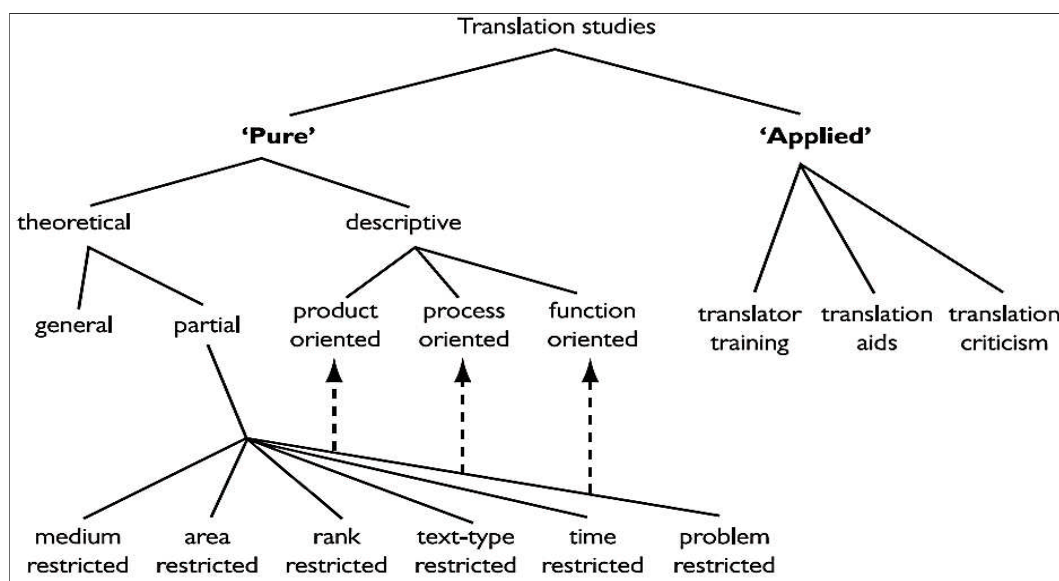
2.1. Overview

The study of TC can be located within the Holmes-Toury map of TS as belonging to the area of DTS in general, and within the process-oriented research in particular. In this framework, process-oriented DTS field is partly concerned with issues related to the psychological aspects of translation, and it tries to find out what goes on in the translator's mind when s/he carries out the translation task (Munday, 2008, p.10). However, the study extends to another area in the map; that is to the applied side of TS and to the translator training area in particular. The relation between TS and its applied extensions are also displayed in Baker (2001, p. 278). Similarly, talking about process-oriented DTS, Vandepitte (2008, p.576) stresses that:

research questions here deal with various aspects of the translation process: individuals' translation competence and its development, and the actual Performance of the translators within their professional situation.

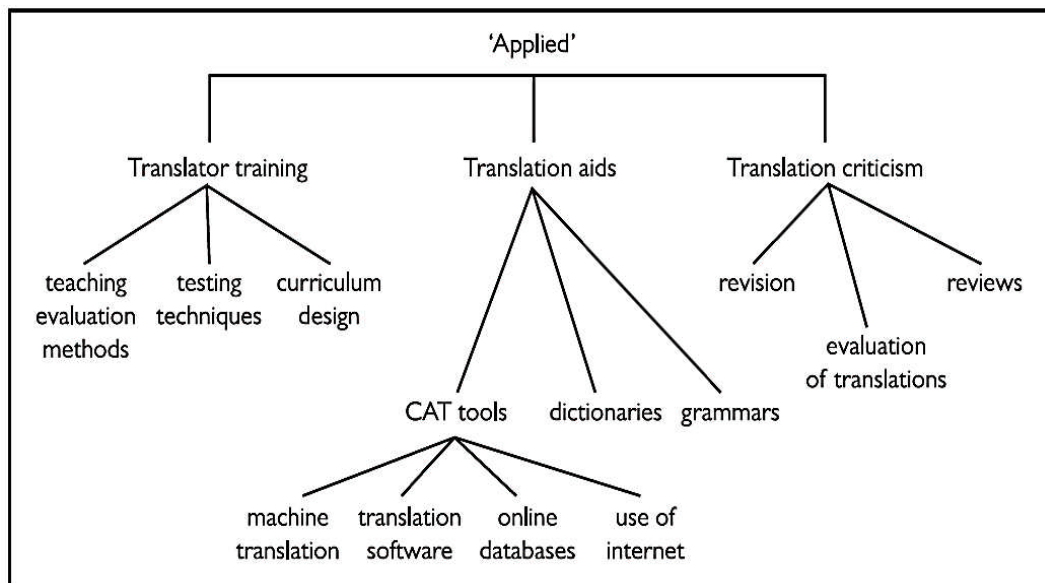
Figure 2.1 below shows the Holmes concept of TS, adopted from (Munday, 2008, p.10).

Figure 2.1 Holmes's Map of TS



Thus, the study of TC is contained in both the pure and the applied branches of TS. In the applied side it overlaps to all the areas of translator training, translation aids and translation criticism as displayed in Figure 2.2 below (adopted from Munday, 2008, p.12):

Figure 2.2 Applied TS



Certainly, the notion of TC has become a frequent keyword in recent TS research. Saldanha and O'Brien (2013, p.112), for example, stress that "(...) by far the largest focus in translation process research to date, (...) has been translation competence and its acquisition". Similarly, Malmkjaer (2009, p. 122) asserts that "the notion of translation competence is central in translation theory as well as in pedagogical approaches to translation". Correspondingly, TC is expected to continue to be a prominent area of research in its field for some time in future despite the varied denominations and the ever-expanding scope attributed to it. On the one hand, it is partly so because the problems related to defining it in an accurate way do not seem to lend themselves easily and objectively to reliable and practical solutions. On the other hand, it is so because of the apparent dearth in the empirical and experimental efforts which try to ground for solutions in TS. In a discipline that is still in its relative infancy, like TS, such controversial matters may continue to persist and may not be settled before some years or decades, if one inclines to be optimistic.

Yet, there is a remarked disagreement among scholars about the definition of TC which does not necessarily imply immaturity in the way it is handled or studied. It could well reflect the tantalizing nature of the concept and the various views scholars have about how to approach it. Their definitions and ways of approaching it are affected by their work, experience, adherence, personal attitudes and so on. Pym (2003, p.487), for example, finds that these views are affected, to a certain extent, by the theorists' works and that "(...) in most cases, the complex models of translation competence coincide more or less with the things taught in the institutions where the theorists work". Another problem with TC is that it is not defined explicitly by all the authors who used it. Orozco and Hurtado (2002, p.376) also assert that:

(...) the problem of translation competence is not in its denomination only because most authors who used the term did not define it which means that they may have a definition in mind but they did not make it explicit.

After listing ten leading authors in TS who use the term TC but do not define it, Orozco and Hurtado submit that they have found only four definitions of TC that they consider explicit. They list them and finally adopt PACTE's² definition in their research. These definitions are:

- Bell (1991, p.43) defines TC as "knowledge and skills the translator must possess in order to carry out a translation".
- Hurtado Albir (1996, p.48) defines it as "the ability of knowing how to translate".
- Wilss (1982, p.58) assumes that TC calls for:

an interlingual supercompetence (...) based on a comprehensive knowledge of the respective SL and TL including the text-pragmatic dimension, and consists of the ability to integrate the two monolingual competencies on a higher level.

² **PACTE** refers to a research project in TS called Process in the Acquisition of Translation Competence and Evaluation, which is carried out by a group of researchers based in the University of Barcelona- Spain and led by Amparo Hurtado Albir.

- PACTE (2003, p.44) defines TC as “the underlying system of knowledge and skills needed to be able to translate.”

The four definitions seem to agree on the use of words like ‘knowledge, skills and abilities’ to describe the competence system that underlies the process of translation.

2.2. The Term TC

Before proceeding to thoroughly examine the different definitions of TC and what components they involve, it would be preferable to briefly present some ideas about the original meaning of the term and how it acquired a new and partly different meaning in TS.

In the field of TS, according to Rothe-Neves (2007), the study of the qualities of a good translator is based on the concept of TC. The original meaning of ‘competence’ in TS is the “quality of possessing a skill, knowledge, or qualification” (p.125), and within this understanding it is, in a way, synonymous with aptitude. It has acquired a new meaning in TS, under the effect of theoretical linguistics and particularly of Chomsky’s ideal speaker-listener (Chomsky, 1965, p.3), as a mental faculty or underlying knowledge. Although Malmkjaer (2008, p.295) admits the connection with Chomsky’s term, she stresses that “(...) the link between this notion and that employed by most translation scholars is tenuous”. She considers Harris and Sherwood’s (1978: 155-160) account of the interpreting that takes place among people in their daily interaction as an inborn ability and calls it “natural translation” which is explicitly related to Chomsky’s concept of competence.

Consequently, TC is perceived as a psychological attribute of an individual. This is, in fact, the very idea that Bell refers to as the ‘ideal bilingual competence’ when he considers the different approaches to build his translator competence model. He submits that “(...) in this we would be following exactly Chomsky’s view of the goals of linguistic theory and his proposals for the specification of the ideal speaker-hearer” (Bell, 1991, p.38). From this perspective, competence as ‘aptitude’ involves, in addition to mental faculty, “socially shared representations” which imply “behavioral performance and results” (Rothe-Neves, *ibid*, p.126). In this way, aptitude becomes a criterion

that can be adopted in the evaluation of a translator's work by peers. Rothe-Neves suggests that:

In the absence of a 'gold standard' when the question 'what makes a good translator?' is asked it is perhaps more important to inquire into the socially shared representations of a translator's work, than to inquire only into the intrinsic qualities of translators. This is why competence should take on the meaning of aptitude in translation (ibid).

The concept of 'aptitude' is adopted by Campbell (1991; 1998) to refer to one of the three components that make up his model of TC though he uses the term 'disposition' instead. This term and the model will be discussed in some detail later in this chapter.

Rothe-Neves also mentions that Nida (1964) was the first to refer to Chomsky's term of competence in connection with translation, though he did not mention it in the index of his book. He used another term instead; he describes it as a 'generative device' that coincides with Chomsky's competence regarding the speaker's ability to generate a series of sentences (ibid, p.60). Like Chomsky, Nida uses the term to refer to a mental faculty, something like 'aptitude' rather than to procedures (Rothe-Neves, ibid, p.133).

In an insightful essay entitled *Conceptualizing Translation Competence*, Lesznyak (2007, p.167) stresses the idea that "the term 'competence' is used in a somewhat arbitrary way in translation studies", and that she did not find 'state-of-the-art reviews' on the concept of TC except in Pym (2003), when he redefines TC in his seminal paper *Redefining Translation Competence in an Electronic Age: In Defence of a Minimalist Approach*. So, she draws mainly on Pym's work and the work of the psychologist Franz Weinert (2001). Weinert has dealt with competence from a cognitive psychology perspective and he defines competence as "a roughly specialized system of abilities, proficiencies or skills that are necessary or sufficient to reach a specific goal" (Lesznyak, ibid.). To adopt such a definition of competence from psychology to TS, it is necessary to vividly establish the relevance of cognitive psychology to TS in general and to TC in particular. However, she fails to do that, which questions the validity of her arguments and results. She only admits that 'Weinert's Conceptualization' is "too detailed" for the current TC models. Building on this definition, Lesznyak

claims that most of the models and approaches to TC are but “ideas or suggestions or hints that lack elaboration” (ibid, p.172). According to her, in terms of sophistication, these models or ideas cannot compare to language competence models (such as Canale and Swains 1980; or Bachman 1990), or social competence models (such as Meichenbaum et al. 2003). This is because “as a rule, these [TC] ‘models’ give an excellent grasp on particular aspects of translation competence, but neglect its complexity” (Lesznyak, 2007, p.172). She does not seem to put blame on the authors since, as she claims, their primary aim is not to build models of TC, but she stresses the fact that “because they [the models] miss important aspects of translation competence they cannot serve as the basis either for empirical research or training” (ibid), and in this way she questions the effectiveness of current TC models and empties them from their basic functions. However, when Lesznyak comes to examine the meaning given to the term ‘competence’ by cognitive psychologists, and in her outline of the different ways in which the term was used, she points out the relevance of that meaning to TS and TC, and also the sense in which she finds Weinert’s model relevant to translation. Subsequently, she assumes that it is possible to fit the different models of TC into that categorization.

Similarly, Hurtado and Alves (2009) perceive TC as a cognitive aspect of translation that underlies the work of both translators and interpreters and enables them to carry out the cognitive operations necessary for the adequate unfolding of the translation process. They list a considerable number of translation models which define TC. Most of these models are componential which assume that TC consists of several components. They deal with TC as a complex of components or subcompetencies, building on the ideas of a number of models starting from Bell (1991) and ending with Goncalves (2007). The components these models propose include linguistic and extra-linguistic knowledge, documentation skills, knowledge and abilities. In addition, they mention some authors “who argue that TC also entails a strategic component geared to problem solving and decision making” (ibid, p.64). Hurtado and Alves (ibid, p.63; Pym, 2003, pp.484-5; and Gerding, 2012) also point out that different terms were used to refer to the concept of TC. Table 2.1 below lists these terms and the authors who first used them.

Table 2.1 TC Labels

Concept	Author(s)	Year
Transfer Competence	Nord	1991
Translating competence	Gerding	2000
Translation Ability	Lowe	1987
	Stansfield et al.	1992
	Pym	1993
	Hatim and Mason	1997
Translational competence	Toury	1995
	Hansen	1997
	Chesterman	1997
Translation Competence	Toury	1984
Translation Expertise	Holz-Manttari	1984
Translation Performance	Wilss	1998
	Rothe-Neves	2007
Translation Proficiency	Wilss	1982
Translation Skill	Lowe	1987
Translatorial Competence	Risku	1998
Translator's competence	Kussmaul	1995

So, the different denominations indicate the relative terminological incongruity among authors about the concept of TC.

2.3. Definition of TC

An early definition of the concept of TC is Toury's (1984) who, focusing on the field of translation teaching, suggests that bilinguals have an "innate translation competence comprising bilingual and interlingual ability", in addition to a "transfer competence" (Toury, 1984, pp.189-190). While from a wider horizon, Bell (1991) proposes three ways to characterize TC:

- Ideal bilingual competence which would look at the translator as an "idealized, flawlessly performing system," in much the same way as the transformational generative grammarians assume an ideal speaker-hearer to be (p.38).
- Expert system which contains a knowledge base and an inference mechanism (p.39).
- Communicative Competence which includes four components that are grammatical, sociolinguistic, discourse, and strategic (p.41).

Bell defines translator's competence as the "(...) knowledge and skills the translator must possess in order to carry it [translation] out" and considers this

competence as one of the 'twin issues' that translation theory must address alongside the process of translation (ibid. 43). However, the current study plans to apply a translator-centered approach rather than the once dominant text-centered or system-centered approach. This is justified because the focus of the proposed study is on translation as a process where the translator is an important dimension, rather than on translation as a product where the translator is mostly invisible. This approach, though relatively new, has provided a novel viewpoint on the translation process (Venuti, 1995, p.1; 1998, p.32; Bell, 1991, pp.12-13).

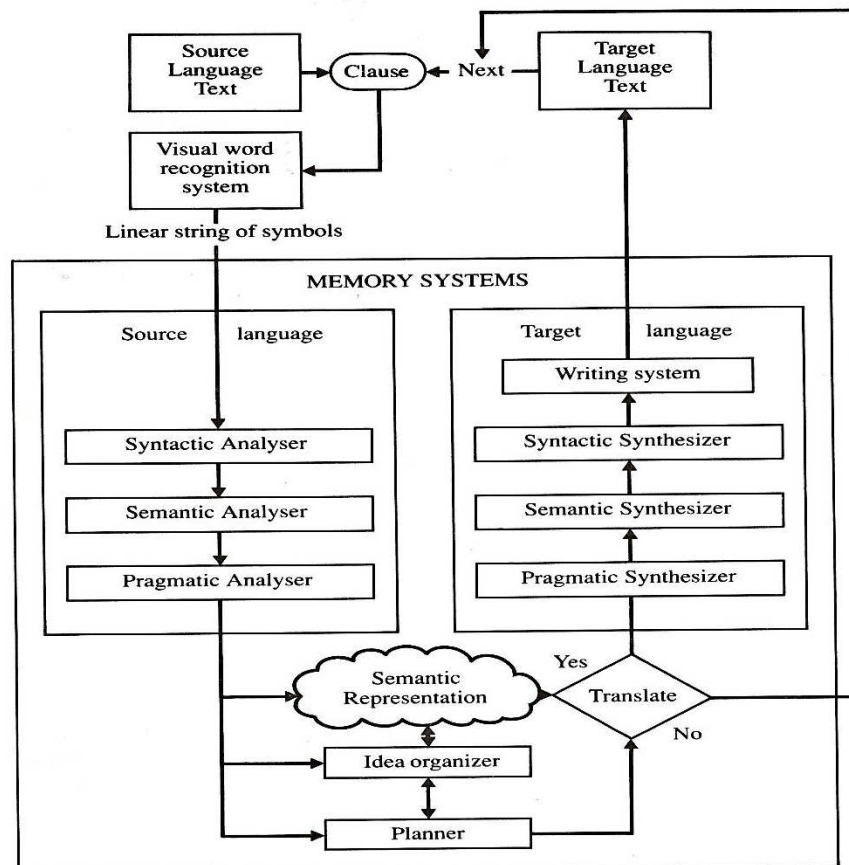
The importance of Bell's model is that it is a pioneer study that so vividly and practically establishes the translator-centered approach. In addition, his model is, in a way, a unitary translating model that does not differentiate between translating into the L1 and translating into the L2. This idea is particularly important to the present study because it is based on a replication of a model of translating into the L2 on translation into the L1. As such, Bell introduces a two-step simplified model for the process of translating which he describes as "the transformation of a source language text [ST] into a target language text [TT]" (Bell, 1991, p.20). In building his model, he draws on the linguistic and psychological knowledge, especially when dealing with text-processing. His model primarily consists of a process of the analysis of a Language specific text into a universal semantic representation, and then the synthesis of that semantic representation into a TT. Three areas of operation are identified in this model: syntactic, semantic, and pragmatic.

Another important point is his argument against the then dominant approach that it has excluded the study of the process of translating and considered it a far-fetched objective. To maintain his argument, he criticizes Newmark's statement that "any scientific investigation of (...) what goes on in the brain (the mind? nerves? cells?) during the process of translating is remote and at present speculative" (Newmark, 1988, p.2). To the contrary of this, Bell argues that:

(...) any advances in translation theory can only be achieved through a study of the process (...) what is required is a description of that process and an explanation of it (Bell, 1991, p. 22).

Bell was one the first to call for adopting a descriptive rather than a prescriptive approach in investigating the process of translating. Figure 2.3 below displays Bell's outline model of the translation process.

Figure 2.3 Bell's Translation Process: Outline Model



Likewise, Hewson and Martin (1991) try to define TC when they reflect on the theory that they were trying to build about translation in the three kinds of competence they propose. They propose an 'acquired interlinguistic competence' which is competence in at least two 'linguistic systems' and also some knowledge of the cultures associated with them. Then, they proposed what they call 'dissimilative competence' comprising "1) an aptitude to generate and dissimilate homologous statements and (2) an aptitude to define and recreate socio-cultural norms". This is not something possessed by the translator, but it refers to:

(...) all the dissimilative competence which has been accumulated and committed to translation auxiliaries such as translation methods, dictionaries, data banks, and expert systems (p.52).

These three kinds of competence are also found and expanded in the componential models of TC that will be discussed below.

Nord (1992), looking at TC from a translation teaching point of view in the same way Toury did, gives a list of competences with which she sought to underpin the teaching of translation in her advocated approach of text analysis.

These competences are:

...competence of text reception and analysis, research competence, transfer competence, competence of text production, competence of translation quality assessment, and, of course, linguistic and cultural competence both on the source and target side, which is the main prerequisite of translation activity (Nord, 1992, p.47).

Conversely, Pym (2003) presents a counterargument to the componential approach of TC, in fact, to the whole concept of TC as a divisible body of knowledge and skills that the translator may possess or acquire. He calls for a rather different approach that can look at TC from a 'minimalist' point of view. So, he criticizes what he expects to be a continual general tendency among the theorists of TS who work on expanding the multicomponential models of TC as they attempt to bring as many new skills and proficiencies into the area of translator training. He also expects that this tendency will continue and increase with the use of the technological devices and tools that are used to aid the translation process. He argues that those expansions of competence are "(...) partly grounded in institutional interests and are conceptually flawed in that they will always be one or two steps behind market demands" (ibid, p.481). Consequently, he favors what he considers a 'simple minimalist concept' that is suitable to direct translator training in the rapidly changing technological age (ibid.).

In fact, Pym's call for a minimalist concept of TC is not a new one because it is rooted a decade earlier when he terms TC, as 'translational competence', defining it in a behavioral framework as consisting of only two abilities:

- The ability to generate a target-text series of more than one viable term (target text₁, target text₂...target text_n) for a source text.
- The ability to select only one target text from this series, quickly and with justified confidence, and to propose this target text as a replacement of source text for a specific purpose and reader (Pym, 1992, p.281).

Thus, the translation process for him has two phases; the generation of a TT series as possible substitutes of a ST, and the selection of one of them to replace the ST. He, later (2003), criticizes componential models of TC in favor of a 'minimalist' concept based on the production of replacements followed by the elimination of alternatives.

From a pedagogical point of view, Campbell (1998, p.6) emphasizes the role which the purpose of translation study has in the characterization of TC, when he concludes that "It seems that the way TC is characterized has a great deal to do with one's purpose". For him the purposes may include teaching, where investigating TC is supposed to allow for an increase in the intervention in the classroom, or may include investigating the translation process from a theoretical point of view. At the end, he suggests that "Indeed, it is difficult to imagine why one would want to investigate translation competence at all without some broader purpose in view" (ibid.); thus relating the study of TC to a purpose. This statement also resonates with Lesznyak's conclusion that:

none of the models of translation competence is inherently better than the others. It is always the purpose of a given piece of research or project that should determine the type of competence model to be adopted (Lesznyak, 2007, p.167).

Working from an inverse translation point of view (translating into the L2), Campbell (1998, pp.6-11) states that one can conceptualize TC from any of three perspectives:

(i) Psychological modeling: It is carried out by the process of inferring mental constructs from empirical data. To 'chart' the development of such competence is by trying to map the inferred mental constructs in translators of different levels of ability to be able to make inferences about the different cognitive strategies. For example, planning can be studied empirically to make inferences about the type and extent of planning, which the translator indulges in while translating. If planning is proposed as an aspect of TC, it is possible to

detect how this ability develops over time. This aspect of planning can be tested by using think-aloud protocols [TAP]. In psychological modeling we find the translator at the core of the investigation, while the translated texts become the experimental data. The readers of the texts become the processors of the data. These models are used for realizing a translational problem or the use of translational strategies like retrieval, monitoring, decision-making ... etc. and also to monitor translators' development and progress over time.

(ii) Translation quality assessment: In this type of modeling the relationship between the translated text and its readers is given primacy over the translator and the process of translation. The reader's judgment or impression about the translated text becomes the yardstick against which the text quality is measured. It is, consequently, assumed that the quality of the translated text is a reflection of the translator's competence. Such modeling is based only on a superficial relevance between the reader and the translated text. However, Campbell stresses the idea that the construct validity of the quality assessment models is questionable because they are not "(...) underpinned to theory at all, at least in a principled or even conscious way on the part of their designers" (ibid: 8).

(iii) Pedagogy: It is an attempt to foreground theories of teaching and learning to model TC. It applies theories like discourse analysis, textlinguistics ... etc. on the level of developing practical translation strategies to center around the question of how particular linguistic features function within the ST. These models tend to be theory-centered or text-centered rather than translator (student)-centered. The prescriptive nature of these theories "automatically prevents them from being able to describe competence per se; what they describe is the anticipated results of the programmes that they espouse" (ibid, p.11).

The various denominations for TC clearly reflect the disagreement on an inclusive term. It is also evident that a certain author may use a term for some time and then switches to another, as is the case with Lowe, Toury and Wilss above. This supports Pym's observation that:

We find the term 'competence' simply being kicked around the park, with the more substantial referent then becoming something else, some other term. (Pym, 2003: 485).

In an interview with Pym about the aspects of Translation Education Quangong et al. (2010) asked a question about the relationship between TC and expertise. Pym's answer is that competence consists of knowledge and skills: to learn something, and to learn how to use it skillfully. He stresses the idea that we do not need models at all. What we need are skills and how to become experts in those skills rather than competence and performance models. He prefers to use the term 'expertise' in place of 'competence', and rejects the componential perception of TC, claiming that the number of competencies is not based on empirical evidence. He also assumes that PACTE's usage of the term competence comes very close to expertise because the different components are reflections of the skills required by a translator, and that it has been changing over the years. Notably, this last assumption can be noticed in PACTE's definition of TC as having four features the first of which is being expert knowledge (Quangong et al, 2010, pp.5-8).

In the closely related study to Pym's (2003), Lesznyak tries to present some speculations on how to categorize TC models. She first thinks of the 'origin of the model' as a possible criterion to conceptualization in categories such as belonging to pure theory, professional practice, translation teaching and empirical research. However, she finds considerable difficulty in identifying the origin of the model or its 'multi-origins', and she states that "there would be nearly as many categories as models" (Lesznyak, 2007, p.173). Finally, she decides that Pym's model, which is based on the content of its components, as the most satisfactory of the models and she adopts it but with slight modifications (ibid). She suggests that the first category in Pym's categorization 'competence as no such thing' is better eliminated, and she gives blunt justifications for that. She stresses that Pym does not make the meaning of this category clear, and that the examples he gives do not support what he assumes, because the authors he mentions in this category do not deny the existence of TC but they resolve to other approaches or terminology such as expertise or performance. The only case where flat denial of TC is found is in an early study by Wilss in 1976. At that time the term 'competence' was used in a

rather different meaning than it is used three decades later, as Pym submits. It was basically derived from, and affected by Chomsky's proposals about the ideal speaker-hearer which were dominant then, and that is why:

it is no wonder that Wilss was skeptical about the existence of translation competence in that sense, and even more reluctant to define it. Later on, Wilss changed his model of translation competence several times (Lesznyak, 2007, p.173).

It is clear that there are no approaches in this category that deny the existence of the construct of TC as such. Consequently, it seems plausible to accept Lesznyak's modification to eliminate the category of "competence as no such thing" since there is no good reason why one should have a category that will remain empty (ibid. p.173).

Another subtle suggestion that Lesznyak (ibid. p.172) makes is to split up the multicomponential category of TC models as it is 'too heterogeneous'. She also regrets that "most translation competence models are not based on empirical research, and that they are usually not empirically tested either". She finds the only exceptions for that are Stansfield et al. 1992; Campbell 1991, 1998; or the works of the PACTE Group 2003, 2005. Lack of empirical testing, according to her, turns TC models into mere speculations, even though they have great effects on researchers (ibid.). Unfortunately, she did not include, in her classification, models like Bell, 1991, Nord, 1992, Hatim and Mason 1997, Ulrych 1999 or Kilary 2000 for no convincing reasons. She claims that she only 'tried to choose influential models' and also the ones which fit into Pym's and Weinert's categorization (ibid, p.174). We are not told on what bases certain models are considered influential whereas others are not. Nevertheless, in her paper she gives a very effective table (ibid, p.177) of her categorization that shows an exceptional classification which vividly shows how she managed to fit the various models of TC into a categorization borrowed from a model in psychology by Weinert.

Certainly, among the current definitions of TC, the PACTE multicomponential definition seems to be the most comprehensive one in terms of the range of skills, expertise, and knowledge that a translator must possess. According to them TC is:

(...) the underlying system of declarative and predominantly procedural knowledge required to translate. It has four distinctive characteristics: (1) it is expert knowledge that is not possessed by all bilinguals; (2) it is mainly procedural rather than declarative knowledge; (3) it is made of several interrelated subcompetences; and (4) the strategic component is of particular importance, as in all types of procedural knowledge (Hurtado and Alves, 2009, pp.64-65).

The components of this model as adopted from PACTE (2003) are six, covering different but related subcompetences of TC. The same components are exactly stated by Hurtado and Alves as the components of the model (2009, p.66) and also in the later PACTE results (2011). They explicitly explain those skills, expertise and knowledge as follows:

- 1. Bilingual sub-competence:** Predominantly procedural knowledge required to communicate in two languages. It comprises pragmatic, socio-linguistic, textual, grammatical and lexical knowledge.
- 2. Extra-linguistic sub-competence:** Predominantly declarative knowledge, both implicit and explicit. It comprises general world knowledge, domain-specific knowledge, bicultural and encyclopedic knowledge.
- 3. Knowledge about translation:** Predominantly declarative knowledge, both implicit and explicit, about translation and aspects of the profession. It comprises knowledge about how translation functions and knowledge about professional translation practice.
- 4. Instrumental sub-competence:** Predominantly procedural knowledge related to the use of documentation resources and information and communication technologies applied to translation (dictionaries of all kinds, encyclopedias, grammars, style books, parallel texts, electronic corpora, search engines, etc.).
- 5. Strategic sub-competence:** Procedural knowledge to guarantee the efficiency of the translation process and solve problems encountered. This sub-competence serves to control the translation process. Its function 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.

6. Psycho-physiological components: Different types of cognitive and attitudinal components and psycho-motor mechanisms, including cognitive components such as memory, perception, attention and emotion; attitudinal aspects such as intellectual curiosity, perseverance, rigor, the ability to think critically, etc.; abilities such as creativity, logical reasoning, analysis and synthesis ... etc.

Translation competence, like all expert knowledge, is applicable to problem-solving. The solution of translation problems involves different cognitive operations within the translation process and requires constant decision-making on the part of the translator. The expert translator thus possesses the ability to solve problems, which forms part of translation competence. We believe strategic competence to be the most important of all the sub-competences that interact during the translation process since it serves to make decisions and to solve problems.

Although these components represent the minimum requirements of TC, the focus of PACTE is particularly placed on three of them as special components of TC, building on the fact that all bilinguals have knowledge of two languages and they may have extra-linguistic knowledge. So, three subcompetences are considered 'specific' to TC and the group research focuses on them. These are "strategic competence, instrumental competence and knowledge of translation" (PACTE, 2010, p.6). However, there is no logical reason why these competences are given priority over the others, as there is no way to ensure that bilinguals are perfectly balanced in both languages or that they certainly possess the extra knowledge. One can agree that these three competences are particularly needed by the translator, but they need to be complemented by the others.

2.4 The Scope of TC

The concept of TC is practically stretched between two extremes to contain and suit the different aims and purposes of the authors who defined it from varying perspectives. The first extreme is the complete denial of the availability of the concept as such. This can be seen, for example, in the early work of Wilss (1976, p.119) which is quoted by Pym (2003, p.482), where Wilss denies the 'uniform qualification for translational work' by suggesting that the Applied

Science of Translation (for which he was proposing then in an attempt to get TS dissociated from linguistics) does not give a:

(...) satisfactory answer to the professional minimum qualification of a translator because translational competence as a uniform qualification for translational work is, to all intents and purposes, nonexistent and probably also nondefinable (Wilss, 1967, p.119).

So, according to this statement, competence cannot be, and must not be confused with matters of professional qualification, teacher training or translation classroom practice. It illustrates rejecting the overlap between the term 'competence' with its connotation of innateness and terms like 'professionalism' and 'expertise' that are acquired through learning and practice.

The other extreme is the full submission and untroubled recognition of the multi-componential nature of TC, whose components are extensively explained and taken for granted as the building blocks of the concept. These components are generally looked at as including competences required to carry out the translation process, and comprising both linguistic and extra-linguistic factors. They comprise factors such as:

- Bilingual knowledge or competence in the languages involved in the translation process.
- Extralinguistic knowledge or bicultural and thematic awareness competence.
- Declarative knowledge or knowledge about the translation process including competence in the methods and procedures.
- Procedural subcompetence or the strategic knowledge and competence in the translation process.
- Instrumental competence including the use of documentation, tools of translation and communication and so on.
- And the cognitive competence often described as the psycho-psychological component including things like attitude, memory, creativity, and critical thinking (for more details about these components or subcompetences see, for example, Hurtado and Alves, 2009, pp.65-66).

A look at the different models of TC shows that they build on almost the same components even when they use different terms to refer to these components or subcompetences. Toury's concept of competence (1984, pp.189-90) for example, comprises bilingual and interlingual ability in addition to transfer competence. In contrast, Bell's model (1991) comprises the knowledge-base and the inference mechanism. The knowledge-base, in turn, includes a number of components: L1 knowledge, TL knowledge, text-type knowledge, domain knowledge and contrastive knowledge. The inference mechanism includes the two mechanisms of decoding and encoding of the text (Bell, 1991, p.40). So, it is almost obvious that both models comprise a bilingual competence component in addition to a strategic and a procedural competence.

Relatedly, Campbell's model of TC in its earlier version comprised two components: disposition and proficiency. On the one hand, disposition covers psychological qualities such as risk-taking and persistency, while proficiency, on the other, covers the bilingual skills only (Campbell, 1991, pp.329-43). Proficiency refers to a more static kind of knowledge consisting of language components i.e. bilingual knowledge (Pym, 2003, pp.488-9). In 1998 Campbell introduces a more detailed and a wider study where he enhanced and extended his model to include three components: textual competence, disposition, and monitoring. The first of these is concerned with bilingual matters; the second builds on psychological and psycho-linguistic constituents, while the third covers procedural and strategic constituents (Campbell, 1998, pp.152-76). Pym describes this model of TC as a 'more engaging' one and that it is of interest because the disposition component can account for why different translators work in different ways. He also favors the model because it accounts for nothing but the translating process.

Subsequently, the merit of Campbell's model is that it is empirical and combines psycholinguistics with studies on bilingualism. It is a model which is partly different from the others discussed at the beginning of the chapter in the sense that it does not adopt the traditional and widespread ways of assessing TC through comparisons between STs and TTs. Instead, it uses translation tests to assess TC, building on the assumption that it is possible to assess it by testing, and that those tests are supported as the common criteria for

accreditation and the selection and recruitment of translators for jobs. In addition, the research is adequately sampled and this may account for considerations of higher reliability when compared to the other so-called empirical models of TC. In the earlier version of 1991, Campbell enrolls (41) subjects, which is a considerably high number of subjects that is rarely, if ever, found in a TS research, and in the latter version of 1998 he enrolls (50) subjects which is even more than the first (Campbell, 1998, p.80).

Moreover, a rapid review of the history of the empirical research in TS shows that it is relatively new. It merely dates back to the 1980s as Orozco and Hurtado (2002, p.377) put it. They state that this type of research, which is basically conducted on written translation, has led them to the conclusion that it mostly suffers 'major problems' from both the scientific and the theoretical point of view. From the theoretical side, only some aspects of TC or the translation process are tackled. While from the scientific side, the results cannot be generalized because they lack some of the main components. They confirm that:

this creates a situation where it is difficult for the researcher who wants to start new research not to start again from zero, since the different research studies carried out cannot be replicated (due to mostly lack of data about subjects, materials used, etc.) or their conclusions brought together to form a model (ibid).

A list of a considerable number of empirical studies on written translation was compiled earlier by Orozco (2000, pp.48-49) and displayed by the authors in their study (ibid, p.378). The authors believe that these studies suffer both scientific and theoretical problems, and deal with certain components of TC while neglect others.

However the function of empirical research in TS is not well-established to the degree that an author like Pym questions its utility. To answer the question 'Can empirical research be of help?' [in defining TC and the translation process] which Pym poses, he gives two antonymous answers:

Undoubtedly yes. Our models and definition must be able to make sense of reams of data on many levels (translations, errors, doubts, expectations, time constraints, whatever), and should ideally do so in a way that makes the models and definitions falsifiable (this aspect has been sadly missing). Then

again, no, the key step resides in the intellectual task of staking out the field of study in the first place. And there, in the production of a definition, the problem is not just to account for data; it is also to approach some kind of consensus among the translation community, it should orient research, and it should ideally focus training. In all of this, a definition can look as scientific as you like, but it can never really remain neutral (Pym, 2003, p.498).

Contrary to Pym's largely speculative view about empirical research in TS, Orozco and Hurtado objectively engendered their criticism of this issue by focusing on three basic aspects: "the samples used, the design of the studies and the use of Think-Aloud Protocols as an instrument to elicit data" (2002, p.378). In most empirical studies the samples are inadequate as the numbers of participants are small as in Tirkkonen-Condit (1992 and 1993) where only three participants were recruited, or Königs (1987) who recruited one professional translator and four foreign language learners. On the other hand, sometimes the samples are irrelevant when non-translators such as language learners are recruited in place of translators as in Koings above or Krings (1986). These cases deprive the results from the advantage of being generalized. As for the experimental design, it lacks well-defined objectives, resulting in imprudent generalizations of the results, and lack of objectivity in interpreting the results. While TAP, though widely used in TS, are criticized for being alien to TS and belonging to another discipline (psychology), which questions their relevance in one way or another (ibid, p.378-9).

Although Campbell's model of TC seems to outlive criticism on the methodological side because it is based on an adequate and homogenous sample, it is questionable on theoretical and practical bases. The positive point of criticism is put by Lesznyak (2007, p.186) who first praises the model for the inclusion of the disposition component which she describes as a 'unique feature' unprecedented by other models. She then proposes that the model does not contain a separate component for 'transferring' or 'transcoding' from one language into another, which puts it in sharp contrast with other models which adopt this component. However, this point does not much degrade the model since it actually included transferring in the textual competence component. The second point, she puts, is about the exact relations between disposition and TC, and she wonders whether:

(...) this is really a sign of risk-taking behaviour or of something else, e.g. verbal creativity, first language transfer or conscious and learned translator strategy/behavior (ibid.).

Nevertheless, Campbell stresses that the concept of disposition is an extra-linguistic factor that affects the process of translation when he assumes that:

the disposition component reflects individual characteristics of the translator unrelated to language competence, and the way these characteristics impact on the job of translating (Campbell, 1998, p.155).

This puts disposition among the elements that are accounted for in the psychometric profiling of TC which depends on the characterization of the translator's character traits.

Another relevant competence-oriented model is the inferential model of translation which views translation as a "means of cross-cultural communication" (Gutt, 2000, p.205). It builds on the premises of relevance theory as developed by Sperber and Wilson (1986) since the mid-1980s. Its account of translation is both competence-oriented and cognitive. So, it deals with how the ability consists and how it works, starting from an observation that "(...) human beings have the remarkable ability of telling in one language what was first told in another language" (ibid.). The core idea of this model is that translation is a mental process that takes place in the translator's mind who is supposed to understand better than others what goes on in his mind. So, this model, as a cognitive one, seeks to understand the mental processes involved in the translation process, and thus to find out how communication through translation could be successful. Gutt thinks that in order for discussions about TC which have gone beyond language control and comprised factors outside language proper:

to yield adequate results, the psychological modalities on which translation builds must be clearly understood. Thus the primary concern of translators is not the representation of states of affairs, but the metarepresentation of bodies of thought. Accordingly, the translator's attention must concentrate on the cognitive environment of the parties concerned, not just on external contextual factors (Gutt, 2004, p.13).

Thus, it is expected to have different cognitive environments because there are three different parties participating in the translation process; the writer of the ST or the original communicator, the translator who renders the text and produces the TT and the reader or the audience who receives the TT. Consequently, the need to deal with these different environments that are possessed by the involved parties requires the skill of metarepresentation which is a basic skill in translation and a central component in TC (ibid.).

According to the relevance-theoretic approach a communicator has an intention to convey or express 'a body of thought' to the audience or receptor(s), and to achieve that s/he produces a stimulus to make the receptor perceive that the communicator has such an intention, and also to perceive what that intention is. This is not always an easy or straightforward task because there are instances in 'verbal communication' where there is no exact correspondence between the actual meaning and the linguistically encoded meaning to the extent that there may be a contradiction between the two as in the case of irony, for example, where the communicator intends to convey an opposite meaning to what he says (ibid, p.77). This leads to the core idea of the relevance-theoretic approach of communication which affirms that:

while linguistic coding does play an important role in verbal communication it is not the decisive factor in the interpretation process, (...) clearly encoded information can be overruled by thought processes, that is, by inferential processes, that rely on other information available to the audience (ibid, 78).

The question remains how can one get the meaning that the communicator intends to convey if it differs from the linguistic meaning, or if it is opposite to it? Understanding the intended meaning, according to Gutt, depends mostly on metarepresentation, which means the ability of "thinking how other people represent (...) states of affairs in their minds- even if their thoughts are different" (ibid, p.80). This process is understood necessary when the original communicator and his receptor(s) do not share the information required to understand a message, or what the inferential theorists call the 'mutual cognitive environment' which both parties have in common. In translation, it becomes necessary for the translator to metarepresent the original author on

the one hand and the receptors of his translation on the other if they do not share the same cognitive environment with him (ibid, p.81).

Hurtado and Alves mentioned that it is common that there are TC models which are representative of componential models “(...) that assume similar components for TC though they differ in their terminology and distribution in terms of subcomponents” (ibid, 2009, p.66). Those models agree that TC consists of a number of components that are geared to different activities in the translation process (ibid, p.64).

2.5. Concluding Remarks

The important concept of TC may continue to be one of the most controversial concepts in TS which the discipline has ever had. The meaning of the term has undergone considerable changes under different effects. It was first introduced in TS under the powerful effect of theoretical linguistics and of Chomsky in particular. It was viewed first as a mental faculty that must be addressed from a cognitive perspective. Then under the influence of a number of TS authors working in this field, it has shifted its meaning from being a mental faculty, almost synonymous to ‘aptitude’, to a more procedural concept. It has extended to comprise components alien to ‘mental faculty’ or cognition per se (PACTE, 2010). Those components are labels of professionalism and practice. Generally, this extension can be attributed to four related sources: translation quality assessment and criticism, translation teaching and pedagogy, studies of bilingualism and to the rapidly developing technology.

The authors who brought about the changes in the meaning of TC can be grouped into two main groups. First, an overwhelming majority adheres to the componential way to look at TC such as Campbell, Hurtado Albir, Kiraly, Neubert and others. Most of them believe that TC can be broken up into a number of components (on which they do not agree) which can be singled for study and analysis. Although they divide TC into components to fit their practical needs and purposes, they are not able to agree on terminology and denominations, or stick to the bases of their original definitions as is the case with PACTE. They claim that their concept of TC is borrowed from linguistic competence but:

(...) they define translation competence as including an array of knowledges, skills and abilities which vary between individuals and which would never find their way into the notion of linguistic competence (Malmkjaer, 2009, p.123).

Second, a smaller group comprises authors like (Pym, 2003; Wilss, 1967; Gutt, 2000) who declare that TC is a unitary cognitive or mental faculty that must be perceived and studied in this way. So, they approach it from a psychological, psycholinguistic and cognitive perspective, but, in practice, they also extend it to include different constituents such as Bell (1991).

Since professional needs, qualifications and attributes are changing over the time as a result of scientific and technological development, it may seem inappropriate to combine them with the mental faculty for which TC refers. They may not end up with a stable concept that can serve as a solid basis to ground for adequate studies of this concept. In any case, TC can be approached from different angles but jumbling those approaches together will not lead to favorable results. Nor would leaving the door wide open for adding more and more components will provide the solution to TC conceptualization problems. It looks as if TS specialists need to reconsider their definitions of this concept in the light of the recent developments in TS research, aided by the vast and increasingly rapid technological developments.

This present study attempts to adopt the empirical and cognitive side in TS research. Although this field is still in its relative infancy, and is largely dependent on the achievements of other branches of knowledge such as psychology and cognitive science, it has shown glimpses of success in the applications of those achievements in investigating TS topics. Interest in the translation process and in what goes on in the translators' minds when carrying out the process of translation, are somehow new issues. Sharon O'Brien stresses that "the primary focus in translation studies is still text, language and culture, and *how* translation happens is still a somewhat peripheral question" (O'Brien, 2011, p.1). However, many achievements are brought about by the introspection procedures based on the TAP, and the other newer ones that O'Brien mentions such as keyboard logging, and eye-tracking (ibid, p.14; and Campbell et al, 2010, pp.37-59). Finally, this study will largely depend on the

more traditional procedure of investigating the process through the descriptive analyses of the product and tries to infer the process through the examination of the written product of a group of student-translators aided by statistical procedures which will hopefully yield fairly effective results.

Finally, the choice to replicate Campbell's model is based on three considerations. First, it is preferable because it has the advantage of being empirically well-tested and adequately sampled, which is something scarce and lacking in TS. Second, although it is componential it has only three components, which almost cover all the competences required in translation, and this makes the model more liable to investigation and easier to control. To explain, it tackles the bilingual matters and transfer in the textual competence component, the psychological and psycholinguistic matters in disposition and the procedural and strategic matters in monitoring. Last, as a process-oriented model, it is concerned with translation only and has thus outlived problems of validity. For these reasons it is rationalized that the model is worthwhile to test and replicate on translation into L1.

Chapter Three: Methodology of the Study

This chapter gives an account of the methodology of the study. As this study is essentially empirical, the description of its methodology requires some elaboration on the procedures which are adopted throughout. The issues that are to be discussed here include description of the pilot study, participants, data, evaluation dimensions, and statistical tools and expertise that are used in the analysis of the data.

3.1. The Pilot Study

In preparation for the actual study, a pilot study was conducted to primarily test the procedures. It was intended to evaluate feasibility, time, adverse events and effect size (statistical variability) in order to predict an appropriate sample size and improve upon the study design prior to the implementation of the full-scale research project. As is customary, it was conducted on members of a relevant population but not on those who will form part of the final sample (Lodico, et al, 2010, pp.217-18; Howitt, and Cramer, 2011, pp.284-85). This is because it may influence the later behavior of research participants if they have already been involved in the research. Application of those procedures to a small group of participants helps to show the weaknesses of the procedures and the areas that need to be amended, both in the procedures and the materials to be used for collecting the data.

The current pilot study comprises two phases: (1) pre-pilot study and (2) the actual pilot study. The first of these is mostly observational and diagnostic. It aims to ensure that the phenomena and problems intended to be tested by the research questions are, roughly, present and reflected by the potential sample. The “pre-pilot study”, was administered on a group of four postgraduate students in Arabic, School of Modern Languages and Cultures at the University of Leeds. All were native speakers of Arabic, with an advanced level of proficiency in English and some experience of English to Arabic translation. They were asked to translate an earlier version of the STs which were later finalized to be translated by the participants in the actual study experiment. A

prolonged feedback session of about ninety minutes followed the translation task to discuss the problems which the participants had encountered. The discussion was focused on issues of comprehension of the STs, decision-making in translating, production of the TTs, revision, self-assessment of the participants' output and the time they needed to complete their task.

This early diagnostic step helped in exploring the problems that those participants faced in the task of translating the texts. The outcome of this step helped to identify and ascertain the problematic lexical items that are anticipated to test the problems of disposition and textual competence through the study of omissions and lexical transfers, most of which were originally highlighted by the researcher. This step led to shortening the texts, which will be used in the final experiment, by discarding certain elements that were deemed unnecessary such as repeated lexical items and structures, examples, redundant explanations and some proper nouns. In addition, it helped to decide on an estimated time for completing the task. Moreover, the post-task discussion that was carried out with the participants showed the importance of retrospective interview procedures in retrieving information from the participants about the problems they faced in the task, which was hard to extract from their written product. This pre-pilot study helped to clarify other matters associated with the forthcoming study, chief of which was the effectiveness of the directions and the administrative procedures. The final directions became clearer and unambiguous, and the administrative procedures smoother and easier.

The second phase comprised the actual pilot study using the refined version of the texts and procedures which were tested in the earlier phase. Three postgraduate students of Arabic, other than those who took part in the pre-pilot phase, were invited to participate in the pilot study. They were similar to the pre-pilot participants in that they were native speakers of Arabic with a considerable level of proficiency in English, and some experience in English to Arabic translation. In addition, they displayed drive and incentive to participate in the study. So, they completed a two-hour session of translation, self-assessment procedures and a retrospective interview. Their translation output was then examined and used in planning the full-scale [forthcoming] study.

The analysis of the three students' target texts showed that there were approximately 25 lexical items in each text that the three translators rendered unevenly; those participants gave different renditions of those items, and sometimes they left some of them untranslated. The dissimilarity among the participants in rendering those lexical items ranged from 74% for Text One [T1] to 83% for Text Two [T2]. This suggests that highly significant variation among the participants of the main study in rendering lexical items is anticipated to be detected. Those differences in rendering and deletions reflect, among other things, the differences and mismatches in the cognitive processes in the translators' minds, their decision-taking processes and their disposition in dealing with the problematic items.

In the area of grammar, the pilot study gave an indication of the different ways in which the different translators deployed grammar to make texts. Since the participants are native speakers of the TL, they are not thought to be in the stage of competence development as their language is theoretically established. Consequently, there is no need to identify the whole language system, but rather rely on studies that give taxonomies of common translation errors in the areas under investigation. In any case, the participants in a given study may not make all the errors mentioned in the taxonomies or anticipated by the previous studies because they may not encounter the same problems in the grammar of the STs. Thus, there is no assumption, whatsoever, to claim that any texts, including the selected texts of this study, are apt to sample the whole language or display all the possible and anticipated problems of translation. Unexpectedly, however, the output in this pilot study showed a wide range of grammatical errors in the participants' use of the TL. The errors were spotted in the different levels of the TL grammar system, ranging from low levels of mechanics such as matters of concord, word order, inflectional morphology and so on, to the higher levels of syntactic aspects needed to deploy the grammar of the TL to produce texts which conform to the conventions of the TL such as issues of calque, type of sentences, attribution, connectors and so on.

The analysis also gave some indications about the monitoring question that the study plans to investigate. In the final study, this may confirm or falsify the

assumptions made by Campbell (1998, pp.135-6) that students have a good awareness of their ability to translate into their L1, or that students may consistently overestimate or underestimate that ability. His conclusion that “Arabic students greatly overestimate their ability [to translate] into their first language” (ibid, pp.136) is of great interest in this experiment. So, in this pilot study, on a scale of one to ten (ten being the highest), two of the participants highly self-assessed their translation ability at eight points and the third assessed it at seven. However, this aspect cannot be investigated by this narrowly-scaled pilot study because it relies on correlations with some external measures (that are lacking in this situation) such as tutors’ assessment, which will be obtained and adopted in the final study by asking the participants’ tutors for a general cumulative assessment of the level of TC, which they consider those particular students to have.

As for the real-time revision of the TTs, few interventions were noticed in the translations of two of the participants but many were seen in the translation of the third participant. However, there was variation across texts for all participants: there were more interventions on the initial renditions in Text 2 compared to Text1. Yet, the majority of the interventions were understood to be positive since they seemed to desirably alter the quality of the translation.

To sum up, the pilot study contributed to refining the procedures of the final study in some important ways:

- It provided a preliminary testing of the research questions and confirmed the accessibility of the issues targeted by the investigation and synchronized the chance for testing them in a clearer and more effective way. For example, it showed that the participants vary in their rendition of the lexical items to a large extent. In addition, it revealed that their lexical transfers reflect both their comprehension and textual competence problems. As for the revision, it indicated that they tend to amend their product through making corrections, even though sometimes they may not be successful and harm rather than promote their translation.
- It permitted a preliminary check of the planned statistical and analytical procedures and gave the opportunity to evaluate their usefulness in treating the data. The main statistics that are used in the study include the

dissimilarity matrix, disposition grids, revision effectiveness charts, choice network analysis and correlation coefficients. These procedures will be explained later in the statistical analysis of the different components.

- It reduced the number of unanticipated problems because it gave the chance to redesign parts of the study to overcome the difficulties that it revealed. First of all, it helped in deciding the time to be designated to the translation of each text. It was important to reduce the time of the experiment to reasonable limits so that the participants would not be overtaken by fatigue and boredom. A two-hour experiment was finally decided to be the maximum time limit based on the feedback provided by the pilot study. Second, it tested the clarity of the directions and the retrospective questionnaire and allowed for revising them to maximize their effectiveness. Last, it helped in redesigning the background information sheet to include only the essential information that was deemed basic for the research, also ensuring the effectiveness of the recruiting procedures of the participants in the study.
- The retrospective questionnaire was chosen to replace the retrospective interviews of the pilot study on the grounds of practicality. Since the retrospective interviews must directly follow the written translation task in order to be effective, it was found that the participants were not willing to perform them because they felt fatigued after a tiring two-hour session of translation. In addition, it is anticipated that in a large-scale study where the number of participants totals twenty or more in a single session, it is not ethically wise or even thinkable to make the participants wait their turn in the interview for hours, even if they were inclined to do so. Consequently, the questionnaire was preferred because its administration to the whole group takes a relatively shorter time (about ten minutes) after the translation of each text. It can also give the participants a better opportunity than a delayed interview to elaborate on the fresh cognitive processes which have very recently taken place in their minds when they performed the translation task.

3.2. Procedures: The discussion of the procedures includes description of the participants, experiment, data, evaluation dimensions and the statistical methods used in the analysis of the data.

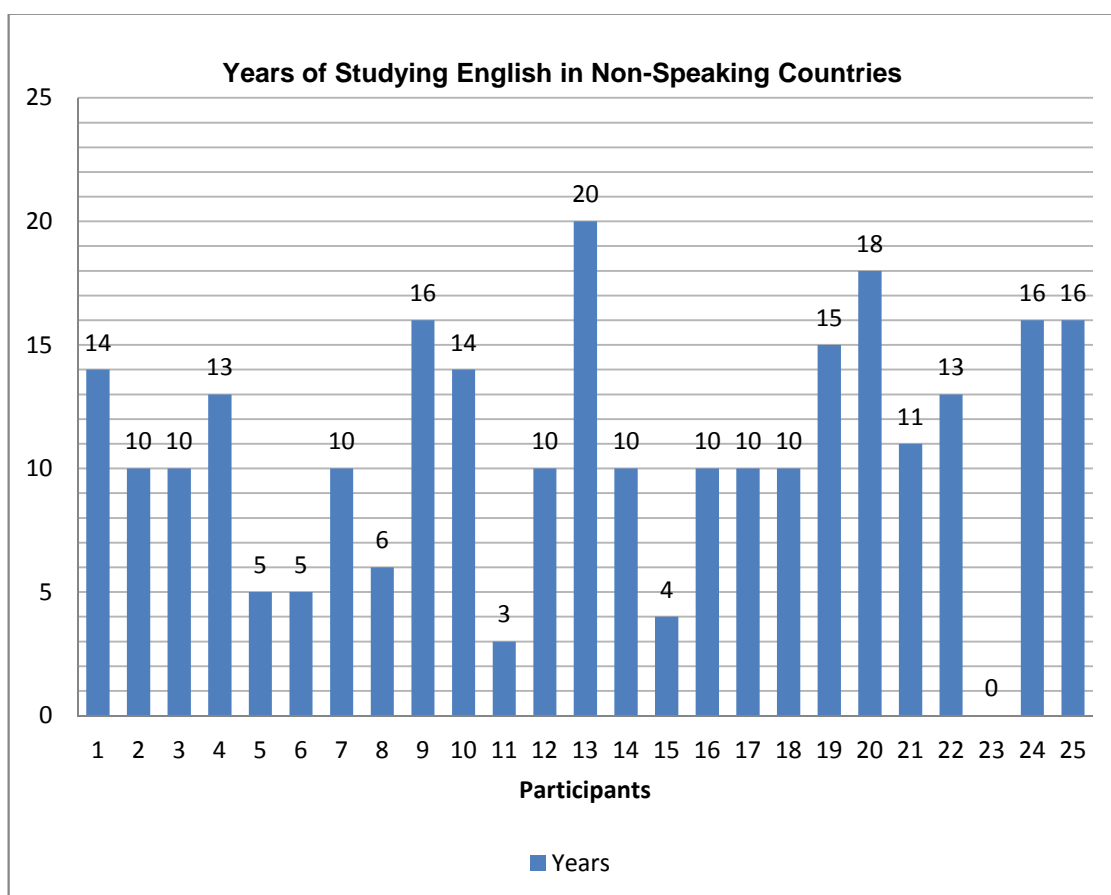
3.2.1. Participants: The participants of the study were twenty-five MA student-translators native speakers of Arabic, for whom English is not the L1, taking their courses at university in the UK. At the time of the study, they were enrolled or had been enrolled in a module of English into Arabic translation. They were doing their Masters in translation in the UK; at the University of Durham (18 participants) and the University of Salford (7 participants). They were 14 females and 11 males, with an age range between 22 and 41 years and an age average of 28.28 years. Although they came from 10 different Arab countries where different Arabic dialects are spoken, it does not affect the study because the data is based on their written language which is standard Arabic. Indeed, all Arab countries use standard Arabic as the language of education and instruction for subjects that are taught in Arabic. The participants' age, gender and country of origin are shown in Table 3.1 below:

Table 3.1 Participants Age, Gender, and Country of Origin

Participant	Age	Gender	Country of Origin
1	32	F	Oman
2	29	F	Saudi Arabia
3	27	F	Saudi Arabia
4	30	M	Saudi Arabia
5	35	M	Oman
6	25	M	Saudi Arabia
7	36	M	Iraq
8	41	M	The Sudan
9	29	F	Saudi Arabia
10	21	F	Kuwait
11	24	M	Saudi Arabia
12	25	M	Saudi Arabia
13	29	M	Oman
14	24	F	Tunisia
15	32	M	Oman
16	30	F	Saudi Arabia
17	26	F	Saudi Arabia
18	23	F	Saudi Arabia
19	29	F	Saudi Arabia
20	23	F	Jordan
21	37	M	Syria
22	33	M	Jordan
23	22	F	Somalia
24	23	F	Palestine
25	22	F	Jordan

Another aspect of the participants' background that was investigated was the period of studying English in non-English speaking countries (mostly their home countries where English is learned as an L2) because this affects their L2 proficiency. It was revealed that most of them studied English in the non-English speaking countries with an average of 10.57 years. Figure 3.1 below illustrates the period in years for each participant:

Figure 3.1 Studying English in Non-English Speaking Countries



On the other hand, the amount of time they had lived in English speaking countries was investigated for the same reason of L2 proficiency. The responses that were given show a great variation in the period among them ranging from less than a year to 10 years. However, the majority of them lived for relatively short periods making an average of 1.94 years as shown in the table below:

Table 3.2 Living in English-speaking Countries

Participant	Country	Years	Months	Dates
1	UK	-	8	Not mentioned
2	USA	7	0	1984-1991
3	UK	-	8	Not mentioned
4	UK & India	1 2	7 0	2010-2011 2005-2007
5	UK	-	8	Not mentioned
6	UK	-	8	Not mentioned
7	UK	2	2	2009-2010
8	Canada & India	10	0	Not mentioned
9	UK	0	6	Not mentioned
10	UK	0	5	2011-2012
11	UK	0	5	2011-2012
12	Canada	0	3	Not mentioned
13	UK	0	5	Not mentioned
14	UK	0	5	2011-2012
15	UK	0	9	Not mentioned
16	UK	0	8	Not mentioned
17	UK	2	0	2010-2012
18	UK	2	0	2010-2012
19	UK	1	0	2011-2012
20	UK	1	0	2011-2012
21	UK	0	9	2011-2012
22	UK	1	2	2011-2012
23	UK	10	0	2002-2012
24	UK	0	8	Not mentioned
25	UK	0	8	Not mentioned

The participants were also asked about their most recent language proficiency tests as they are indicators of their control of the TL which is necessary for conducting the translation process. TL proficiency is considered one of the important components of language proficiency (see PACTE, 2011, p.33; Campbell, 1998, p.56; and Bell, 1991, pp.35-40). Most of the participants indicated that they had recently taken the IELTS examination except one who has taken both the IELTS and the TOEFL, and one who did not take any language test but had been admitted to the program based on the GCSE scores. The table below shows their scores on the tests together with the dates they were taken:

Table 3.3 Most Recent English Language Test Scores

Accronyms: L=listening, OA= Overall score, R=reading, S=speaking, W=writing

Participant	IELTS					TOEFL	other	date	date
	OA	L	S	R	W	OA	OA	IELTS	TOEFL
1	7	-	-	-	-	-	-	2011	-
2	7	-	-	-	-	-	-	2010	-
3	6.5	6	6	6.5	6.5	-	-	2011	-
4	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
5	6.5	6.5	6	6	6.5	-	-	2011	-
6	5.5	5.5	5	5.5	6	-	-	2011	-
7	5	-	6.5	-	-	-	-	2009	-
8	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
9	6.5	6.5	6.5	6.5	6	89	-	2011	2011
10	7.5	7	7	6.5	8	-	-	2011	-
11	6.5	6.5	7	6	5.5	-	-	2011	-
12	6.5	6.5	6.5	6	6.5	-	-	2011	-
13	6.5	7.5	6.5	6.5	6.5	-	-	2011	-
14	7.5	7	8	6.5	8	-	-	2011	-
15	8	8.5	8.5	7	7	-	-	2011	-
16	6.5	6.5	7.5	6	6	-	-	2011	-
17	5.5	5	6	5.5	5.5	-	-	2011	-
18	6.5	6	6	6	6	-	-	2011	-
19	6.5	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
20	6.5	6.5	8.5	5	6	-	-	2011	-
21	7.5	7.5	8	7	7.5	-	-	2010	-
22	6.5	5.5	6.5	6.5	7	-	-	2011	-
23	-	-	-	-	-	-	GCSE	-	-
24	6.5	6.5	7.5	6.5	6.5	84	-	2011	2011
25	6.5	6	7.5	6	6	-	-	2011	-

In Question (9) the participants were asked to estimate their English language proficiency by ticking one of three offered choices: 'intermediate', 'advanced' or 'native like'. These estimations were to be used later as indicators of their ability to estimate their rendering of the experiment texts later. It is found that 19 of them consider that their level of language proficiency as 'advanced', 4 as 'native like' and 2 only as 'intermediate'. Similarly, their assessment of their translation professionalism was investigated in Question (11) by ticking one of three choices: 'novice', 'amateur' or 'professional'. It is found that 14 of them opted to 'amateur', six to 'professional' and 5 to 'novice'.

The last aspect that the participants were asked to mention was the period they have spent practicing translation in both directions from English into Arabic and from Arabic into English, which was investigated by Question (10) of the background sheet. Their responses show considerable variation in their translation practice ranging from zero to fourteen years. This aspect was

expected to prove relevant to the variation in their TC. Table 3.4 below shows the periods of practice as given by the participants:

Table 3.4 Participants' Translation Practice

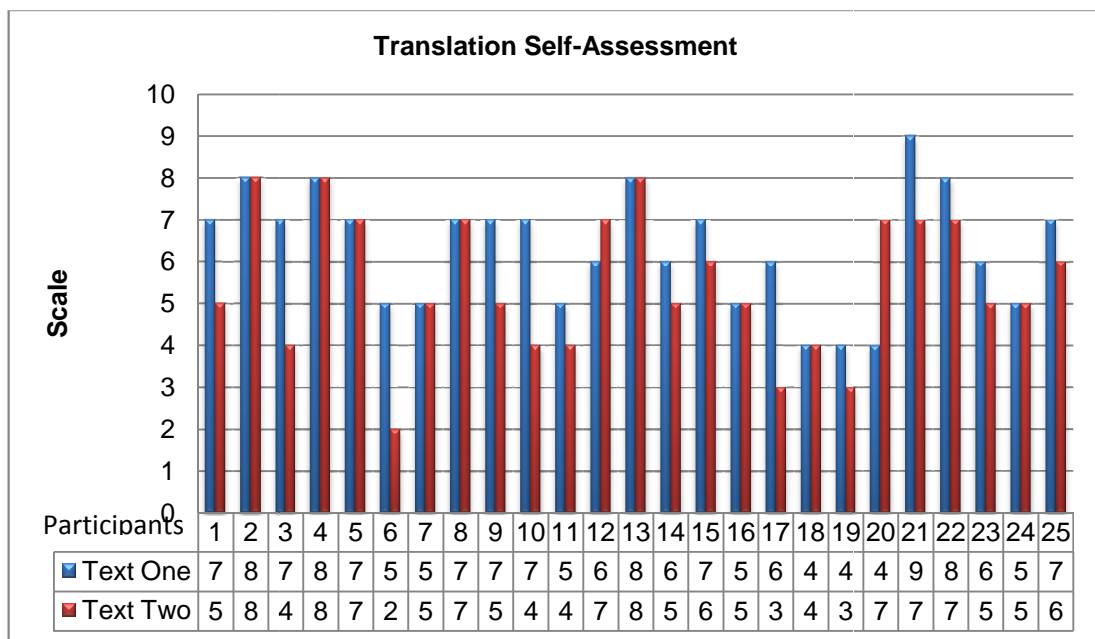
participant	Into Arabic		Out of Arabic	
	Years	Months	Years	Months
1	0	5	0	5
2	2	3	2	3
3	0	3	0	3
4	3	1	3	1
5	5	0	9	0
6	0	3	0	3
7	0	6	0	6
8	0	0	0	0
9	0	0	0	0
10	0	0	0	0
11	0	3	0	3
12	0	4	0	4
13	5	0	5	0
14	0	6	0	6
15	10	0	10	0
16	0	0	0	7
17	0	0	0	0
18	0	0	0	0
19	1	0	1	0
20	5	0	5	0
21	14	0	14	0
22	0	10	0	10
23	4	1	4	1
24	1	0	1	0
25	5	0	5	0

3.2.2 The Experiment: The experiment was conducted after ethical approval was obtained from Faculty Research Ethics Committee at the University of Leeds. It was administered as a classroom translation practice session of about two hours, divided into two periods, one text each. In the beginning of each administration, the researcher handed each participant a numbered empty envelope in which to place the completed sheets. In the first ten minutes, before starting the translation, the participants were asked to sign a consent form (Appendix A.2.1) and to provide information about their background. The first thing each participant did was signing two copies of the consent form which recorded the participant's acceptance to take part in the study. Each participant put a copy in the envelope and kept the other for him, after both copies were signed by the researcher. The participants, then, were

directly handed the background information sheet (Appendix A.3), which they completed directly after the consent form, and whose results were displayed in the past tables and comprised eleven multiple-choice items and fill-in questions.

The next activity was to translate the texts. After completing the translation of each text, a second task for the participants was to give their personal estimation of their translation of that particular text on a ten point continuum which they found printed below each text (see appendix A.1 for the texts and the accompanying continuum). Actually, all the participants gave that assessment after they translated each text. The *mean* assessment for T1 was 6.32 and for T2 was 5.28, making an overall *mean* of 5.8 for both texts. Figure 3.2 below illustrates participants' assessment of their translation on each text.

Figure 3.2 Translation Self-assessment



Data were collected in three separate sessions; two at Durham University and one at Salford University, contingent on the convenience of the participants and their tutors. The first session was in Durham, administered by the researcher with the help of the group tutor, and enrolled twelve participants. It was conducted on 15 February 2012 at 13.00-15.00 pm. The second, which involved seven participants, was conducted at Salford University on 24 May 2012 at 13.00-15.00 pm by the researcher and with the help of the group tutor. The third was conducted at Durham University at 12.00-14.00 on 25 May and

enrolled six participants. It was administered by the group tutor. After each session, the researcher (and the group tutor in the third case) held a short meeting with the participants to discuss the principles and the procedures that were to be followed in the data analysis which was first explained to them in the invitation for participation. The participants were also asked permission to use an independent assessment given by their tutor about their general (cumulative) TC, independent of their achievement and scores. All the participants gave approval and were delighted to offer their help. The tutor assessment was planned to be used as an external measure to test the reliability of the participants' self-assessment.

It is worth mentioning that, during the experiment, the participants were not allowed to use dictionaries and internet resources because it was perceived that this would disrupt the flow of translation. What is important for the study is not primarily the accuracy of the translation but the translators' variation in the way they resolve translation problems or approach them. The variation among translators in the use of cognitive strategies in solving the problems is the indicator that will be incorporated with the other indicators to profile their TC. This idea corresponds to the method used by Lorsch (1986 and 1991) in a large scale think-aloud study where the subjects were not allowed to use dictionaries, and also Bernardini (1999, p.4). The aim was to ensure that a large number of problem-solving processes would be present. Similarly, Campbell and Wakim (2007, p.14) systematically address this important methodological question of what aids should be permitted to the translator. They posit that:

The intuitive answer is that if the use of such aids [dictionaries...etc.] disturbs the even flow of processing, the experiments should not permit them. On the other hand, in professional work, translation aids are routinely used and represent just one more attractor of attention.

Actually, many participants expressed, in their responses to the open item in the retrospective questionnaire, their wish that they had dictionaries to check out the unfamiliar lexical items they encountered in the texts. This supports what Lorsch, Bernardini and Campbell suggested above that the lack of aids could increase the number of problems which face the translator. However, since one of the aims of the present study is to investigate the translator's

disposition or his aptitude to solve translation problems, it is justified to forbid using translation aids in the experiment.

All the participants completed all the required background information sheets, translated the whole texts to the end, gave the self-assessment on each text and finally responded to the retrospective questionnaire (Appendix A.4) after translating each text. Consequently the researcher did not discard any of the scripts because all of them abide by the selection criteria. The actual quality of the participants' translation or their achievement in the courses was irrelevant because the study is not interested in measuring their achievement; it is rather interested in revealing the variation among them, as reflected in the TTs they produced, in relation to the hypothesized components of TC. Therefore, the study does not highly contemplate on information about the translation quality per se and very narrowly uses it.

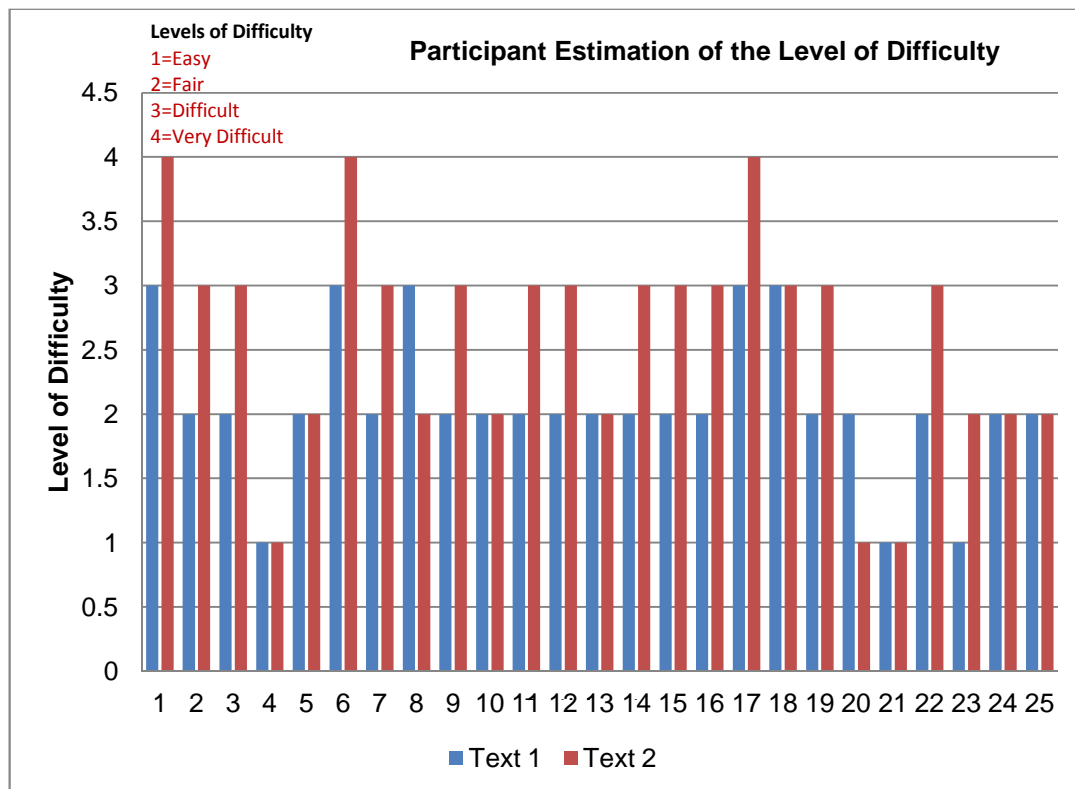
In addition to the background information, which the participants made available, they responded to a retrospective checklist to probe their ideas about a number of issues after translating each text. Hence, the last five minutes of working on each text, were used to reflect and fill in that questionnaire. The questionnaire comprised five multiple choice items and one open-ended item. The questions were designed to elicit information about the participants' estimation of the problems they faced regarding:

1. the level of difficulty of the text,
2. the level of language structure they worked at,
3. the sufficiency of the time allotted to the task,
4. the time when they carried out revision,
5. the time they spent on revision
6. and finally the items or areas which caused most of the difficulty in translating the ST.

In the first item of the retrospective protocols checklist, the participants were asked to define the level of difficulty of the text, they have already translated, on a range of five choices as: easy, fair, difficult, very difficult, and exceptionally difficult. This question was set to elicit information about the range of translation

problems the participants faced and tried to solve in each text. The results show that T1 is viewed to be less difficult than T2 as illustrated in the figure below:

Figure 3.3 Participants' Estimation of Texts Level of Difficulty



The results can be summarized in table 3.5 below as follows:

Table 3.5 Summary of Participant Text Difficulty Estimations

Total Results	Text 1	Text 2
Easy	3	3
Fair	17	7
Difficult	5	12
Very difficult	0	3

The results show that estimation of the level of difficulty increases markedly for T2 as compared with T1, and this clearly suggests that T2 was relatively more difficult than T1.

The language level the participants worked at was investigated by the second item on the checklist. The participants were asked to tick one choice or

more out of four choices which include: word, phrase, sentence, and text. Table 3.6 below shows the level each participant confirmed they were working at and the total number for each level for both texts:

Table 3.6 Participants' Estimation of the Level They worked at

participant	Level worked at	
	Text 1	Text 2
1	Text	Sentence
2	Sentence	Sentence
3	Phrase	Phrase, sentence, text
4	Sentence	Sentence
5	Sentence	Sentence
6	Phrase	Sentence
7	Word, sentence	Sentence, phrase
8	Word, text	Word, sentence
9	Sentence	Sentence
10	Word	Phrase
11	Sentence	Sentence
12	Sentence, text	Sentence, text
13	Phrase	Phrase, sentence, text
14	Word	Phrase
15	Sentence	Sentence
16	Text	Phrase
17	Word, sentence	Word, sentence
18	Word, sentence	Word, sentence
19	Sentence	Sentence
20	Phrase	Text
21	All levels	Word, phrase, sentence
22	Sentence	Sentence
23	Sentence	Sentence
24	Sentence	Text
25	Phrase	Sentence
Total results		
Word	6	4
Phrase	6	7
Sentence	15	20
Text	4	5

Apparently, and as they stated, the majority of the participants usually take the sentence as the unit or level at which they work in the first place. The level of phrase comes second, whereas few of them stated that they worked at the level of the text.

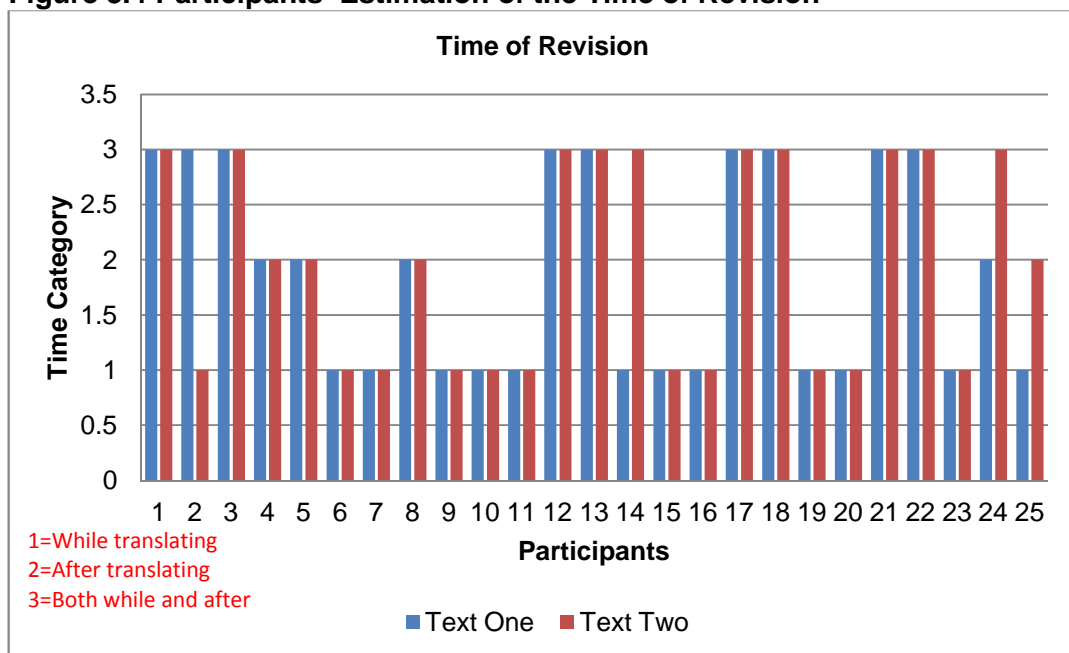
The third item was to find out the participants' opinion about the time allotted to the task by ticking one of three choices: less than required, sufficient, and more than required. Responses to this item have shown that none of the participants opted to the first choice to claim that the time was less than was

required to complete the task. To the contrary, all the participants found the time was sufficient, and two of them (5 and 9) found it even more than was required. These responses bluntly tell that the participants did not run short of time, and it entails that they were given the chance to perform optimally.

The next item investigated the time when the participants carried out revision. It was accomplished by asking the participants to choose one of three choices: ‘while translating’, ‘after translating’, or ‘both while and after translating’. The results clearly show that almost the same pattern was present in the timing of revising for both texts. A small number (5 in each text) stated that they revised only after they translated the texts, while the remainder overwhelming majority of the participants revised either while they translate (11 for T1 and 10 for T2) or both while and after translating (9 for T1 and 10 for T2). Figure 3.4 illustrates their responses to this item.

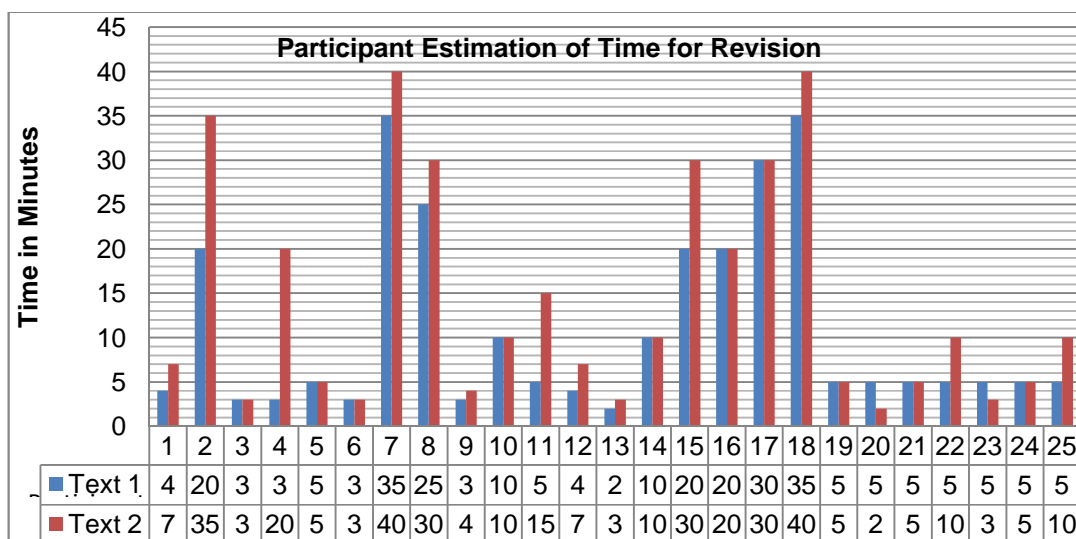
As the previous item enquired about the time of revision, the fifth item asked about the amount of time each participant spent on revision.

Figure 3.4 Participants’ Estimation of the Time of Revision



The responses reflect that participants generally spent less time revising T1 as compared to T2. This poses questions about the effect of text difficulty on the revision process. Definitely, this aspect will be elaborated on in Chapter six: The Study of Monitoring, in this thesis. Figure 3.5 below shows this aspect:

Figure 3.5 Participants' Estimation of the Time for Revision



Unlike the five previous items, the last item in the checklist was an open-ended question which enquired about the areas of difficulty in the STs that caused most problems for the participants in translation. The responses on both texts were pooled because the participants repeated the same remarks. It was revealed that there were roughly six consciously problematic areas. The classification of these areas was derived from the participants' statements who agreed on the headings displayed by Table 3.7 below:

Table 3.7 Areas of Difficulty Faced In Translating the Texts

Par	Acronyms and unfamiliar words	Culture-specific items	Exact equivalents	Legal terms	Nouns kind, number & gender	Long complex sentences
1	X	-	-	-	X	x
2	X	-	-	-	-	x
3	X	-	X	-	-	x
4	-	-	-	-	X	x
5	X	-	-	x	-	-
6	X	-	-	x	-	-
7	X	-	-	-	-	x
8	X	-	-	-	-	x
9	X	-	-	-	-	-
10	X	x	X	-	-	x
11	X	-	-	-	-	x
12	X	-	-	x	-	-
13	X	-	-	-	-	x
14	X	x	X	-	-	-
15	X	-	-	x	X	-
16	X	-	-	x	X	-
17	X	-	-	-	-	x
18	X	-	-	-	-	-
19	X	-	-	-	-	x
20	X	-	-	-	-	x
21	X	-	-	x	-	-

22	-	-	-	-	-	-
23	X	-	X	-	-	x
24	X	-	-	-	-	-
25	X	-	-	-	-	x
Total	23	2	4	6	4	14

It is clearly reflected by the table that the most significant problem is translating acronyms and unfamiliar words. Apparently, this is partly because they did not have dictionaries or online resources. The next problem was translating long complex sentences. Problems like translating legal terms, finding exact equivalents, translating nouns and culture-specific terms were less frequent matters.

3.2.3 Data: The data that will be entered in the analysis are derived from the participants' translations of two written prose texts, 220 words each, taken from press editorials. T1 is an extract from a larger article published in the New York Times on April, 3, 2011 and retained the same title which is "Fixing the Mistake with Young Offenders". Similarly, T2 is an extract from a full editorial published in the Los Angeles Times/Opinion on March 30, 2011. It is entitled "Immigration: Review of Jail Fingerprint Sharing Program Underway". The texts were selected from a number of press editorials reviewed for the purpose of the study by the researcher in coordination with the supervisors of the study. Some parts of the original texts were omitted for practical considerations of brevity without affecting the overall meaning and buildup of the texts.

The choice of press editorials over other genre types is well justified by Campbell (1998, p.76), and it is accepted as a proper criterion in the selection of the texts of this study. He assumes that "while many of the other genres are represented in the materials of translator training courses, this type seems to predominate and is very typical of accreditation examination scripts" (ibid). It is assumed here that this type of texts is also suitable because the participants of the study who are student-translators are familiar with it.

The results of the analysis will be used to answer the research questions concerning the components of textual competence, disposition and monitoring. The data that will be used in the portrayal of **textual competence** are both qualitative and quantitative. Qualitative data, found in the lexical transfers, will be used to draw conclusions about textual competence which refers to the ability to manipulate the TL stylistically. According to the preliminary results of

the retrospective questionnaire, it is expected to find a great variation in textual competence among the participants ranging from those who merely think at the level of sentence or even below that at the level of word and phrase to those writing at the level of the text. However, this matter will be investigated by comparing the different translations of each word and deciding whether one or other versions demonstrated textual competence. The second type is derived from the calculation of the grammar errors of the different types detected in the participants' translations. A detailed description of the method of dealing with them is given in the section of evaluating textual competence in this chapter.

On the other hand, the data that will be used to account for **disposition** are all quantitative. The first set of data involves the number of candidates who left a lexical item untranslated. These are referred to as omissions, and some participants have more omissions than others. Their performance in this case is depicted as 'persistence' (omitting no elements of the ST or very few of them) when they insist on translating the whole text as opposed to 'capitulation' (omitting many elements of the ST) as they give up when facing difficulties. The second set of data comprises the degrees of dissimilarity among individual participant's renditions or the degree of proximity to the standard renditions or remoteness from them. As some participants perform or make lexical choices closer to the regular, they are regarded 'prudent'. On the contrary, participants who produce unusual translations are branded 'risk-takers' (These terms were given by Campbell, 1998, p.107).

Unlike the data on disposition, the data on **monitoring** comprises both qualitative and quantitative elements. The assessment study is based on qualitative data derived from the participants' self-assessments correlated with the tutors' assessment. These data will be used to uncover the relationship between monitoring and TC, notably whether an overestimation or an underestimation of one's competence relates to high or low levels of TC which the participants have. On the other hand, the data that are used in the investigation of revision are quantitative and consist of real-time revision manifestations (the observable interventions made by the participants) to be used to describe a facet of TC. Revision can be easily observed on the handwritten texts submitted by the participants. For example, it is possible to

observe a participant who crosses out a word and replaces it by another to correct its spelling, give an alternative to convey the exact meaning or make a shift in the word order to amend a poorly structured sentence and so on. The kind and number of each participant's interventions will be used to establish information that is relevant to his TC. The whole data will be used to describe the three components which constitute TC as it is entailed in this study.

The same method and techniques of analysis that were used by Campbell (1998, chapters 5, 6 & 7) will be used here because they are conceded by the researcher to be valid and appropriate since they aim at similar ends. They will be separately discussed here as they are used in the analyses of the data concerning the investigation of each of the components of the model in relation to Campbell's evaluation dimensions.

3.2.4. Evaluation dimensions: The evaluation dimensions of each of the three research components are devised as follows:

3.2.4.1. **Evaluation of textual competence:** The concept of textual competence, as proposed by Campbell (1998, p.153) to be a key element in TC, refers to the concept of being able to produce texts which mimic the texts produced by native speakers of a given language. He defines it as "the ability to manipulate the genre potential of the target language by deploying grammar and lexis above the level of the sentence" (ibid).

However, the situation in which the present study deals with textual competence differs in direction from that which Campbell refers to. It deals with translation into the L1, whereas Campbell dealt with translating into the L2. So, it is necessary to set a slightly different working definition that partly differs from his definition in order to suit this dissimilar situation. In addition, the participants in this study are native speakers whose SL competence is theoretically established, unlike those in Campbell's study, who were L2 learners undergoing stages of TL competence acquisition and translating into a L2. Yet, in a later study Campbell tries to highlight the difference in the textual competence of translators working in their L1 and those working in L2 when he reasons about necessity of assessing the output:

This is not to say that translations into a first language do not need to be assessed from the point of view of target language competence. The

difference is that first language translators are expected to have full control over the sentence-level grammar of the language and to have a considerable lexical repertoire. In assessing their language competence, our primary aim is to measure the extent to which they can deploy grammar and lexis to meet stylistic requirements. (Campbell, 2000, pp.212-13)

The current study will investigate the area of grammar as it is a considerable constituent of textual competence in Campbell's model but in a slightly different way. This is because the translator into the L2 is unlike the translator into the L1 in that he is rarely (if ever) expected to encounter problems in the grammar of his native language. This idea is supported by the expectations of what a native speaker can do in his language. Pokorn (2005, p.8) suggests that:

a native speaker is someone who has the capacity to produce fluent, spontaneous discourse in English [his native language] and intuitively distinguishes between correct and incorrect forms of English.

The assumption that the native speaker has internalized the rules of his language and that he can automatically use them is also stated by Davies (1991, p.94) as follows:

Let me say what I expect from the native speaker. I expect the native speaker to have internalized rules of use, the appropriate use of language, to know when to use what and how to speak to others. I expect control of strategies and of pragmatics, an automatic feeling for the connotations of words, for folk etymologies, for what is appropriate to various domains, for the import of a range of speech acts (...).

The idea that a native speaker has the intuitive control over the grammar of his L1 and the ability to distinguish between grammatical and ungrammatical sentences echoes an earlier statement by Chomsky when talking about the idealized native speaker:

A grammar is... descriptively adequate to the extent that it correctly describes the intrinsic competence of the idealized native speaker. The structural descriptions assigned to sentences by the grammar, the distinctions that it makes between well-formed and deviant, and so on, must, for descriptive adequacy, correspond to the linguistic intuition of the native speaker. (Chomsky, 1965, p.24)

However, the pilot study showed a reality somehow counter to the idea that a native speaker has full control of the grammar of his NL, as revealed in conducting written translation. The participants in both the pre-pilot and the pilot study made a considerable number of common grammatical errors in their native language when they translated the experiment texts. However, this does not reinforce Campbell's conviction that textual competence problems for translators into the L1 must be different when he states that

In translation into the first language, textual competence must be highly relevant, but of a different nature. (...) The potential textual competence demanded of the translator into the first language is staggering: it is the ability to possess the linguistic power of the lawyer, the doctor, the engineer, the politician, and the public servant (Campbell, 1998, p.162).

The grammatical errors that were detected are not concerned with the language power which Campbell referred to, but they are common grammatical errors that disrupt building proper texts in the native language.

Nonetheless, there is no need to compare the participants' output texts to the texts produced by native speakers, as Campbell (ibid. p.84) proposed, because they are native speakers themselves. Also, there is no need to check their texts against the whole language system, but rather rely on studies which give the taxonomy of translation common errors in the areas under investigation, such as issues of grammar and lexis.

Actually, there is a considerable number of diagnostic studies which have dealt with the concepts of translator textual competence from the points of view of lexis and grammar problems and gave taxonomies of errors made by native Arabic translators into English. So, the texts that the participants produced will be checked against texts produced by professional translators in comparable situations. Thus, an expert professional translation was written for this purpose, by the researcher and was submitted to three professional translators to revise, correct and endorse. This process converted the expert translation into a formal written text in Arabic which functions as a fairly reliable yardstick to check the participants' translations against. For these reasons it is basic, at this stage, to alter Campbell's working definition of textual competence below, only as far as the direction of the translation is concerned:

Translators demonstrate textual competence when their target texts have the structural features of formal, written English; they fail to demonstrate textual competence when their output resembles informal spoken English (1998, p.73).

The working definition that is proposed in this study is as follows:

Translators demonstrate textual competence when their target texts have the structural features of formal, written texts in Arabic; they fail to demonstrate textual competence when their output resembles informal spoken Arabic.

As the current study depends on the analysis of the translations of selected texts rendered by the participants of the study, not all errors expected or taxonomized by previous studies will be expected from those participants, because they may not encounter all the same problems. So, there is no assumption, whatsoever, to preach that the texts sample the whole TL or sample all the problems encountered in translating into it. The detected problems are only those encountered in the particular texts of the study, and luckily they reflect a wide range of those problems taxonomized by previous studies.

The levels under investigation will include two dimensions; (1) grammar and (2) lexis. The first dimension is to investigate the deployment of grammar in the production of TTs. It will deal with the mechanics of the TL grammar, mostly at the sentence level, including matters of concord, word order, inflectional morphology and the like. So, during the analysis, a number of problematic areas in this concern were detected, and the errors were counted to provide an inventory of each translator's flaws and also the patterns of these flaws for the whole group. The variation among the participants was high to the extent that participant ten, for, example made thirty errors, whereas participant twenty-four made three errors only in a group where the *mean* was 13.32. The grammar problematic areas, of which detailed examples are given in Chapter Four, include:

1. Addition: when the translator gives some undesired addition in the TT which does not correspond with a segment in the ST and affects the grammatical pattern.
2. Faulty agent: when the translator uses the action in the TT instead of the agent which is present in the ST.
3. Ambiguous structures: when the translator gives an ambiguous meaning rather than the definite meaning provided by the ST.
4. Attribution: when the translator renders a different attribution from that of the ST.
5. Awkwardness: when the translator provides an awkward expression that does not match the original one of the ST.
6. Comparison: when comparison is not accurately rendered.
7. Noun gender and number: when these are wrongly rendered.
8. Informal: when a clearly informal spoken structure is used in the TT.
9. Parallelism: when parallelism is missing in the TT.
10. Parsing errors: when they are present in the TT.
11. Preposition: when the wrong preposition is used by the translator.
12. Punctuation errors.
13. Reference: when a faulty reference is used.
14. Spelling errors.
15. Verb form or verb number: when they are inaccurately used in the TT.
16. Word order: when the wrong word order is used in the TT.
17. Word choice: when the wrong word, which does not give the meaning expressed in the ST, is used in the TT.

However, Campbell stresses the need to “distinguish between Biber’s (1988) structural features, which offer the translator a choice, and semantic features, which do not because they are constrained by the meaning of the source text” (1998, p.77). He contemplates that there are ‘optional structural strategies’ which do not change the ideational content of the ST like passivation or embedding, and these are open to the translator to choose from. To the contrary, there are strategies that are constrained by the ST, which limit the translator’s ability to choose from, such as private verbs of fixed meaning like

think, declare, believe, consider...etc., which need to be precisely rendered because they decide the ideational meaning (See also, Vinay and Darbelnet, 2000, pp.84-93). In this connection, Campbell asserts that the “syntactic aspect seems to be more relevant because the translator has no real say in the creation of the ideational meaning; this job has been done by the source text writer” (ibid. p.76). As a result, Campbell reasons that textual meaning is the translator’s responsibility, while the ideational and interpersonal meaning is the original writer’s responsibility. He ponders that “the translator’s task is to repackage meaning in a fashion that corresponds to the stylistic norms of native writing, but not to create a new meaning” (ibid. pp.76-77).

The second dimension in the investigation of textual competence depends on the analysis of lexical transfers and their role in reflecting textual competence. The method that will be used is a choice network analysis (Campbell, 1998, pp.109- 125) to examine the alternative translations for each word and to look for evidence that the word has been chosen by the translator using judgments based on factors beyond the sentence. The evidence that Campbell looks for is based on:

(...) the extent to which these strategies reflect the ability of subjects to construct (to a greater or lesser degree) well-formed texts, rather than well-formed sentences without reference to context (ibid, p.123).

To achieve that, a network of choices is to be constructed for each word, a composite network is to be built up and a number of strategies to be identified. All judgments are to be based on the meaning of the lexical items. The choice of meaning rather than form is adopted because form cannot include the different guises in which lexical items are rendered and displayed by the translators.

Judgments on meaning and equivalents in the analysis will be checked against three filters. First, to limit the meaning of the lexical items under consideration to the context where they appeared by checking them against a reliable English-Arabic dictionary; AL-Mawrid by Mounir Baalbaki (2008) is chosen for this purpose. It is one of the most reliable and widely-used dictionaries by Arab translators rendering into their language. Second, to resort to expert native speakers, who are specialists in Arabic, to scrutinize those

judgments. This is completed by a jury of three PhD students who are native speakers of Arabic to verify that certain renditions are (or are not) reflective of the meaning of lexical items in the particular contexts. This technique proved effective, especially, when dealing with rare cases where the dictionary fails to account for the use of certain words or word combinations. So, the researcher wrote a professional translation of the texts, which was endorsed by three expert translators, to be used as a further foundation to take judgments about the similarity/dissimilarity of the renditions besides the dictionary and the jury judgments. These filters will eliminate subjective judgments on meaning and subsequently, on textual competence as a result.

The network of the strategies that Campbell (*ibid*, p.123) adopted in the analyses of data consisted of two dimensions; to 'preserve sense' and to 'shift sense'. The details of these dimensions are taken directly as they are stated by Campbell:

(i) Preserve sense:

- Choose appropriately from paradigm on general stylistic judgments.
- Give connotation that reflects textual concerns.
- Make non-textually motivated choice.
- Choose inappropriately from paradigm on general stylistic judgments.

(ii) Shift sense:

- Choose new sense that reflects textual motivation
- Reduce metaphor to sense appropriately
- Transfer metaphor appropriately
- Choose inappropriate sense.

These dimensions will be used to evaluate each translator's renditions. The information will be used in describing their textual competence as a component in the TC model which will be used to profile individual TC. The aim, then, is to find out what word-choice strategies are open to translators, and how the deployment of these strategies reflects their textual competence.

3.2.4.2 Evaluation of disposition: What is needed in the study of disposition is to establish a dissimilarity matrix to compare each subject's renditions of each word with the renditions of each other subject on a table. Matches and mismatches will be counted and a dissimilarity count will be made by calculating the proportion of matches and mismatches for example ten mismatches and ten matches give a dissimilarity count of $10/20=.50$. The results of the calculations will be entered into a dissimilarity matrix (See Table 5.4, 5.5, and 5.6). The total dissimilarity count for each subject will be calculated by adding the scores in the rows and columns for each (see Campbell, 1998: 106).

Then, a disposition grid will be established by converting the omission and dissimilarity scores to z-scores to be plotted against each other on a scatter gram (Gomez, 2013, p.123). The axes of the scatter gram intersect at the middle of the graph giving four quadrants (Woods et al., 1986, pp.252-254). The disposition of a subject is assessed by examining how the qualities of persistence and risk-taking interact. By locating the subject on the grid we will have a powerful and easily interpreted diagnostic of his TC regarding this aspect.

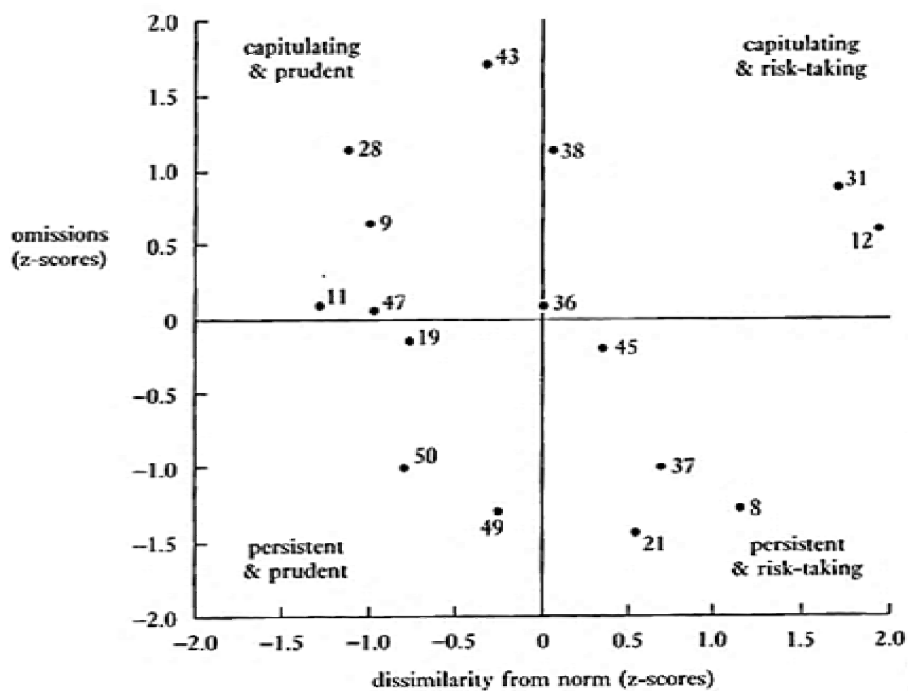
The disposition grid which is formed by the intersection of the two axes of dissimilarity and omission scores will be helpful in locating the translators on the scatter gram with reference to the focal point in the center of the gram; that is the point where the two axes intersect. The translators will be, consequently, grouped into four categories according to the quantity of the disposition traits they display in their translations of the texts as follows:

- Persistent: a translator with low omissions who tries to translate the whole text and fight the difficulties and problems.
- Capitulating: a translator with high omissions who is inclined not to face problems and difficulties but gives up easily, and resorts to evading and escaping them through omissions in the ST.
- Prudent: a translator who is careful and wise when faced with problematic items and tends mostly to produce standard or unmarked equivalents which resemble those of the majority of the group.

- Risk-taking: a translator who produces equivalents that are, more likely, unusual ones which are different from the standard equivalents mostly produced by the other participants. (Campbell, 1998, pp.107-109).

Figure 3.6 below gives an example of how a grid is built (adopted from Campbell, 1998, p.110).

Figure 3.6 Sample Disposition Grid for a Group



The upper horizontal part of the scatter gram shows the translator's capitulation, whereas the lower part shows his persistence. The more a translator is capitulating and prudent, s/he will function on the upper-left quadrant of the gram. The more he is capitulating but risk-taking he moves towards the upper-right quadrant of the gram. For example, participant 43 in the gram is the most capitulating translator and the least prudent in his quadrant, whereas, participant 11 is the most prudent and least capitulating in the same quadrant. As for risk-taking, participants 31, and 12, are the most risk-takers. The same is true about the lower two quadrants. The more a translator is persistent and prudent (49), he will function on the bottom lower-left quadrant. The more he is

persistent but risk-taking (21 and 8) he will move towards the bottom lower-right quadrant.

3.2.4.3. Evaluation of Monitoring: The data that will be used for measuring monitoring ability include assessments that cover its both dimensions: (1) self-assessment and (2) real-time editing (called real-time revision in the present study). The first dimension refers to the students' general assessment of their own ability to translate and how it relates to the other components of TC. So, their awareness of the quality of their output or what is called self-assessment can be proposed as a relevant factor in the characterization of TC and, consequently, one of its indicators:

Self-assessment in translator training is a logical component of any course designed to prepare translators for the professional market place... a self and peer-assessment routine validated by tutor moderation can achieve satisfactory results both in quantitative and qualitative terms (Robinson et al, 2006: pp.136).

This dimension is to be empirically measured by a question addressed to the subjects in order to self-assess their output, and then the results of these assessments will be correlated with the independent measure of tutor's general assessment of his impression about each participant's overall and cumulative TC as he observed it throughout teaching the participants.

The second dimension tackles the translator's opportunity to intervene to improve the output through real-time revision. This includes all additions, deletions and modifications which aim at amending the quality of the output. Systematic Variation among translators in the effectiveness of that intervention can be proposed as a facet of TC. The systematic variation here refers to following noticeable patterns of intervention such as replacing a certain lexical item by another, deleting a preposition, changing the tense of the verb, shifting the place of certain items and so on. In the directions to the experiment, the participants were asked to write their translations, together with all the revisions and corrections with ballpoint-pens. This makes it unlikely that the corrections will be erased and the crossed out words will be possible to read. The measurement of this dimension can be carried out by making inventories of the intervention (or non-intervention) carried out by each translator (Campbell,

1998, pp.138-139). Of course, an alternative technique that can be used here is keystroke logging that can be preferably used with professional translators who do most of their translations directly on computers. However, this technique is not advisable in this study because the participants are student translators who do not exclusively use computers in their practice and exams on the one hand, and because it is difficult to ensure that they have comparable skill and speed in using computers in translation on the other. In addition, it is not possible to neutralize the effect of using the computers on their concentration and problem-solving strategies. Thus, computers were not used in order to avoid the variation that they may bring about on the participants' output. In this respect Campbell and Wakim (2007, p.15) assert that:

[h]andwriting is an easier variable than typing skill to control in fast translation experiments. If subjects are to type in fast translation, then they need to be trained to the same level. In slow translation, there is no need to control for typing ability, and in fact keystroke-recording software, (...) can provide very rich data about mental processes.

It is not important, too, to time the revision because it is normally conducted as a part of the translating process whether during or directly after it, and most likely conducted at various stages of that process (Englund Dimitrova, 2005, p.22). The interventions will be categorized according to the six dimensions that Campbell uses in his analysis (Campbell, 1998, pp.138-40).

(i) **Strategy:** Five kinds of strategy are observed by Campbell:

1. alternative, where the translator places a word or a phrase between brackets, above the item or below it.
2. deletion, where the translator deletes material from a previously completed string.
3. false start, where a translator starts a string, deletes it and then resumes.
4. insertion, where the translator inserts material in a previously completed string with a caret.
5. partial switch where the translator moves materials and inserts them somewhere else in the text to switch their position.

(ii) **Purpose:** Campbell (1998, 139) assumes that there are two purposes for what he calls 'editing'; correction and revision. It is almost difficult to draw a distinct line between them because it is difficult to disentangle the translator's intentions. Editing for correction aims at correcting structural or/and spelling errors, while editing for revision aims at reviewing the translation from the point of view of semantic equivalence and textual building, regardless of its structural well-formedness or otherwise.

(iii) **Level:** Here it refers to the structural level where the intervention takes place. The three levels set by Campbell are: word, phrase and clause. They are accepted as effective standards in this study except replacing the clause by the sentence. It is not understood why Campbell reduced his analysis to the clause level and ignored the sentence level. However, the pilot study revealed that there are interventions at the level of clause as well as at the level of the sentence albeit few. So, it is not workable to separate a section for each.

(iv) **Effectiveness:** The effectiveness of intervention is concerned with the influence it has (positive, neutral or negative) on the output of each translator. Positive interventions are those which correct errors or polish the structure in a desirable way making the translation better. Neutral interventions are those which replace a correct segment by another correct one or an incorrect segment by another incorrect one, thus, neither benefiting nor harming the translation. Finally, negative interventions happen when the translator replaces a correct segment by an incorrect one, unknowingly harming the translation.

(v) **Frequency:** This can be measured by the number of interventions in a text or the number of interventions that appear per number of words (per 100 words, for example).

(vi) **Economy:** It refers to a translator's tendency to be more economical in revising. It can be measured by calculating the number of words per intervention in the TT for each participant, so that it becomes comparable to those of the others.

The results will be tabulated, displayed and summarized to be used for profiling the translator's real-time revision ability and how it relates to his/her TC. The evaluative framework for monitoring translation output and the profiling will include:

1. The translator's range of strategies.
2. The type of intervention whether for correction or revision.
3. The structural level (word, phrase or sentence) at which intervention is made and the focus on a specific level.
4. The frequency of the intervention.
5. The economy of the intervention.
6. The effect of the intervention.

3.2.5. Statistical expertise: The statistical expertise required in the study is fairly sophisticated, and it will be handled by the researcher himself, with some help and guidance of a statistics expert to supervise the analysis of the data and help the researcher avoid falling into statistical traps. The measures that are required include measures of:

- central tendency such as mean, median and mode.
- dispersion are also needed, such as standard deviation.
- dependence such as Pearson's product correlation to check the dependence of different variables on others.
- Cluster analysis using average method to display the dissimilarity among groups and individuals.

To clarify, discovering new groups in the dataset can lead to more informative results. Cluster analysis which is also known as **segmentation** aims to partition a number of objects into subsets or "clusters". Using cluster analysis, participants within each cluster are mostly closely related to one another than participants assigned to different clusters. The goal here is to arrange the participants into hierarchy according to the attributes that are tested. Therefore, objects within the same cluster are closer to each other than those in a different cluster (Hastie et al, 2009). Using clustering method, the strategy starts at the bottom where each one represents a cluster, and very close participants are merged into one cluster. The process continues until all the participants form one cluster including all of them. A dendrogram is used to provide a description

of hierarchical clustering. Using statistical package R, agglomerative clustering algorithm is applied.

However, some level of expertise is needed to correlate different aspects against others such as self-assessments with the independent measure chosen for this purpose which is tutor assessment. In addition, some help and supervision is needed in sketching and interpreting the disposition grids, scattergrams, and dendograms for the group and for the individual translators.

3.3. Conclusion: This chapter has given an outline of the methodology of the study, highlighting the strategies that will be used in the data analysis. In the forthcoming chapters, this methodology will be applied to the data to portray the three components of TC which are adopted in this study. Also, it has given an account of the evaluation dimensions which will be applied to the data to portray the three components of TC. The data will be statistically analyzed to draw conclusions that will be used in profiling the TC of individual translators, test the hypotheses and answer the research questions. The study looks forward to building a fairly objective way to describing the TC of individual translators into their L1 through inferring their product in relation to the three components that constitute the replicated model.

Chapter Four: The Study of Textual Competence

4.1 Overview

One of the aims of the present study is to investigate TL 'textual competence' as a component in TC. It intends to test Campbell's claim that "translators into the L2 exhibit a range of ability in deploying language at the level of the text" (Campbell, 1998, p.71), by replicating it on translating into the L1. He suggests that investigating this fact is effective in exploring the levels of TC, and contends that it is possible to propose a method to characterize the translator's competence as a text producer, through describing the inaccuracies in the TT. Thus, he chooses to stress the roles of grammar and lexis as basic elements to characterize the translator's textual competence (ibid.).

Generally speaking, understanding and constructing texts depend on the interaction of a large number of elements. Mason (1992, p.23), from an ideological perspective, mentions the various possible constituents which decide those processes:

Consciously or unconsciously, text users bring their own assumptions, predispositions and general world-view to bear on their processing of texts at all levels. Individual lexical choices, cohesive relations, syntactic organisation and theme/rheme progression, text structure and text type are all involved. The translator, as both receiver and producer of text, has the double duty of perceiving the meaning potential of particular choices within the cultural and linguistic community of the source text and relaying that same potential, by suitable linguistic means, to a target readership.

Thus, translators' textual or discourse competence is clearly affected by lexical choices and syntactic organization, both of which are components of Campbell's model. This emphasis is also proposed by Hatim and Munday when they assume that decision making is grounded in the text type and that it is "partly subject to system criteria such as grammar and diction" (2004, p.55).

4.2 Definition

Textual competence is a term which generally refers to “the ability to understand and construct texts of different genres” (Duszak 1998, p.252, cited by Tereszkiwicz 2010, p.19). However, like many other scholars and researchers exemplified below, Campbell employs a vague and rather broad definition, when he defines textual competence as “the ability to manipulate the genre potential of the target language by deploying grammar and lexis above the level of the sentence” (Campbell, 1998, p.153). This vagueness poses difficulties in assessing the textual ability of specific translators. In fact, the uncertainty about what is above the clause, the sentence or about text and its synonymous term ‘discourse’ dates back to works like those of Harris (1952, p.3), Stubbs (1983, p.1) and Chafe (1992, P.356; 2003, pp.439–40).

Nevertheless, Stubbs (1996, p.4) revisits this issue and reflects that uncertainty is a problem of terminology. He contends that the variation, in how the two terms are used, albeit considerable, often does not indicate ‘conceptual distinctions’. To the contrary, Widdowson stresses that it is necessary to distinguish between the two terms in that “discourse (...) is the pragmatic process of meaning negotiation; text is its product” (2004, p.8). Likewise, Bell (1991, pp.162-63) stresses the fact that some linguists use the terms ‘text’ and ‘discourse’ interchangeably, and some others use the first to refer to written documents whereas they use the second to refer to speech. Thus, he suggests taking a text for the formal product which carries the ‘semantic sense of the proposition’, and taking discourse for the communicative event which draws on the meaning to carry the ‘communicative value of speech acts’. To avoid terminological confusion, in this study, text as product is examined and used to infer the process of meaning negotiation and the process of translation per se.

Dealing with text and textual competence spontaneously summons mention of Beaugrande and Dressler’s seven standards of textuality. According to them (1981, pp.7-10), the text must have

1. Cohesion or the devices which hold propositions together.
2. Coherence which denotes the way propositions hold together.

3. Intentionality which means the aboutness of the text or the reason why a text is produced.
4. Acceptability that refers to the text receiver's attitude and how he takes the text.
5. Informativity which signifies what the text tells the reader in relation to his expectations and knowledge.
6. Situationality which implies the appropriateness or relevance of the text to the situation.
7. Intertextuality which represents what makes the utilization of one text dependent upon knowledge of previously encountered texts.

In the context of structuring texts, relatedly Neubert describes textual competence as the translator's ability to sensitize and internalize the normative usages and arrangements that words and structures follow when they feature in texts or in types of genres in texts. According to Neubert, the interaction among five competencies or parameters is what distinguishes translation from other areas of communication. These parameters are: (1) language competence; (2) textual competence; (3) subject competence; (4) cultural competence; and (5) transfer competence. Although he stresses the need for all of the five parameters to be present for the translation process to happen, he gives transfer competence some special emphasis as the dimension which distinguishes translation from the other activities of writing (Neubert, 2000, pp.6-8). Markedly, transfer competence is also stressed in the present study because Campbell depends partly on lexical transfers to decide the textual competence of specific translators, although he treats transfer competence as a constituent of textual competence rather than an independent one.

Montalt et al (2008) looks at textual competence as the ability to use the sentence as a building block in the process of text production and the role sentences have within sequences to form the texts when he states that:

the ability not only to apply the lexico-grammatical rules of a language in order to produce well-formed sentences, and not only to know when, where and to whom to use these sentences, but to know how to make the sentence play a role within a sequence that is eventually part of a well-formed text, discourse and genre.

Likewise, Kelly (2002, p.17) maintains that this sub-competence [textual competence] includes the capacity to understand and analyse a range of different types of (both oral and written) texts from different fields.

Empirically oriented, PACTE deals with TC as a composite of various interrelated sub-competences, and with textual competence as a basic component of the bilingual sub-competence. It is one of the constituents that make the predominantly procedural knowledge necessary to achieve communication in two languages alongside the pragmatic, socio-linguistic, grammatical and lexical knowledge (PACTE, 2011, p.33). Also, the translation problems that were considered when the 'Rich Points' (ibid. p.37) were identified include textual problems of coherence, cohesion, text type and genre, and style. In addition, intentionality problems are separately considered as one of the rich points to refer to the "difficulty in understanding information in the source text (speech acts, presuppositions, implicature, intertextual references)" (ibid, p.38).

Textual competence, as viewed in the present study, comprises the ability and knowledge to identify the regularities and conventions of texts, genres and text types. This aspect is, no doubt, closely related to text translation, since translating each text type differs from the other. Thus, a translator needs competence to handle this task and use it in how to produce texts. Although the text has its context which needs to be taken into account when translating (Newmark, 1988, p.73; House, p.2006), the type of the text decides to a large degree the freedom in the translation and the way meaning is rendered, preserved or transferred, all of which are reliant on the translators' competence.

4.3 Text and Genre

Text genre has received considerable emphasis in TS and in research about TC in particular. It is worth having a look at the significance of text genre in TC and in the textual competence of translators. There are several definitions of text genre which mostly stress the notion that it is a mode of language use in a conventional and appropriate manner to the communicative occasions and the goals of the participants. Kress (1990, p.90), for example, defines genre as:

a category which explains conventionalized and conventionally available textual forms *not*, as is usually the case, in terms of reified historical/linguistic categories, but rather in terms of the contingent structurings of social occasions, the organization of social participants, and their purposes and intentions. Hence, genres are always seen as the linguistic products of particular social occasions, encoding the social organization, structures, etc. of that occasion.

In a similar bearing and in the field of TS, text genre is understood to be:

a conventionalised, and at the same time dynamic and hybrid, text form (Kress, 1985) that represents an interface between text and context, and between the source text and the target text (Montalt, 2008, p.1).

Subsequently, Montalt employs the concept of text genre as a tool in the teaching of translation and in the acquisition of TC, particularly in the acquisition of communicative and textual subcompetence. He also states that the concept has been addressed in previous works by members of the GENTT³ team. In his conclusion, he stresses that “there does seem to be a certain amount of convergence between the proposed definitions of TC and the theory of text genres” (ibid. p.11).

The GENTT research group has adopted the concept of text genre as the starting point for their project. It is a multilingual project that investigates specialized communication and especially interested in the legal, medical and technical areas of specialised communication. The group also conducts research in the field of Natural Language Processing (NLP) on automatic classification or Information Retrieval (IR) and in the field of Applied Information Science. So, the group’s work stresses the value of the concept of genre in information retrieval. It tries to disclose the convergence between translation and other fields of communication in how textual genres can assist in the investigation of specialised communication. Thus, the GENTT group defines genre as a:

category that can be applied to any sphere of communication because it is a collective product that results from each particular circumstance of

³ **GENTT: Textual Genres for Translation**, www.gentt.uji.es, is a research group based at Universitat Jaume I and interested in the study of textual genre.

communication. Any form of conventionalised and culturally determined text, regardless of the field (specialised or not) in which the communication takes place, can therefore be considered a genre (García Izquierdo, 2011, p.14).

This definition is based on the notions of both structure and function where structure is reflected by the visual layout of the text, and function is identified by the intended purpose of the text. The notions are closely related in that the structure is formed to optimise the function of the text within the context where it is created (Kim and Ross, 2007, p.173).

In this connection, it is plausible to refer to functionalist and communicative translation theories, particularly, Reiss's (1971, 2000) classic work on the translation strategy together with the subsequent Vermeer's skopos theory (1989/2004) which belongs to the model of translatorial action proposed by Holz-Mänttari (1984), where the translation strategy is decided by the purpose of the translation and the function of the TT in the target culture. In this model translation is viewed as a:

communicative transaction involving initiator, commissioner, and the producers, users and receivers of the ST and TT. In this model, the ST is 'dethroned' and the translation is judged not by equivalence of meaning but by its adequacy to the functional goal of the TT situation as defined by the commission (Munday, 2008, p.87).

Reiss (ibid.) introduces the translation-oriented text-typology which is interesting here as it operates at the text level in a systematic way. Reiss views translation as an act of communication and the translator a medium or a secondary sender. Thus, a translated message moves from a primary source to a target receiver. The media are the SL and the TL, with the aim to produce a TL text 'that is functionally equivalent' to the SL text (Reiss 2000, p.160). This makes the ST the directing point for the translator, and subsequently, Reiss proposes a functional approach of text-typology which considers the communicative function of the ST as the basis for translating into the TT. This means that the TT which does not have the same function as the ST is not entirely a translation, but what Reiss calls 'transfer'. Translating a text, according to Reiss comprises two phases: analysis and re-verbalization. The analysis phase encompasses establishing the linguistic form, the text type, genre and style. The analysis phase is the one where the text function is

realized through the informed employment of the translation method to the linguistic form. Founded on this concept of form and function, Reiss (1977/89, pp.108–9) categorizes text functions into the:

- informative type whose function is the plain communication of content or facts,
- expressive type with the function of expressing creative composition or the artistically-organized content that reflects the author's attitude using the aesthetic language dimension,
- operative or appellative whose function is to appeal to or persuade the reader or 'receiver' of the text to act in a certain way,
- and finally the audiomedial 'hyper-type', such as films and visual and spoken advertisements.

Similarly, Trosborg (2004, pp.17, 21) emphasizes the importance of the knowledge of the form-function relations in several fields including text genre in communication, translation and translator training:

Genre knowledge, knowledge of form-function relations of communicative functions and text types are important not only to scholars and researchers in the fields of communication, rhetoric, and sociology of science, to linguists who teach and conduct research in ESP and LSP, but also to practitioners who compose or translate in the disciplines (ibid. P.17).

Nonetheless, Reiss's approach to text typology and the claim to inform the translation method, though systematic, is not whole-heartedly accepted in TS and was subject to criticism mainly as a non-absolute solution to the choice and employment of translation strategy. Fawcett (1997, p.107) berated this approach stating that:

There is simply no necessary link between text function and translation strategy. Just because we have identified a text function (...) does not mean that we are led inexorably to any logical or 'translation-scientific' imperative to take this function as an overriding parameter to which we subordinate our translation decisions.
(Fawcett 1997, p.107)

Essentially, the status of text type or genre in the translation process has undergone fluctuations during the last four decades. At the time it was prominent in the 1970s, it started to lose some of its significance as relevance theory research sought to stress the cognitive turn over the textual. Thus, the relevance model (Gutt, 1991) has employed the mental processes such as inference to be a substitute for text typologies which were employed by the textual proponents. Gutt's attempt to establish a unified account of translation is based on the idea that translation is a form of communication and does not require a separate theory or model of analysis. Consequently, he criticizes the functional equivalence theories for their failure to provide a unified account of the different kinds of translation, and for their erroneous assumptions about the conditions of successful communication and translation. According to Gutt, relevance theory enables translators to predict the communicative success in translation, and in this way, translators can effectively anticipate the success of communication with the target audience. Thus, relevance theory assumes to supply firm theoretical bases for adjusting the translation principles to fit the expectations of the receptors and their contextual assumptions to interpret the translation. Accordingly, translators can choose the suitable method that best fits their needs and goals (Smith, 2002, pp.107-117).

Nonetheless, towards the end of the 1990s the textual trend has retained some prominence since:

most theorizing by proponents of **relevance** on translation strategy (**descriptive** vs **interpretive**, **direct** vs **indirect**), could not completely ignore macro-structures such as **text type** or **genre**. By the end of the 1990s, there was a clear admission that **inference** can only be enriched by awareness of the conventions governing the **communicative event** within which texts or **genres** [emphasis in original] occur (Gutt 1998).
(Hatim and Munday, 2004: 67)

The instability of the status of the textual approach may have its bearing on the training of translators, because according to Mason (1992, p.34), the discussion of translators' techniques and strategies can be greatly enriched in training programs if they take into account the important dimensions of genre, discourse and textual developments in text production and reception.

4.4 The Present Study

In his categorization of the three levels of profiling a translator's textual competence (into substandard, pretextual and textual) Campbell (1998) utilizes four types of translation problems or flaws to investigate this aspect. They include

- lexical omissions from the ST,
- grammatical errors,
- mistranslations of lexical items
- faulty lexical transfers.

These four problems are used as the guidelines to TT assessment; the more of these flaws a translator has the poorer his textual competence is assessed.

Thereafter, in his treatment of lexical transfers, in particular, judgments are reached on how successfully transfers preserve sense or shift it according to some strategies, which will be discussed in detail and employed later in this study. Interestingly, he uses the same data which he has used in the profiling of disposition. Conversely, in the study of disposition attention is directed to the agreement or disagreement among the translators in the renditions of selected lexical items albeit the correctness or incorrectness of their translation. In contrast, investigating textual competence takes interest in the way lexical items are transferred and rendered. Thus, the alternative translations of each item are examined, judgments about their meaning are run and evidence is looked for as to whether an item has been rendered with overtones beyond the sentence level (ibid. pp.69, 109-10). A close examination of the levels defined by Campbell (ibid. p.69), and displayed below, shows that the focus is on the four basic areas of omissions, mistranslations, transfers and grammatical errors. Definitions and examples of each area will follow the discussion. These four features are investigated below to see how they interact to mark the translator's textual competence. It is also endeavoured to test the possibility of assessing this type of competence with reasonable objectivity. The definitions expose the characteristics of the suggested three levels of competence:

Campbell's Levels of Translation Competence

Level of competence	Characteristics of text at this level
Substandard	Spelling is very inaccurate; source text is not fully translated and target text is short; function words are often omitted so that text contains high proportion of content words, especially nouns; translation is rather indirect because of efforts to cope with poor target language repertoire.
Pretextual	Spelling is accurate; source text is fully translated; text is long and strung-out because of use of function words rather than lexicalizations; vocabulary is not varied; translation is structurally very close to the source text; style is more 'verby'.
Textual	Spelling is accurate; source text is fully translated; text is short and syntactically dense through the use of lexicalizations; style is more nominal, and words are longer and more varied; the text is structurally more distant from the original because of grammatical shifts and indirect translation of source text words.

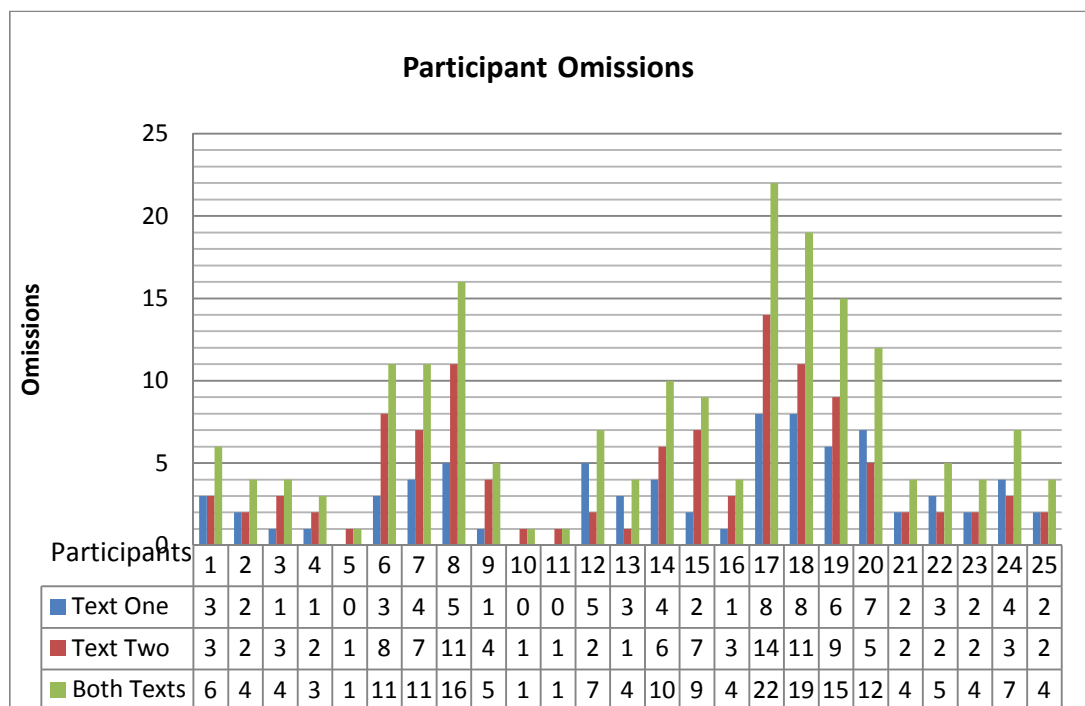
4.4.1 Lexical Omissions

Renditions of the selected lexical items from both texts are examined to see whether a specific translator renders them all or whether he omits some of them for one reason or another. Undoubtedly, omission has a negative effect on the TT because lexical items or vocabulary items (as often called) are the basic containers of meaning, and omitting some of them results in losing some aspects of meaning: "Without grammar, very little can be conveyed; without vocabulary, nothing can be conveyed" (Wilkins, 1972, p.111). Similarly, Lewis (1993) argues that "lexis is the core or heart of language" (p. 89), and by the same token, Schmitt (2010, p.4), stressing the importance of vocabulary and lexis in language proficiency and language use, notes that "learners carry around dictionaries and not grammar books", as an indication of the importance of vocabulary in language learning and use.

In this study, the investigation of omissions has revealed that translators vary in this respect, and the results have shown that there are 77 lexical omissions in T1 in comparison to 112 in T2. Some items underwent more omissions than others (See the choice network analysis, appendix 4.1 for the number of omissions of each item). In T1, for example, item 3 (*argued*) and item 17

(pieces) did not witness any omission as they were rendered by all the participants, whether accurately or not. Conversely, item 2 (*advocacy*) was omitted for eight times and item 12 (*has since*) for thirteen times. Similarly, in T2 items 4 (*criminal records*) and 14 (*memos*) did not witness omissions, whereas, item 23 (*sharing*) was omitted for nine times followed by item 9 (DHS) omitted for twelve times and item 25 for twenty-one times. Actually, omissions of T2 are higher than T1 due to factors associated with difficulty as reported by the participants in a retrospective questionnaire. However, participant omissions show a positive correlation between the two texts in this aspect and it is highly significant (0.7539**) which indicates a very strong relationship between the two texts in the pattern of omissions. Figure 4.1 below visually displays participant omissions

Figure 4.1 Participant Omissions



It can be noticed that the highest omissions (22) were made by participant 17, whereas the lowest omissions (1) by participants 5, 10 and 11. The high correlation between the two texts suggests the consistency of the phenomenon of omission. This matter will be further investigated (section 4.5) when omissions are enrolled as a constituent in an assessment scale of textual competence to see how it relates to the other constituents.

4.4.2 Mistranslations

Mistranslations here refer to the wrongly rendered lexical items from those selected for the study. They are judged by applying the procedures that were discussed earlier in the Methodology, namely of using the dictionary to check meaning and limit the context, using the expert translation of the texts, and resolving to the jury judgments at the end. These judgments were contained in a choice network and exposed in Appendix 4.1 at the end of this thesis. It is also used in the next chapter about 'disposition' to decide the dissimilarity in the renditions of the participants. Here are some examples of how judgments were taken using the three procedures together. The full texts are found in Appendix III.

- Example 1: **Deportation**

Context: *Under the Immigration and Customs Enforcement Program, state and local police must check the immigration status of people who have been arrested and booked into local jails by matching fingerprints against federal databases for criminal convictions and deportation orders.*

This item was rendered differently by the participants. In order to judge the accuracy of the renditions the dictionary was consulted to limit the meaning of the item:

deportation(n.) (٢) ترحيل الأجانب غير المرغوب فيهم
(١) مص

So, the dictionary gives one equivalent only: tarhil [ترحيل] which means the expulsion of undesired foreigners or send them to exile. It was correctly rendered by 14 participants. However, other participants used other renditions that were not given by the dictionary. In this case an authority other than the dictionary to decide on such renditions is required. The expert translation is to be consulted in this case, but it was found that the same meaning given by the dictionary was used in the expert translation. Subsequently, the judgement of the jury becomes necessary to solve the problem. The table below shows the judgments of the jury about the different renditions:

In the tables below the abbreviation (Fr) refers to frequency and (V) to view of the jury, S to similar and D to different:

7. Source item: Deportation

Fr	Renditions	Transliteration	Gloss	V
14	التَرْحِيل	attarḥīl	Deportation	S
5	Omissions	-----	-----	D
1	الإدانات والهجرة	al'idānāt walhijra	Convictions and immigration	D
1	الإخلاء	al'iklā'	Evacuation	S
1	الإعادة إلى البلد	al'i'āda ilā albalad	Return to the country	S
1	المغادرة	almuḡādra	Departure	D
1	النفي	annafī	Exile	S
1	الإستبعاد	al'istib'ād	Exclusion	S

The jury rejected two renditions as inaccurate and accepted the other four as accurate. They rejected: al'idānāt walhijra (Convictions and immigration) الإدانات والهجرة, almuḡādra (Departure) المغادرة, and accepted الإخلاء al'iklā' (Evacuation) الإعادة إلى البلد al'i'āda ilā albalad (Return to the country) النفي annafī (Exile), الإستبعاد al'istib'ād (Exclusion).

- Example 2: Enforcement

Context: *Under the Immigration and Customs Enforcement Program, state and local police must check the immigration (...).*

The same procedure is applied here. The dictionary gives the noun just one equivalent and gives the verb three:

(١) يقوي (٢) يوكد على (٣) يفرض بالقوة. (vt.) **enforce** [-fōrs']
 (٤) ينفذ : يضع موضع التنفيذ. **—enforcement** (n.)

However, the noun 'enforcement' is used in the text in the function of the adjective and translated in the expert translation as an adjective too; البرنامج التنفيذي للهجرة والكمارك (albarnāmj attanfidī lihjra walkamār) **Executive** Program for Immigration and Customs. Below are the jury judgments:

9. Source Item: Enforcement

Fr	Renditions	Transliteration	Gloss	V
8	Omissions	-----	-----	D
5	تطبيق	taḡbīq	Application	S
4	إنفاذ	'infād	Enforcement	S
2	فرض	farḍ	Imposition	S
1	قيام بـ	qiyām bi	Doing sth.	D
1	تفعيل	taf'īl	Activation	D
1	تعزيز	ta'zīz	Strengthening	D

1	رعاية	ri'āya	Care	D
1	المعمول بها	alma'mūl bahā	Applicable	D
1	إجبار	'ijbār	Coercion	S

Yet, in the renditions of the participants, eight omitted it and only four used a formally altered dictionary meaning as a noun [إِنْفَادٌ 'infād], and notably, none of the renditions took the form of the adjective in Arabic, and only one have the meaning of an adjective in English (Applicable). Five renditions were rejected by the jury because their meanings were irrelevant to the contextual meaning of the word and were labelled D in the table and the other four were accepted and labelled S.

- Example 3: Policy (evaluations)

This item has five dictionary equivalents of which only number (2) سياسة; [siyāsa] is matching with the contextual meaning in which it was used in the ST:

policy [pɒl'ɪsɪ] (n.) . (١) حكمة ؛ حكمة عملية (٢) سياسة . (٣) دهاء سياسي (٤) عقْد أو سند تأمين (٥) يانصيب .

16. Source Item: policy (evaluations)

Context: A statistician has been brought in and is working with Department of Homeland Security, which investigates complaints and assists in policy evaluations (...).

Fr	Renditions	Transliteration	Gloss	V
9	تَقْيِمَاتُ السِّيَاسَةِ	taqyīmāt assiyāsa	Ratings of policy	S
3	سِيَّاسَةُ التَّقْيِمَاتِ	siyāsa attaqyīmāt	Policy of assessments	D
2	تَقْيِيمُ السِّيَاسَاتِ	taqyīm assiyāsāt	Evaluation of policies	S
2	تَقْيِيمُ السِّيَاسَةِ	taqyīm assiyāsa	Policy assessment	S
1	تَقْيِيمُ تَطْبِيقِ السِّيَاسَاتِ	taqyīm taṭbīq assiyāsāt	Evaluation of the application of policies	S
1	تَقْيِمَاتُ الشَّرْطَةِ	taqyīmāt aššarṭa	Police evaluations	D
1	تَحْقِيقَاتُ الشَّرْطَةِ	taḥqīqāt aššarṭa	Police investigations	D
1	التَّقْيِيمُ التُّوْلِيْسِي	alatqyīm albūlīsī	Rating police	D
1	تَقْيِيمُ عَمَلِ الشَّرْطَةِ	taqyīm 'amal aššurṭa	Evaluate the work of the police	D
1	تَقْيِيمُ	taqyīm	Evaluation	D
1	تَقْيِمَاتُ الْقَرَارَاتِ	taqyīmāt alqarārāt	Ratings of decisions	S
1	التَّقْيِيمُ السِّيَاسِي	attaqyīm assiyāsī	Political evaluation	D
1	Omissions	-----	-----	D

Similarly, the expert translation rendered it into: (تقويم) السياسات 'taqwīm assayāsāt' which means Evaluation of policies. So, the jury accepted the (15) correct renditions that were labelled (S), and were matching the relevant meaning, whereas the remainder renditions were mistranslations. It is

noticeable that four of those participants with faulty renditions mistranslated 'policy' for 'police', misled by the similarity in spelling.

- Example 4: underway

The source item 'underway' was not translated by the majority of the participants. In the dictionary, it has three equivalents as an adverb and three as an adjective, though it is written as two detached elements in the first and as one word in the adjective:

under way (*adv.*) منطلقاً (٢) جاريّاً: غيرَ واقفٍ أو مُرسىٍّ (١)
 بعد توقف (٣) جاريّاً مجراه .
underway (*adj.*) حادثٌ أو منجزٌ أو مستخدمٌ أثناء الرحلة أو الحركة .

In fact the third equivalent (jāryan majrāh) جاريّاً مجراه in the adverb entry is the right meaning which corresponds with its meaning in the text, and also used by the expert translation. However, the participants gave the following renditions:

25. Source Item: underway

Context: (title) *Immigration: Review of Jail Fingerprint Sharing Program* underway

Fr	Renditions	Transliteration	Gloss	V
21	Omissions	-----	-----	D
1	جاري العمل	jārī al'amal	Work is underway	S
1	قيد الإنجاز	qayd al'injāz	Underway	S
1	قادم	qādim	Coming	D
1	قادمة	Qādimā	Coming	D

Twenty-one out of twenty five participants omitted the item in their TTs. Only two of the four who rendered it did that correctly. There is no obvious reason why it was not rendered by most of the participants except, perhaps, it is not highly frequent in their use.

- Example 5

The source term 'tragic' has two dictionary equivalents contained in three synonyms in the dictionary:

tragic; -al [trāj'-] (*adj.*) (١) تراجيديّ ؛ مأساويّ (٢) فاجع .

In the expert translation, it is rendered as ‘مأساوي ma’sāwī’ which corresponds with the first dictionary meaning. However, different equivalents were seen in the renditions, which were all adjectives and some were accurate according to the jury judgments as follows:

21. Source Item: Tragic

Context: *There is new unquestionable evidence that state governments are finally understanding what a **tragic** mistake they made during the 1990s (...).*

Fr	Renditions	Transliteration	Gloss	V
11	فادح	fādiḥ	Gross	S
7	مأساوي	ma’sāwī	Tragic	S
2	قاتل	qātil	Killer	S
2	تراجيدي	tarājīdī	Tragic	S
1	فظيع	faḍī‘	Terrible	S
1	كبير	Kabīr	Large	D
1	Omissions	-----	-----	D

So, three other equivalents, other than those of the dictionary, were accepted. They include: فادح fādiḥ, قاتل qātil and فظيع faḍī‘.

- Example 6: unquestionable

The source item this time is the adjective ‘unquestionable’. It is given two equivalents only:

unquestionable[ʔn kwēs’chən ə bəl] (أ) لا يرقى إليه (adj.)
الشك (ب) لا نزاع فيه .

It was rendered in eight different ways and omitted by four participants only.

24. Source Item: Unquestionable

Context: *There is new **unquestionable** evidence that state governments are finally understanding what a tragic mistake they made during the 1990s...*

Fr	Renditions	Transliteration	Gloss	V
6	قاطع	qāṭa‘	Conclusive	S
4	غَيْرُ قَابِلٍ لِلنِّقَاشِ (لِلجَدَلِ)	ġayru qābilin lalniqāš (laljadal)	Undebatable	S
4	Omissions	-----	-----	D
3	واضح	wāḍiḥ	Clear	S
3	لا شك فيه (لا يقبل الشك)	lā šaka fayh(lā yaqbl aššak)	Undoubtful	S
1	يُثِيرُ التَّسْأُولَاتِ	yuṯīru attasā’lāt	Raises questions	D
1	سؤال مَطْرُوح	su’āl maṭrūḥ	A posed question	D
1	حَتْمِي	ḥatmī	Inevitable	S
1	لا يُمكنُ إنكارُه	lā yumkinu ’inkāruh	Undeniable	S

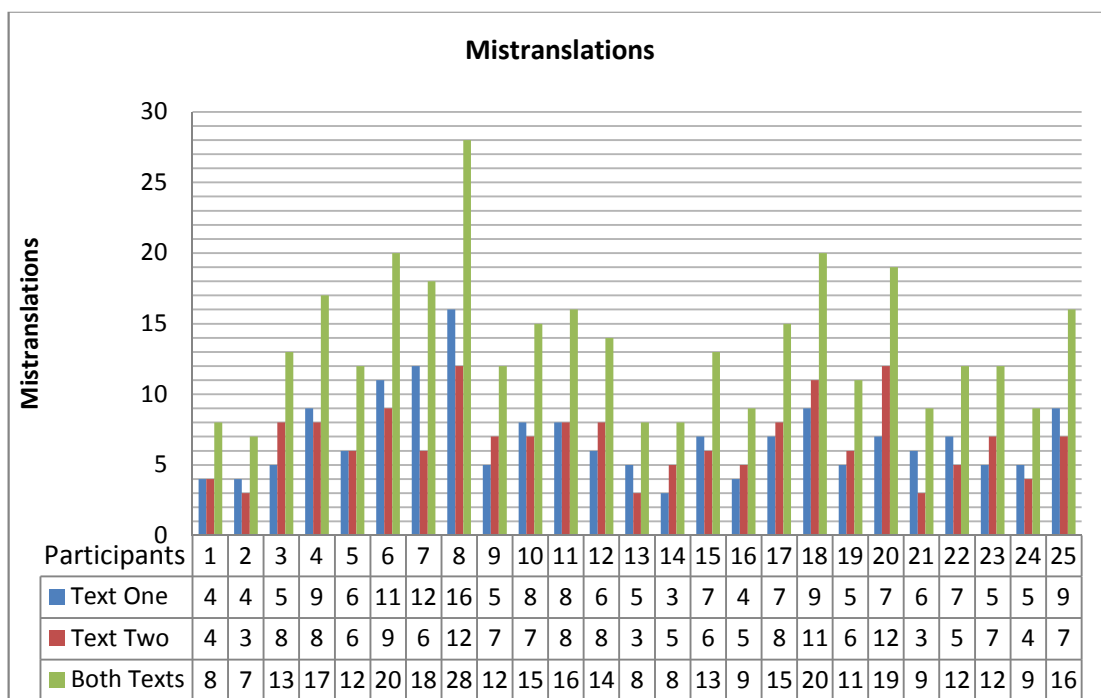
Although the renditions all were not literally identical with the dictionary equivalents, one only matched with the expert translation [لا يقبل الشك] *lā yaqbl aššak*] which means 'undoubtful'. Yet, the jury judgment accepted six renditions as they conveyed the textual meaning of the source item.

Hopefully, the preceding examples have exposed the way the procedures worked in deciding the acceptability of the translation of the lexical items. Strikingly, the number of the unacceptable renditions referred to as mistranslated items is so high that it ranges to 341 items shared nearly equally by both texts with 173 for T1 and 168 for T2. It is obvious that mistranslations form 27.28% of the whole selected lexical items, with an average of 13.64 per participant. The highest mistranslations (28) were performed by participant 8 followed by participants 6 and 18 who performed 20 mistranslations each. The pattern of mistranslations for both texts shows a strong positive relationship reflected in a (0.624) high positive correlation. Therefore, like the phenomenon of omission, mistranslation is also a consistent one across both texts. Figure 4.2 below visually displays the distribution of mistranslations on participant.

4.4.3 Grammatical Errors

It was earlier confirmed in the methodology (Chapter Three) that this study is based on the analysis of the TTs produced by the participants, where not all the errors expected or taxonomized by previous studies are expected from the participants. Participants may have not encountered the same problems that were encountered in previous studies. It is fairly possible that some of the problems that cause grammatical errors did not arise simply because they did not feature in the STs. In addition, it is not possible to assume that the translated texts sample the whole TL system or cover all the problems to be encountered in translating. The detected errors represent only the problems that are encountered in those texts in particular.

Figure 4.2 Mistranslations Results



However, they actually reflect a wide range of the problems taxonomized by the previous studies. Shlesinger (1992, P.123) contends that this is something expected in empirical studies of translation:

All too often, problems in students' translations are dealt with as they happen to arise in the texts being tackled. Attempts at systematic categorization, definition or resolution of specific ones as recurrent or typical tend to be confined to interlingual differences drawn from contrastive linguistics, with far less attention to those which characterize translation as such.

The current study depends on earlier studies that investigated certain aspects of English to Arabic translation which diagnosed the translation errors, including grammatical and textual ones committed by both professional and student translators. Although these studies adopted different approaches in their categorization of translation errors, they have provided considerable bases to rely on in further studies on the subject. Some of those studies tackled the translation problems in general whereas others limited themselves to specific areas of the languages translated. Below are some examples of those studies:

- Aziz (1982) limits his paper to the investigation of the cultural problems of English-Arabic translation.
- Al-Kenai (1985) restricts his PhD thesis to the study of some linguistic and cultural problems of English-Arabic translation and their implications for a strategy of Arabization.
- Williams (1989) in a PhD thesis makes a comparison of the textual structures of Arabic and English written texts.
- Saraireh (1990) in a PhD thesis investigates some lexical and syntactic problems in English-Arabic translation.
- Benhaddou (1991) in a PhD thesis investigates translation quality assessment of Arabic/English texts through the application of a situational/textual model for the evaluation.
- Farghal (1995) studies lexical and discursal problems in English-Arabic translation.
- Jabr (2001) in a published paper investigates problems which face the Arab translators at the Discourse Level.
- Abdel-Hafiz (2002) in a published paper investigates problems of translating English journalistic texts into Arabic.
- Al Ghussain (2003) in a PhD thesis investigates the areas of cultural and linguistic difficulty in English-Arabic translation.
- Deeb (2005) in a PhD thesis presents a comprehensive and general taxonomy of translation problems in translating from English to Arabic.
- El Haj Ahmed (2009) in his PhD thesis investigates lexical, cultural and grammatical translation problems encountered by senior Palestinian learners [of English] at the Islamic University of Gaza, Palestine.
- Manaa (2011) in her PhD thesis studies the effectiveness of a composite translator training model for Syrian translation masters students.
- Al-Hamly and Farghal (2013) in a case study investigate English reduced forms in Arabic scientific translation.

In the studies above one can find inventories of possible translation errors. Manaa (2011) for example, in her PhD study pools the different possible

translation errors that translators are expected to face when translating from English into Arabic, as identified in the literature.

The categorization of problems and errors is necessary to identify the actual errors and translation problems involved in a certain translated text or multiple texts. Waddington (2001, 2006), for example, concludes that such classifications of errors are necessary for detecting and identifying translation errors. In any case, the categorization that is adopted in any study is chosen to comply with the aim and scope of the study. As the current study looks at the deployment of grammar in the production of texts and the grammatical errors that affect textual competence in a fixed sample, it does not find any of these studies fully applicable to its purpose. However, the kind and nature of errors that are detected fall in the same categories that are given in those studies. So, it is decided here to be eclectic in adopting similar characterizations only.

The levels under investigation include two dimensions; (1) grammar and (2) lexis. The first dimension is to investigate the deployment of grammar in the production of TTs. It deals with the mechanics of the TL grammar, mostly at the sentence level, including matters of concord, word order, and inflectional morphology. So, through the analysis, a number of problematic areas in this concern are detected. In addition to these errors, there are others that surpass the mechanics of the sentence and affect the wider textual building. As such, errors are roughly classified into syntactic errors and textual errors. Noticed errors in the translations of both texts by the participants are counted to provide an inventory of each translator's flaws and also the pattern of these flaws for the whole group. The problematic grammar areas, alphabetically listed in Table 4.1, include:

Table 4.1 Grammatical Errors Detected in This Study

Error	Kind	Description
Addition	Textual	The translator gives some undesired addition in the TT which does not correspond with a segment in the ST and affects the grammatical pattern and the textual meaning.
Faulty agent	syntactic	The translator uses the action in the TT instead of the agent which is present in the ST.
Ambiguity	textual	The translator gives an ambiguous meaning rather than the definite meaning provided by the ST
Attribution	Syntactic	The translator renders a different attribution from

		that of the ST.
Awkwardness	textual	The translator provides an awkward expression that does not match the original one of the ST.
Comparison	syntactic	Comparison is not accurately rendered.
Noun gender and number	syntactic	These are inaccurately rendered.
Informal	textual	A clearly informal spoken structure is used in the TT.
Parallelism	textual	Parallelism is missing in the TT.
Parsing errors	syntactic	They are present in the TT.
Preposition	syntactic	The wrong preposition (or no preposition) is used by the translator.
Punctuation	syntactic	Absence or displacement of punctuation marks.
Reference	syntactic	A faulty reference is used.
Spelling	syntactic	Errors in spelling
Verb form or verb number	syntactic	They are inaccurately used in the TT.
Word order	syntactic	The wrong word order is used in the TT
Word choice	syntactic	The wrong word, which does not give the meaning expressed in the ST, is used.

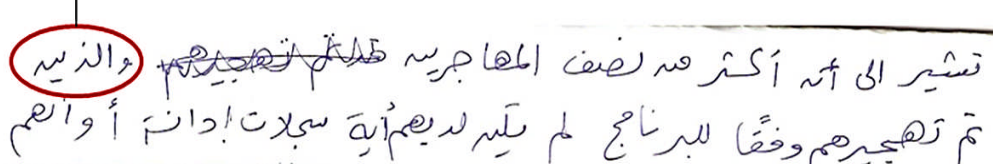
The detected errors that were committed by each participant were seen in both texts. Below are some examples of the diagnosed errors randomly selected from the translations of various participants, scanned and displayed below. In some cases more than one error may appear in the same extract.

- **Addition.**

Example 1: Participant 1- T2

Context: (...) *more than half of the immigrants* **deported** *under the program had minor or no criminal records (...).*

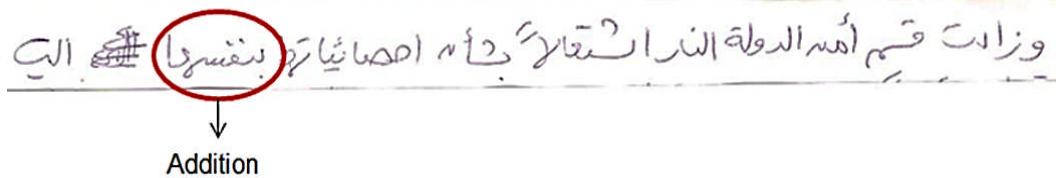
In the TT below, the addition of [wa وَ] is inaccurate because it changes the meaning. It is a conjunction tool used where there is no conjunction. It turns out the sentence to look as if there are two parties; **'more than half of the immigrants'** and another party **'those deported under the program'**.

Addition


Example 2: Participant 10, T2

Context: *Concerns were also fueled by DHS own numbers that indicate (...)*

In this example, the addition is inaccurate because (بِنَفْسِهَا binafsihā) which means 'by itself' is not found in the ST and is not desirable in the TT as there is no emphasis or reflexivization.

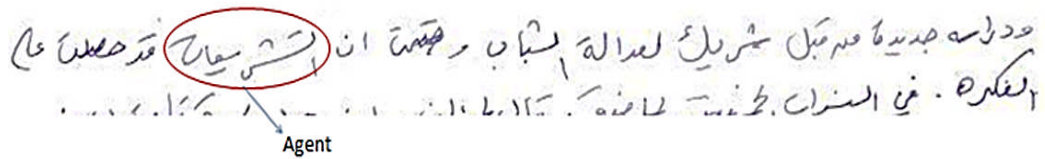


- **Agent**

Participant 6- T1

Context: (...) shows that state legislatures across the country are getting the message.

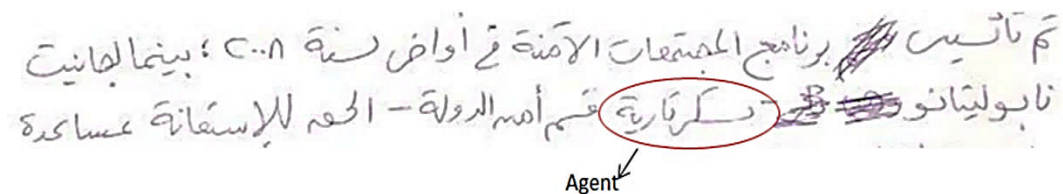
The use of التشريعات *attašr'āt* [Legislation] in place of المُشرعون *almušr'un* [lawmakers or legislators] is the use of a wrong agent.



Participant 10- T2:

Context: *DHS Secretary, Janet Napolitano, is right (...).*

The actual agent is 'secretary' which means 'minister' in this context is inaccurately rendered into سكرتارية [Secretariat] or the office of a secretary.



- **Ambiguity**

Example 1: Participant 11- T1

Context: *Prosecutors argued that harsh sentencing would protect the public (...).*

The word *almuda'ūn* المُدْعُونَ can mean Prosecutors but at the same time can mean any 'claimant' and it remains ambiguous unless modified by *al'āmūn* العامون to mean state (governmental) prosecutors.

وأشار المدعون إلى أن الأحكام الشاقة قد تحمي المجتمع من العنف

↓
Ambiguity

Example 2: Participant 1, T1

Context: Janet Napolitano, is right to seek outside help' in crunching the numbers' into *bissa' lilmusā'ada alkārijiya* بالسعي للمساعدة الخارجية which in Arabic can equally mean 'attempts to externally give help, or ask for external help'.

دُسن برنامج المحققات المحمية في أوائل عام ٢٠٠٨ وسوف تقوم
 الاستراتيجية العامة (DASH) جانب نapolitano بالسعي للمساعدة
 الخارجية لتخفيف هذه الأعداد مما قد يسهم في دعم

Partic. (01)

↓
Ambiguity

- Attribution

Example 1: Participant 6, T1

Context: Fixing the Mistake with Young Offenders

This participant makes a common error when he uses (min qibal من قبل) pointlessly, to introduce a passive voice construction. There is no passive in the ST, but there is an attribution error in the TT. The translator attributes 'Fixing the mistake' to young offenders, inaccurately using 'qibal' which refers to direction, as if they themselves fixed the error, whereas they were subject to an error that needed 'fixing'.

Attribution

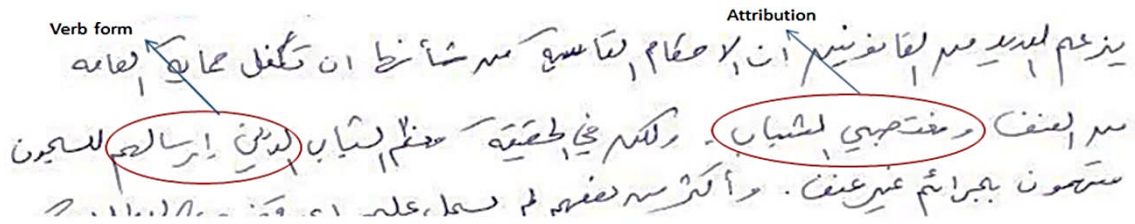
↑

تصحيح خطأ قانون جرائم المرتكبة من قبل إننا شقة أسباب :

Example 2: Participant 6- T1

Context: In addition, research has shown that these young people are vulnerable to battery and rape is rendered into (muḡtaṣībī aššabāb مُغتصبي

(الشباب), which means ‘usurpers of youth’. So, in the translation young people are understood to be the initiators of the rape, while they are ‘recipients and subject to rape’ in the ST.

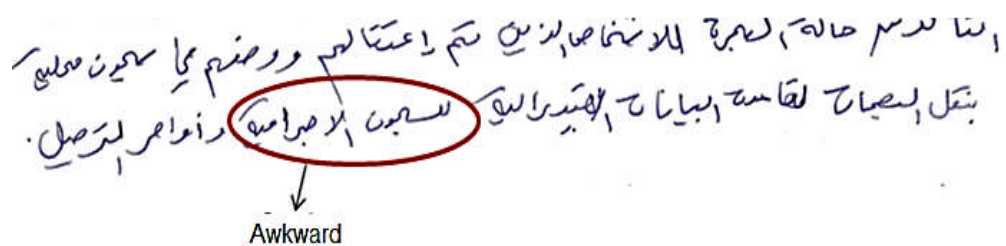


- **Awkwardness**

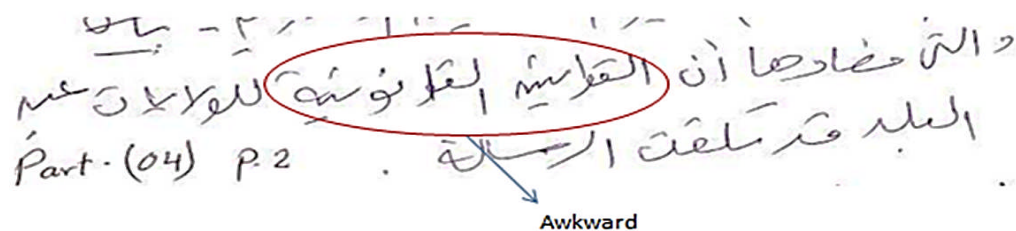
Example 1: Participant 6, T2

Context: (...) *matching fingerprints against federal databases for criminal convictions and deportation orders.*

The participant here gives an awkward translation of ‘criminal convictions’ into (سُجُون إجرامية) *sujūn ‘ijrāmiya*) by mistranslating ‘convictions’ into ‘jails’, as if there are criminal and legal (non-criminal) jails.



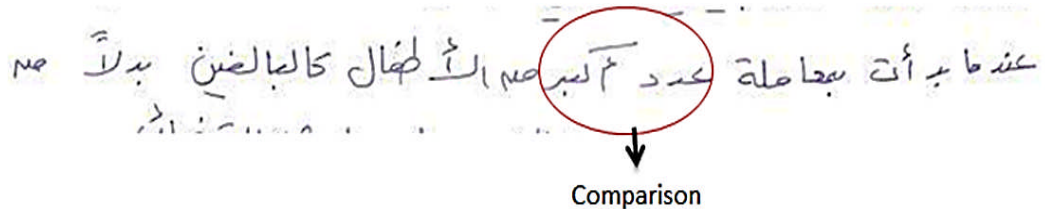
Example 2: Participant 4- T2 uses (القوانين القانونية) *al-qawānīn al-qānūniya* which literally means ‘Legal laws’, as a rendition of **prosecutors**. Despite the inaccuracy of the translation it is awkward, as if there are legal and illegal laws used by the government.



- **Comparison**

Example 1: Participant 9, T1

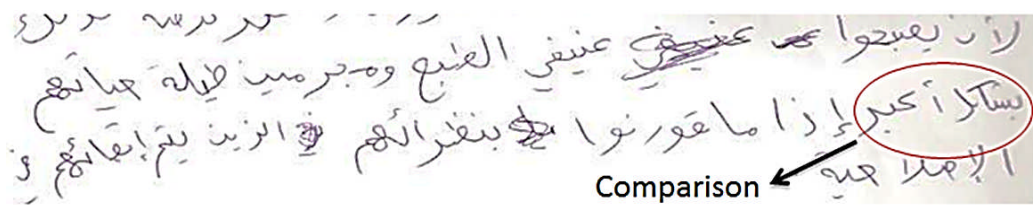
Context: (...) *when they began trying ever larger numbers of children as adults (...)*. It is rendered as ('adad 'akbr عدد أكبر) which means 'larger number than'. Thus, the Arabic version means 'a larger number than' whereas, in the ST it means *larger than ever*.



Example 2: Participant 12, T1

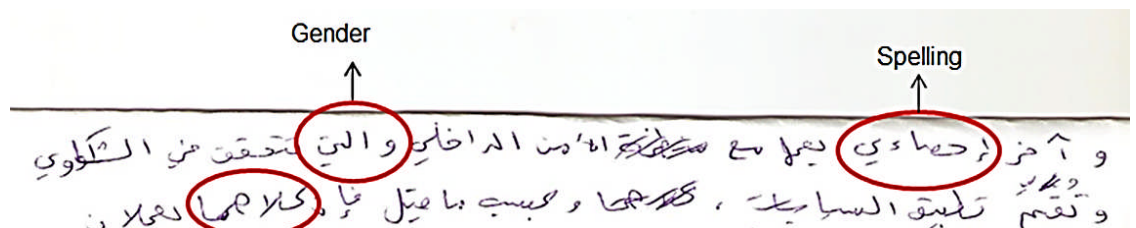
Context: (...) *more likely to become violent, lifelong criminals than those who are held in juvenile custody.*

He uses (bišaklin 'akbar أكبر) which literally means 'in a larger shape'. However, the comparison in the ST is of the possibility of becoming violent criminals rather than the shape or degree of criminality, as seen in the TT.



- **Gender**

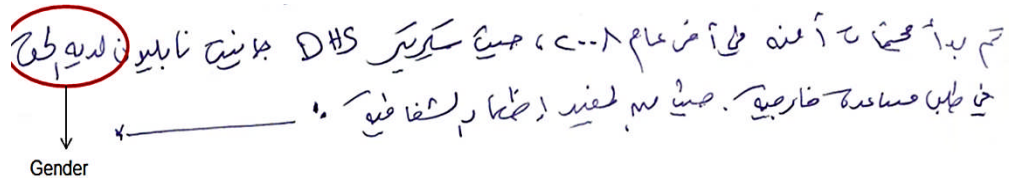
Example 1 Participant 2, T2, uses (allatī التي) which refers to the feminine, whereas the noun it refers to is masculine (al'amn الأمن) which means security. It must conform to the precedent noun it is attributed to in gender.



Example 2: Participant 6- T2

Context: DHS Secretary, Janet Napolitano, is right to seek outside help(...).

In this context the participant uses a masculine pronoun to refer to an obvious female name. He uses (لديه *ladīhi*) instead of (لديها *ladīhā*) which suits the feminine noun.

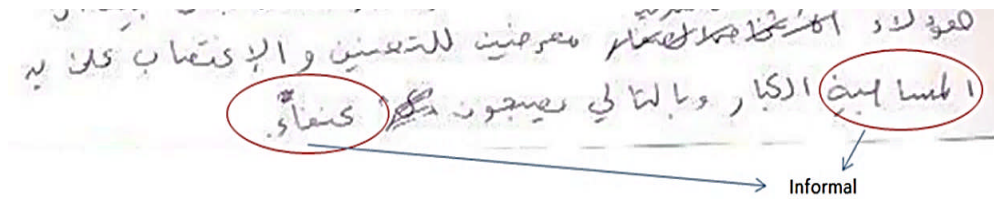


• Informality

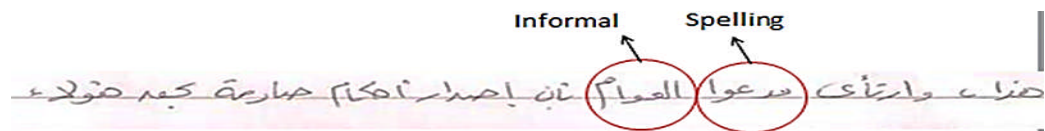
Example 1: Participant 2- T1,

Context: young people are vulnerable to battery and rape at the hands of adult inmates and more likely to become violent, lifelong criminals.

He uses (سجّاء *almasajin*) which is an informal form of (سجّان *sujanā*).



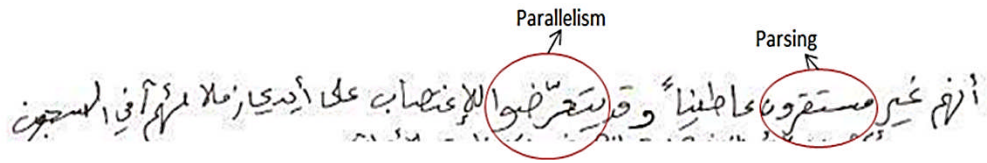
Example 2: Participant 16, T1, in the translation of 'Prosecutors argued that (...)' uses the informal form (*al'awām* meaning the common folk) in place of (*al'āmūn* or *al'umūm*) which means 'governmental'.



• Parallelism

Example 1: Participant 25- T1, uses the conjunction between a noun and a verb which breaches parallelism, when he conjuncts the noun

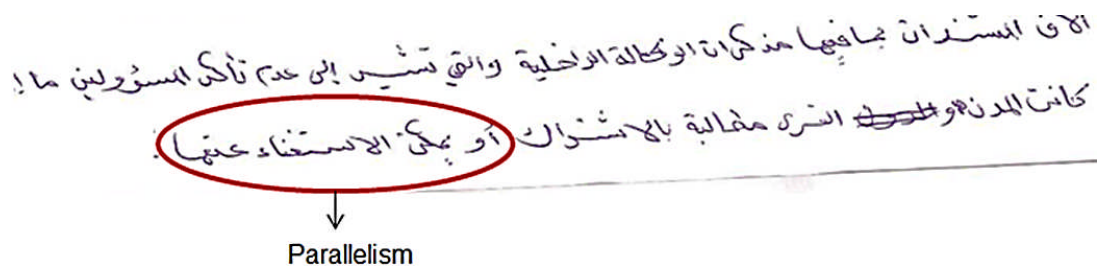
(mustaqirūn مُستقرون , which also has a parsing error) with the verb (يتعرضوا) yat'raḍū).



Example 2: Also Participant 11- T2,

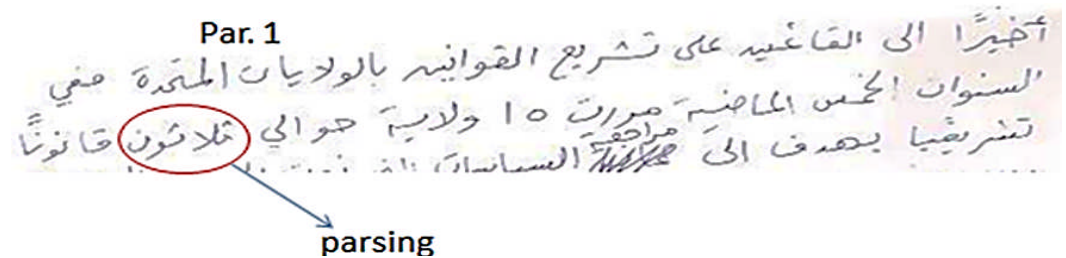
Context: (...) officials were unsure if cities and counties were **required to participate, or could opt out.**

There is here another instance of violation to parallelism when conjuncting a nominal construction (مُطالِبَةٌ بِالِإِشْتِرَاكِ muṭālbātun biālī' ištirāk) to a verbal construction (يُمْكِنُ الْإِسْتِغْنَاءُ عَنْهَا yumkin al' istignā 'anhā).

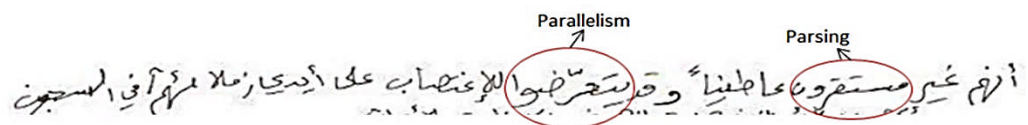


- **Parsing**

Example 1: Participant 1, T1, uses (talātūn ثلاثون) which is a part of the object to the verb (marara مَرَرَ which means passed a law) and must be (talātīn ثلاثين) instead, according to parsing rules of Arabic.

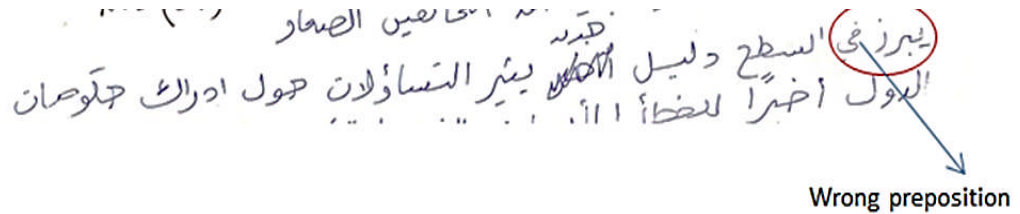


Example 2: Similarly, Participant 25, Text 1, uses (mustaqirūn مُستقرون) in place of (mustaqirīn مُستقرين) to conform to its function as an ascribed element.



- **Preposition**

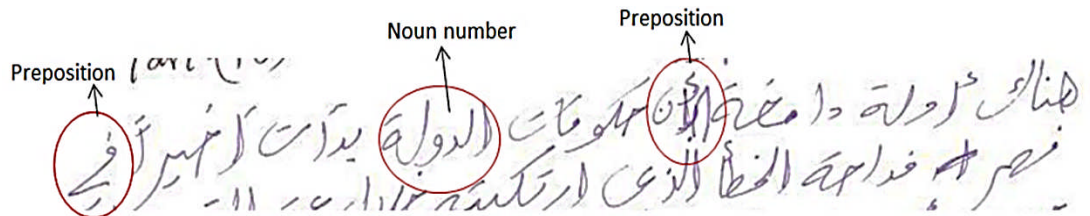
Example 1: Participant 1, T1, uses the wrong preposition choosing (fi assaṭḥi في السطح) which means (in the surface) to refer to (on or above surface that can be expressed by 'alā على).



Example 2: Participant 13, T1

Context: *There is new unquestionable evidence that state governments are finally understanding what a tragic mistake (...).*

The participant uses two wrong prepositions in one sentence: (li'ana لأن which means 'because') in place of ('alā على which means 'that' in this context). The second preposition is (fi في) which is an undesired addition that distorts the meaning. It is the wrong preposition that must be replaced by (ba ب) which indicates the beginning of some process.



- **Punctuation**

Participant 1, T2

In translating *Under the Immigration and Customs Enforcement Program, state and local police must check the immigration status of people.*

The punctuation mark (a comma) is lacking which distorts the meaning to become: the Immigration and Customs Enforcement Program is executed on the local police (rather than on immigrants).

punctuation

وفقاً لبرنامج انفاذ الهجرة والضرائب على الشرطة المحلية والدولية
 فحص ومراجعة حالة الهجرة للاشخاص الذين تعرضوا للاختطاف

- Reference**

Example 1: Participant 4, T1, uses the wrong reference when using (ارتكبها irtakabathā) in the rendition of *what a tragic mistake they made*, rendering 'they' into 'she'. Also rendered *instead of sending them to the juvenile justice system*, using the wrong singular reference in place of the ST plular one. So, 'them' is translated into 'her'.

Reference Addition

يوصفون بأنها دليل للاسلامية بان الدول تصف بسبل حسن
 الاخطأ الخطأ القاتل التي ارتكبتها أثناء بسببها
 عنونا بدها بالرجال عديدين من الاطفال كبالسنه
 بدلاً من ارسالها " نظام من لسقطه بالجناة "

Reference

Example 2: Participant 18, T1

Context: **governments** are finally understanding what a tragic mistake **they** made

The participant uses a masculine plural reference (bada'w بدأوا 'they began' and 'irtakabūh ارتكبوه 'they made') for 'governments' which has a feminine gender in Arabic. The correct rendition is bada't بدأت ' and irtakabthu ارتكبتها.

Part. (18)

توجد على هناك الكثير من الأدلة الجديدة التي ~~تدعم~~ أن الحكومات
 فهمت أخيراً ما هو الخطأ المأساوي الذي ارتكبوه خلال سنة ١٩٩٠
 عندما ~~بدأ~~ بدأوا إرسال عدد كبير من الأطفال ~~كبالسنه~~ كبالسنه بدلاً
 من إرسالهم إلى نظام محقق جوفينيل.

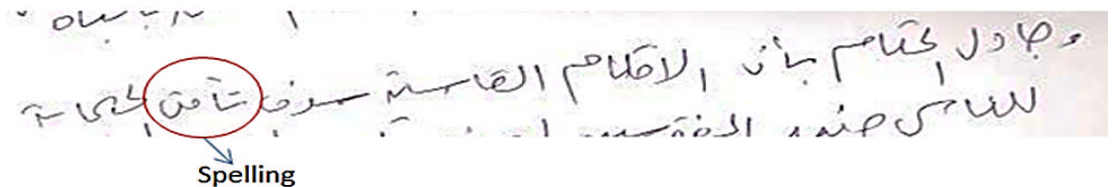
Reference

- Spelling**

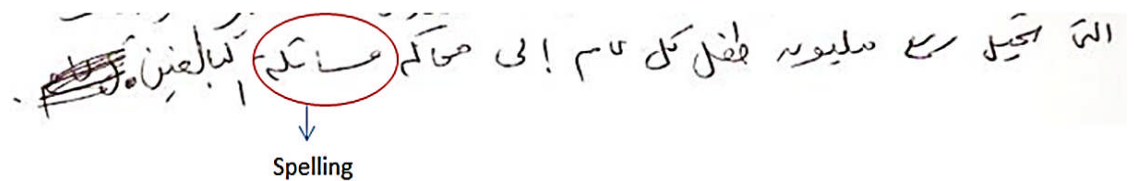
Participant 4, T1

Context: Prosecutors argued that harsh sentencing would **protect the public** (...).

Example 1: The participant wrote **تأمن** ta'man (to feel secure) in place of (tū'amin **تؤمن**) which means (to make secure), thus, changing the meaning due to a spelling error.



Example 2: In similar manner Participant 5, T1 misspells the word (musā'la **مُساءلة** scrutiny to musā'ila **مُساءلة**) in *Secure Communities has come under* **scrutiny**.

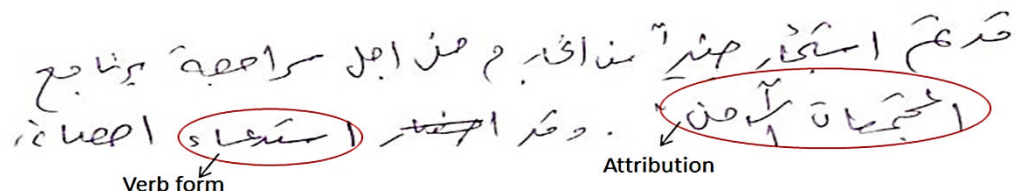


- **Verb form**

Example 1: Participant 4, T2

Context: *A statistician has been brought in (...)*

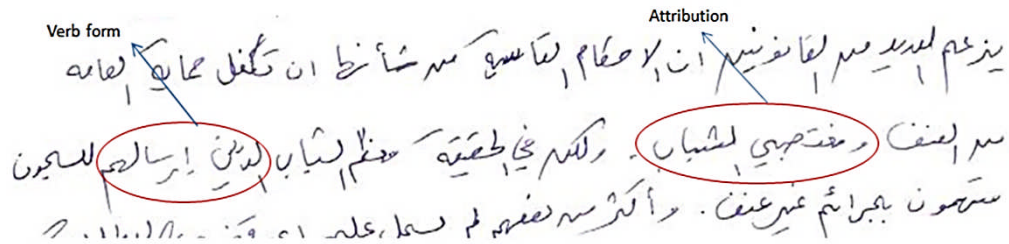
The participant uses an incorrect form of the verb after the particle (qad **قَدْ**) which means 'already' and conditions either the use of a present perfect tense (qad tamma 'istid'ā **قَدْ تَمَّ اسْتِدْعَاءُ** has been called up) or a passive voice construction ('ustud'iya **أُسْتُدْعِيَ** was summond) but the participant uses the noun in place of the verb.



Example 2: Participant 6, T1

Context: (...) *most young people who spend [أمضى] time in jails and prisons are charged with nonviolent offenses.*

The verb is rendered incorrectly into another form; a noun (إرسال 'irsiāl), which indicates that the translator misread spend to send, and thus rendered an incorrect form.

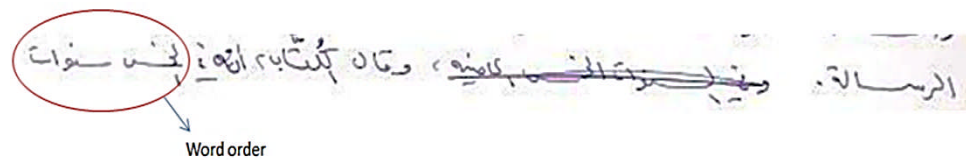


- **Word Order**

Example 1: Participant 3, T1

Context: *In the last five years, the authors say (...).*

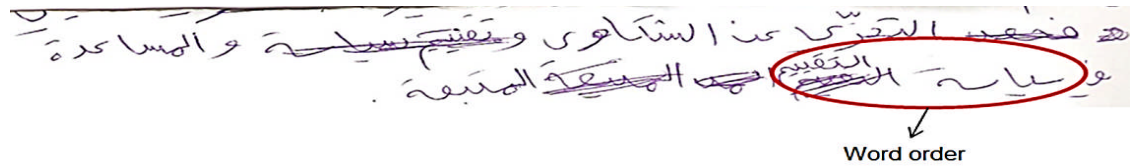
The translator here has reversed the word order in the TT in an instance of calque, instead of writing ألسنوات الخمس ('alsanawāt alḵams) he wrote (الخمس سنّوات) alḵamssanawāt).



Example 2: Participant 12, T2

Context: (...) *which investigates complaints and assists in policy evaluations.*

The translator here reverses word order and gives the wrong meaning when he follows the ST pattern in an instance of calque. So, he uses (سياسة) (siyāsati) instead of (تقييم السياسة) (taqīim assiyāsati).

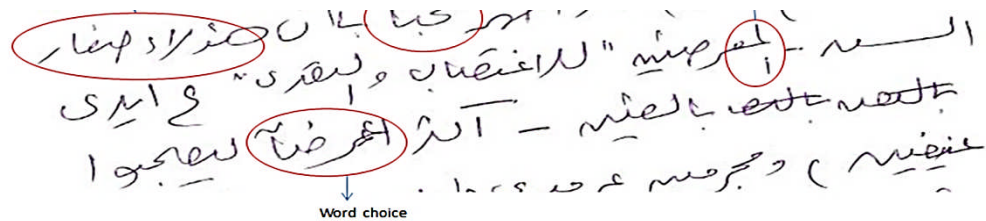


- **Word Choice**

Example 1: Participant 4, T1

Context: (...) these young people are **vulnerable** to battery and rape at the hands of adult inmates.

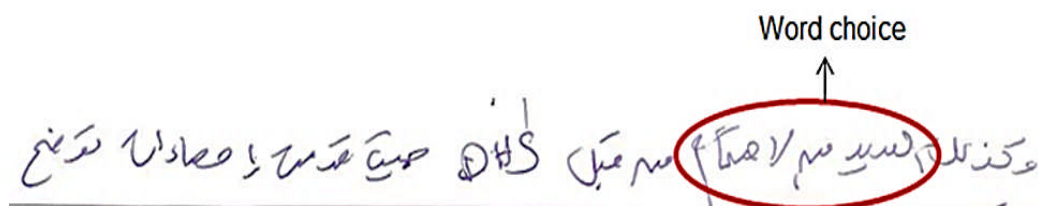
The word **vulnerable** is rendered into (أعرضاً 'a'rḍan), which is the wrong choice for (عرضةً 'irḍatān) which means **subject to** or **vulnerable**.



Example 2: 6, T2

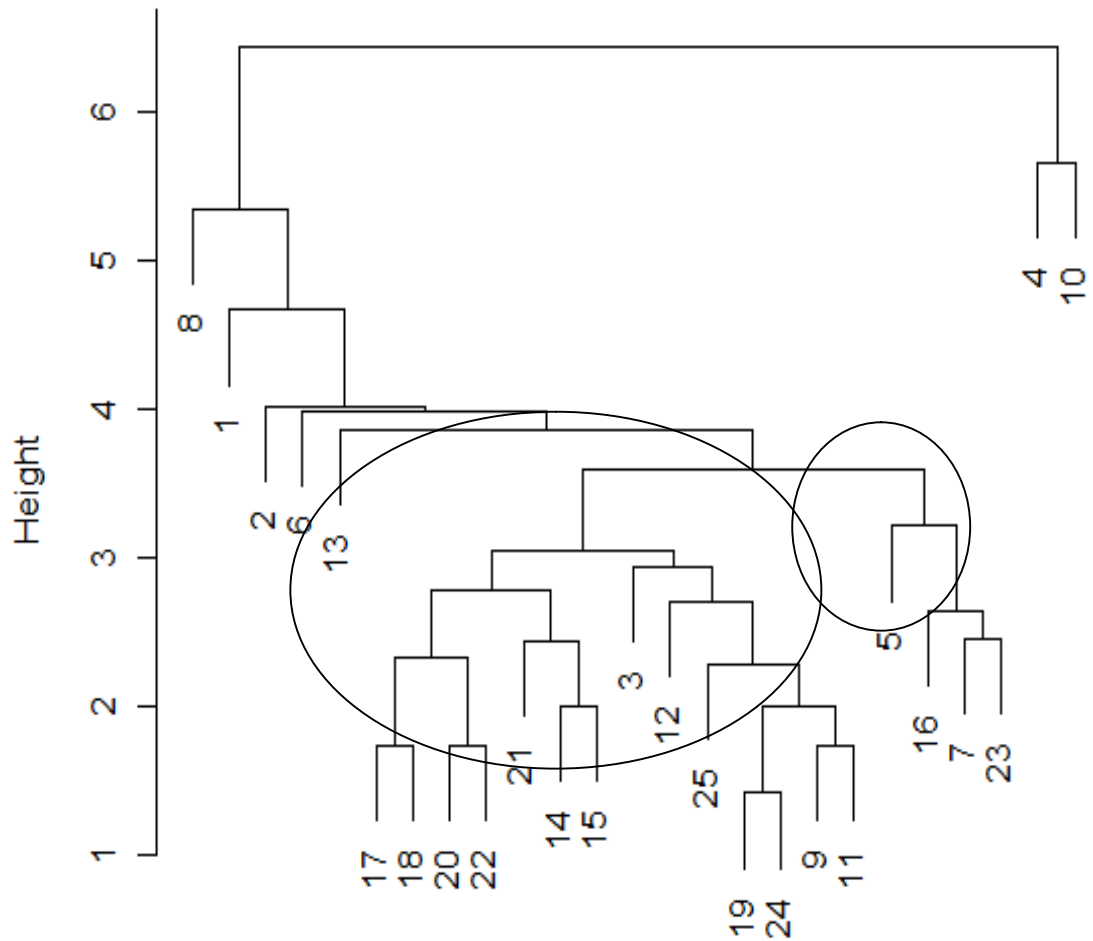
Context: **Concerns** were also fueled by DHS own numbers that indicate (...).

Here the translator uses (العديد من الإهتمام) al'adīd mina al'ihtimām) which literally means 'many concerns'. This does not work in Arabic because (al'adīd) can be used with countable nouns only, and (al'ihtimām) is uncountable.



Errors detected in each text are tabulated and displayed below to give a vivid picture about the quantity and the pattern of those errors. Thus, Figure 4.3 below and Figure 4.4 which follows display the clustering of grammatical errors detected in T1 according to participant and according to error respectively.

Figure 4.3 Pattern of Errors in Text One



In the plot above, the participants are grouped into clusters. The largest is a cluster which includes (14 observations) and the next cluster includes (four observations). The other observations do not show a clear pattern. The plot below (Figure 4.4) also shows the distribution of the errors grouped according to the density of their frequency.

Figure 4.4 Error Clusters in Text One

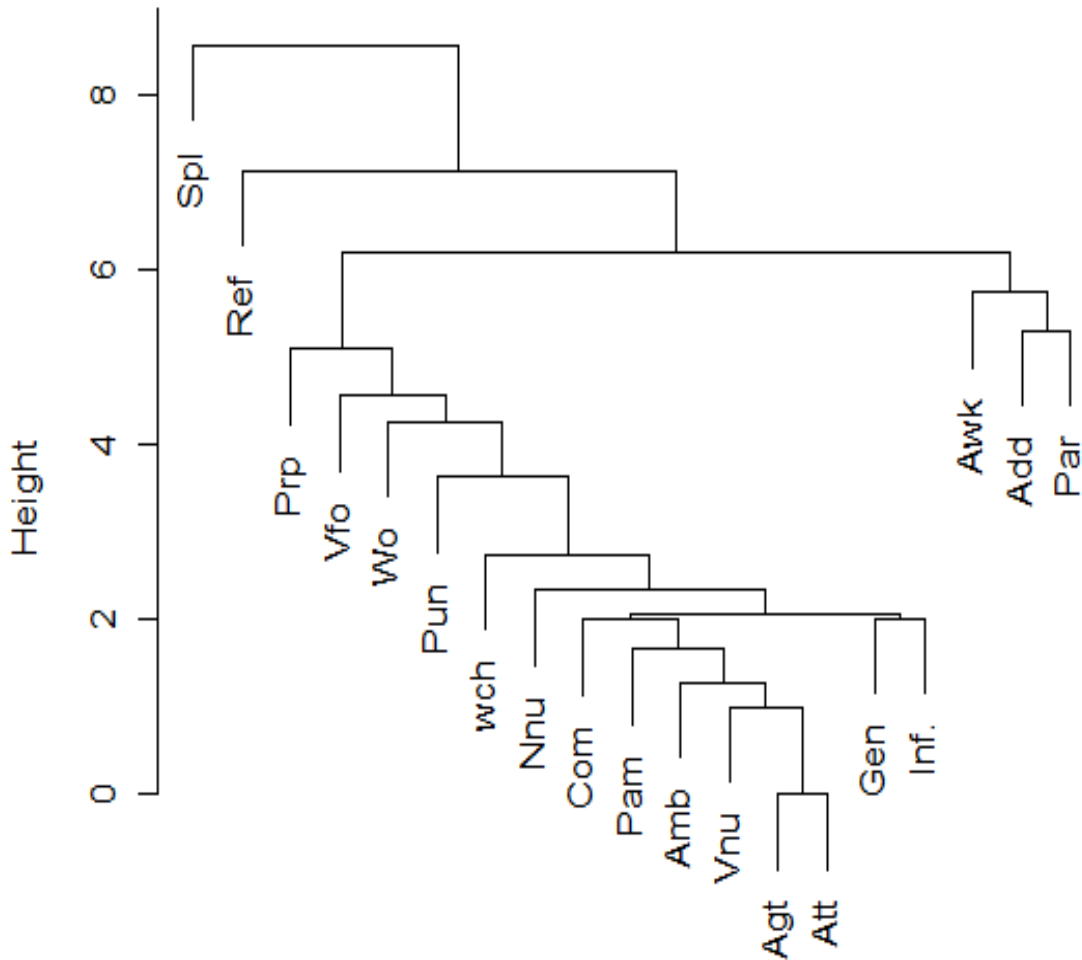


Table 4.3 Below displays the grammatical errors that were detected in T1. It is noticeable that the participants have committed a total of 183 errors, unevenly distributed among them with a *mean* of 7.32. The most frequent errors are in the categories of spelling (32), reference (23), awkwardness (21), parsing (20) and addition (20) respectively. To fit in the limited space, the following acronyms are used in the oncoming tables:

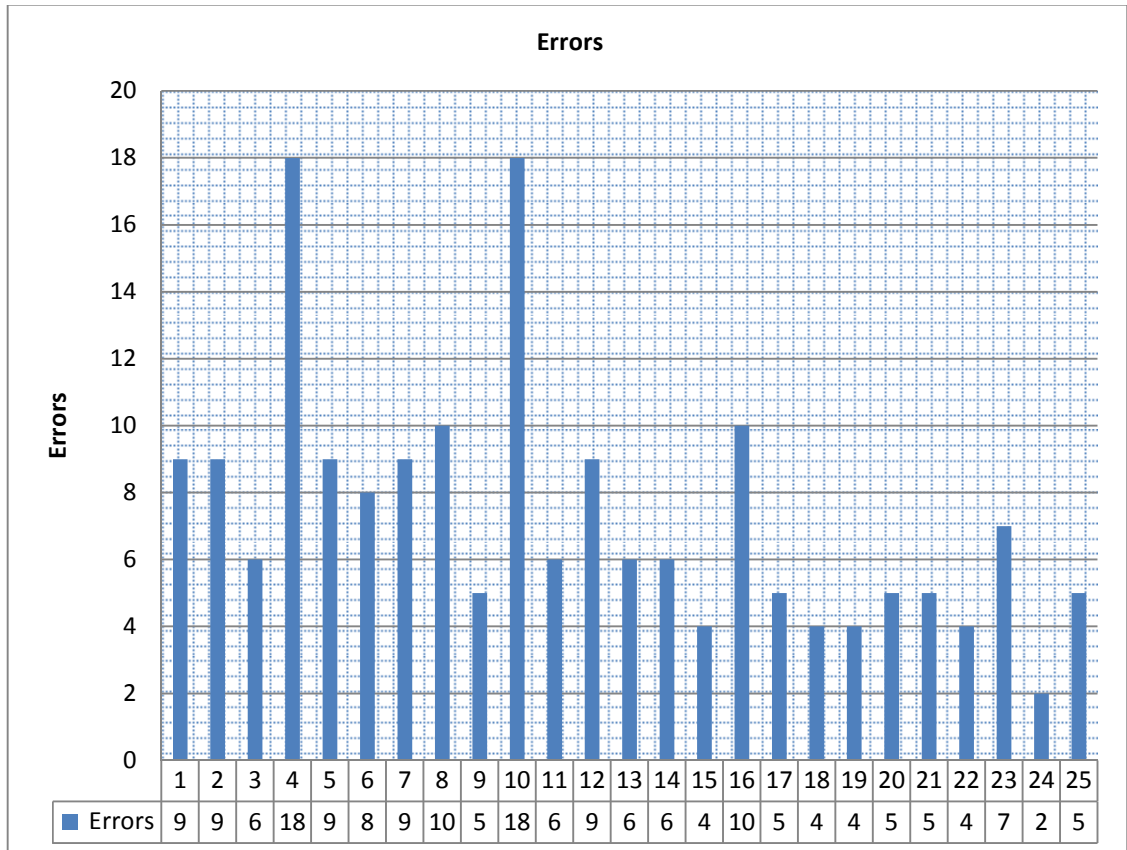
Acronyms: Add=addition, Agt=Agent, Amb=Ambiguity, Att=Attribution, Awk=Awkwardness, com=Comparison, Gen/Nnu=Gender/Noun number, Inf=Informal, Pam=parallelism, Par= Parsing, Prp= Preposition, Pun= Punctuation, Ref= Reference, Spl= Spelling, Vfo/ Vnu=Verb form/number, Wo=Word Order, Wch=Word choice.

Table 4.2 Text One: Grammatical Errors

Participant	Add	Agt	Amb	Att	Awk	Com	Gen/Nnu	Inf	Pam	Par	Prp	Pun	Ref	Spl	Vfo/Vnu	Wo	wch	total
01	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	1	3	0	0	0	0	1	9
02	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	3	1	0	2	0	0	0	0	9
03	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	2	1	0	0	0	1	1	0	6
04	4	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	4	2	1	3	1	18
05	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	1	2	1	2	0	1	9
06	0	1	0	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	2	0	0	8
07	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	3	1	0	1	0	9
08	0	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	5	0	0	0	10
09	1	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	5
10	4	0	0	0	4	0	0	0	0	2	3	0	1	0	2	1	1	18
11	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	6
12	2	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	2	0	1	0	9
13	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	3	0	0	2	0	0	0	6
14	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	2	1	0	1	6
15	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	4
16	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	1	0	2	2	1	0	0	10
17	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	2	0	0	0	5
18	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	1	4
19	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	4
20	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	3	0	1	0	5
21	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	1	2	0	0	5
22	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	2	0	0	0	4
23	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	3	2	0	0	0	7
24	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2
25	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	5
Total	20	1	1	1	21	3	7	3	2	20	13	6	23	32	13	11	6	183
Mean	0.8	0.04	0.04	0.04	0.84	0.12	0.538	0.12	0.08	0.08	0.52	0.24	0.92	1.28	0.52	0.44	0.24	7.32

Figure 4.5 below visually displays the errors committed by each participant in T1 where most participants are bunched around the group *mean*.

Figure 4.5: Text One: Grammatical Errors



In T2 the number of grammatical errors committed by the participants (150) is less than that of T1 (183), making the average of (6) errors per participant. The pattern of the changes seems very similar as supported by the strong positive relationship reflected by the highly significant correlation between the two texts (0.617). Similar to the aspects of omission and mistranslation, the high correlation between the two texts regarding this aspect suggests once more the consistency of the phenomenon of grammatical errors.

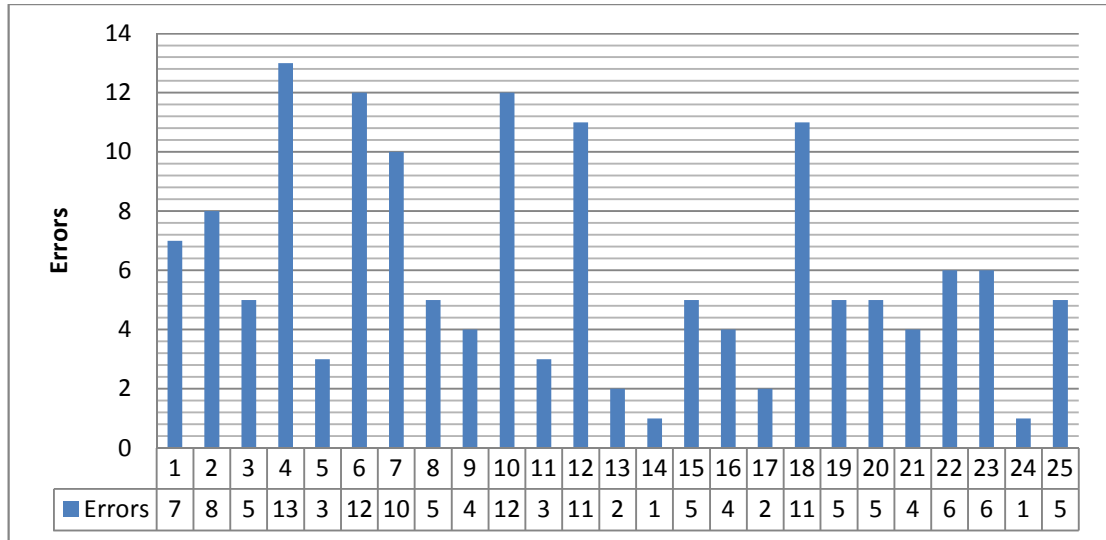
Table 4.3 below shows the detailed results of the detected errors in T2.

Table 4.3 Text Two: Grammatical Errors

Participant	Add	Agt	Amb	Att	Awk	Com	Gen/Nnu	Inf	Pam	Par	Prp	Pun	Ref	Spl	Vfo/Vnu	Wo	wch	total
01	3	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	7
02	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	2	2	0	0	8
03	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	5
04	7	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	13
05	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	3
06	0	0	0	2	3	0	2	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	2	12
07	1	0	0	0	2	0	1	0	0	0	2	0	2	0	1	0	1	10
08	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	5
09	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	4
10	3	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	2	0	2	0	0	1	1	12
11	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	3
12	2	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	0	1	0	0	2	0	0	1	2	11
13	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	2
14	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1
15	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	2	0	0	0	5
16	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	4
17	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	2
18	2	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	2	1	0	1	3	0	0	0	11
19	2	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	5
20	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	5
21	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	4
22	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	2	2	0	0	0	6
23	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	1	0	0	1	6
24	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
25	0	0	0	0	1	0	2	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	5
Total	33	1	2	4	14	0	14	0	2	12	15	2	12	18	6	3	12	150
Mean	1.32	0.04	0.08	0.16	0.56	0	0.56	0	0.08	0.48	0.6	0.08	0.48	0.72	0.24	0.12	0.48	6

Figure 4.6 displays the place of each participant in relation to the group.

Figure 4.6 Text Two: Grammatical Errors



However, the distribution of errors in T2 reflects a partly different picture where the participants do not bunch together around the mean but they scatter somewhat more randomly. The dendrogram below (Figure 4.7) displays the patterns of participants' distribution in relation to the number of errors.

Figure 4.7 Pattern of Error Distribution in Text Two

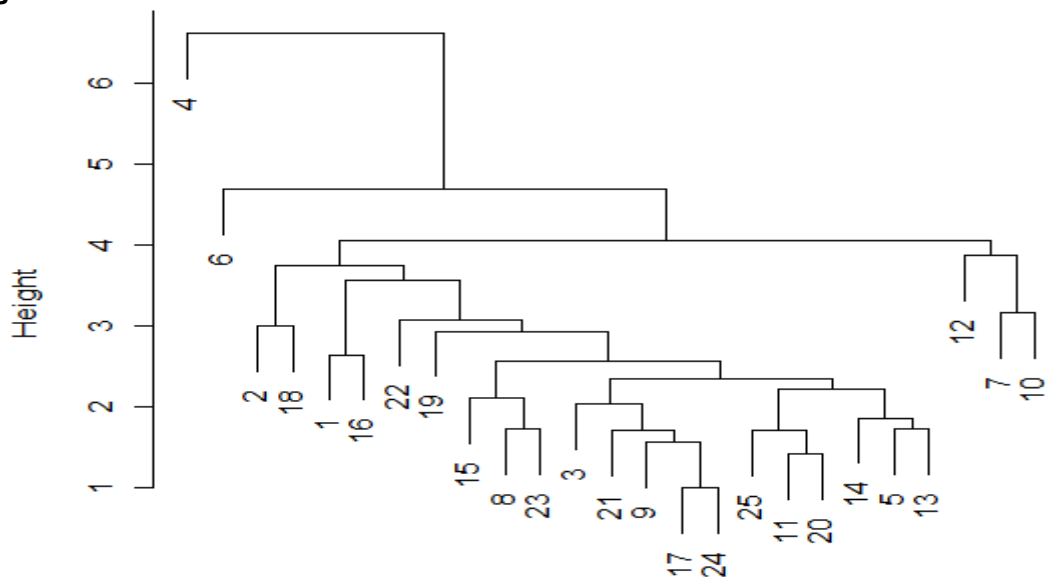
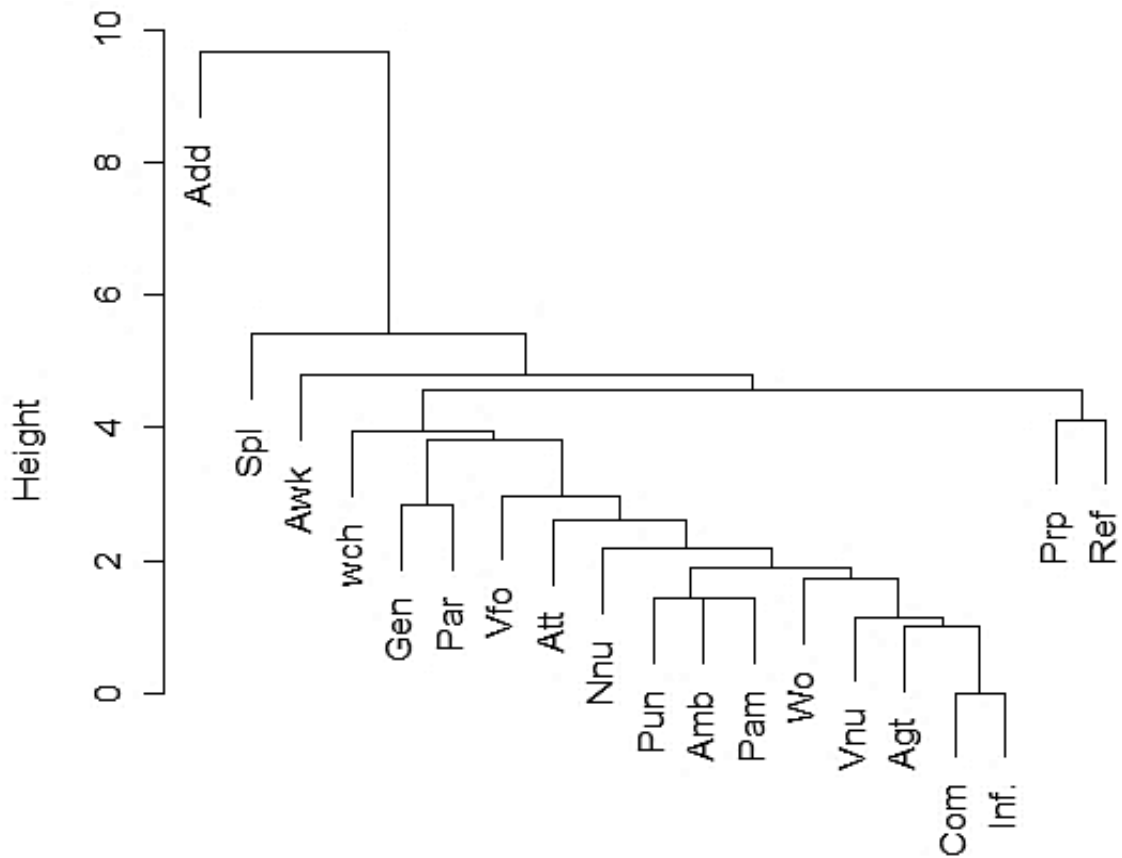


Figure 4.8 below shows the pattern of the error-kind distribution.

Figure 4.8 Distribution of Error Frequency in Text Two

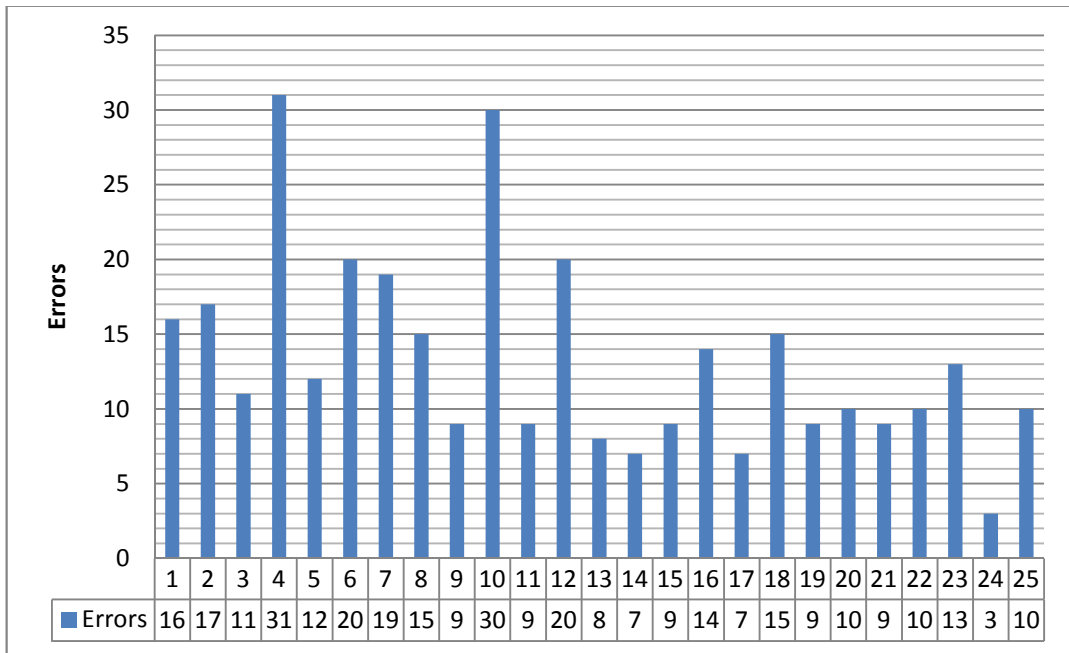


The strikingly strong positive relationship in the type and pattern of errors between the two texts makes it possible to pool them together in one table and treat them as one whole. The number of errors totals to 333. The highest numbers of errors (31 and 30) were made by participants 4 and 10 respectively, whereas the lowest (3) which was made by participant 24 followed by (7) errors made by participants 14 and 17. The remainder of the participants bunch in the area between 8 and 20 around a *mean* of 13.32. The detailed results are displayed in Table 4.4 below and the position of each participant is displayed in Figure 4.9.

Table 4.4 Grammatical Errors on Both Texts

Participant	Add	Agt	Amb	Att	Awk	Com	Gen/Nnu	Inf	Pam	Par	Prp	Pun	Ref	Spl	Vfo/ Vnu	Wo	wch	total
01	5	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	1	2	1	4	0	0	0	0	1	16
02	2	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	4	1	0	3	2	2	0	0	17
03	2	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	3	2	0	0	0	1	1	1	11
04	11	0	0	1	3	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	4	3	2	3	1	31
05	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	1	3	2	2	0	1	12
06	0	1	0	3	5	0	2	0	0	1	0	0	2	1	2	1	2	20
07	2	0	0	0	3	0	2	0	0	1	2	0	5	1	1	1	1	19
08	1	0	0	0	3	0	1	0	0	1	1	1	1	6	0	0	0	15
09	2	0	0	0	2	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	9
10	7	1	0	0	5	0	0	0	0	3	5	0	3	0	2	2	2	30
11	1	0	1	0	2	0	0	0	0	2	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	9
12	4	0	0	0	1	1	3	0	0	2	0	1	2	2	0	2	2	20
13	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	4	0	0	3	0	0	0	8
14	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	2	1	0	1	7
15	2	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	3	1	0	0	9
16	4	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	1	0	2	2	2	0	0	14
17	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	2	0	0	1	7
18	2	0	0	0	1	0	2	0	0	2	1	0	1	5	0	0	1	15
19	3	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	9
20	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	2	1	0	0	4	0	1	0	10
21	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	1	3	0	1	9
22	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	3	4	0	0	0	10
23	1	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	2	0	3	3	0	0	1	13
24	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	3
25	1	0	0	0	1	0	2	0	1	2	0	0	1	1	0	1	0	10
Total	53	2	3	5	35	3	21	3	4	32	28	8	35	50	19	14	18	333
mean	2.12	0.08	0.12	0.2	1.4	0.12	0.84	0.12	0.16	1.28	1.12	0.32	1.4	2	0.76	0.56	0.72	13.32

Figure 4.9 Grammatical Errors: Both Texts Combined



The following dendograms display the pattern of error distribution in terms of participant and the kind of error respectively.

Figure 4.10 Distribution of Participant Errors on both Texts

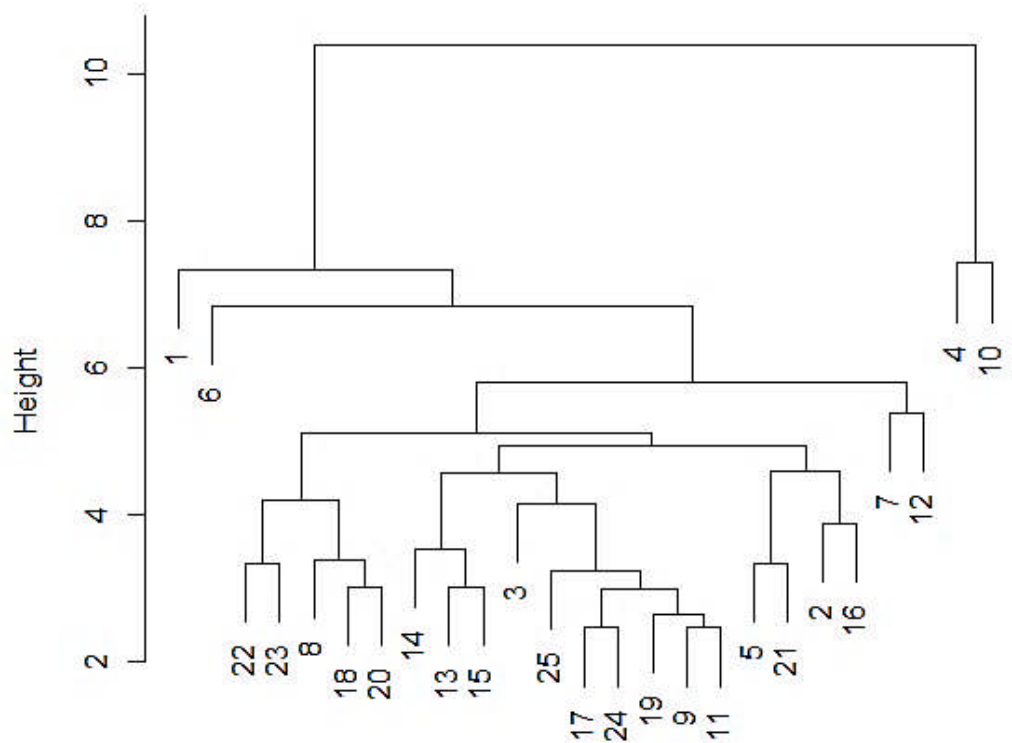
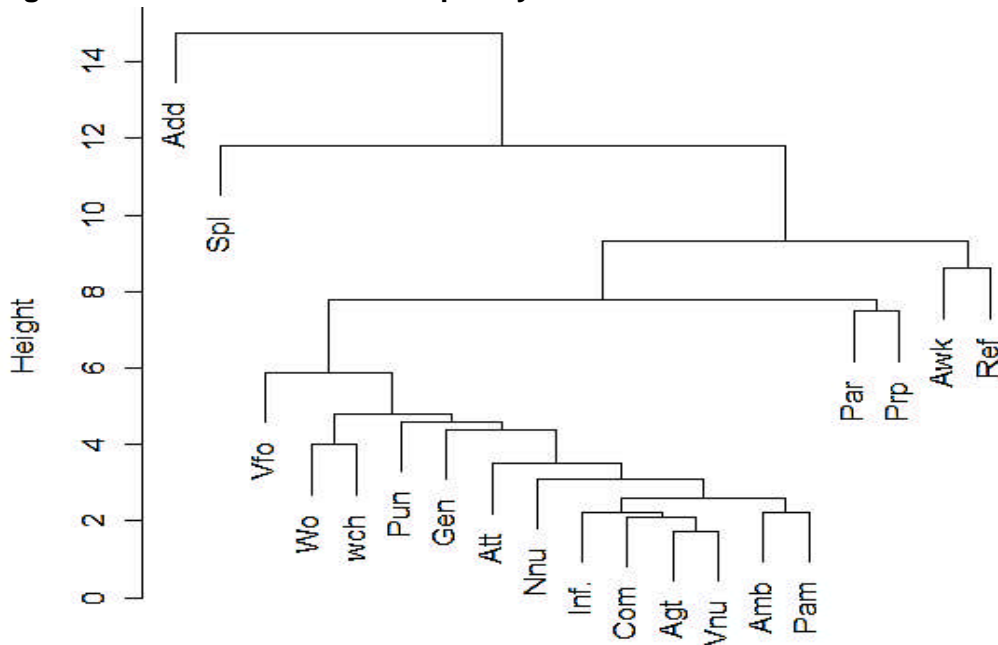


Figure 4.11 Pattern of Error Frequency of both Texts



4.4.4 Lexical Transfers

This is the fourth procedure Campbell employs in the assessment of textual competence which depends on the examination of the way lexical choices made by the participants reflect textual competence. The procedure has been discussed in detail in the Methodology (Chapter Three). It consists of two dimensions with four strategies each. They depict the types of transfers as follows:

- (i) Preserve sense:
 - P1. Choose appropriately from paradigm on general stylistic judgments.
 - P2. Give connotation that reflects textual concerns.
 - P3. Make non-textually motivated choice.
 - P4. Choose inappropriately from paradigm on general stylistic judgments.
- (ii) Shift sense:
 - S1. Choose new sense that reflects textual motivation
 - S2. Reduce metaphor to sense appropriately
 - S3. Transfer metaphor appropriately
 - S4. Choose inappropriate sense.

The following examples chosen from the two texts (two examples each) illustrate how the process of transfer is investigated in the choice-network analysis. It would be noted that mistranslations are not taken into account in this component because they were treated in a separate section. In addition, transfers that are diagnosed to belong to the first three strategies from each dimension (P1, P2, P3, S1, S2, & S3) are treated as successful transfers because all of them convey a correct meaning of some sort, despite the strategy in which they achieve that. Thus, only transfers which belong to P4 and S4 are discarded because they are not successful.

Example 1 (T1)

6. Source Item: Convicted

Frequency	Renditions	Transliteration	Transfer Strategy
11	إتهام	'itihām	S2
6	إدانة	'idāna	P1
2	Omissions	-----	-
1	إمتناع	'imtinā'	mistranslation
1	تُسَجَّلُ عَلَيْهِ قَضِيَّةٌ	tusajjal 'alayhi qaḍiya	S4
1	إقتِراف	'iqtirāf	mistranslation
1	إرتكاب	'irtikāb	mistranslation
1	يَقَعُونَ فِي الْفَخِّ	yaqa'ūn fī alfax	mistranslation
1	حُكْمٌ	ḥukm	S4

Example 2 (T1)

24. Source Item: Unquestionable

Frequency	Renditions	Transliteration	Transfer Strategy
6	قاطع	qāṭa'	S1
4	غَيْرُ قَابِلٍ لِلنِّقَاشِ (لِلجَدَلِ)	gayru qābilin lalnīqāš (laljadal)	P1
4	Omissions	-----	-----
3	واضح	wāḍiḥ	S2
3	لَا شَكَّ فِيهِ (لَا يَقْبَلُ الشُّكَّ)	lā šakka fayh (lā yaqbl aššak)	S3
1	يُثِيرُ التَّسَاوُلَاتِ	yuṭīru attasā'lat	mistranslation
1	سؤال مطروح	su'āl maṭrūḥ	mistranslation
1	حتمي	ḥatmī	P2
1	لَا يُمَكِّنُ إنْكَارَهُ	lā yumkinu 'inkāruh	S4
1	دامغ	dāmiġ	S1

Example 3 (Text Two)

7. Source item: Deportation

Frequency	Renditions	Transliteration	Transfer Strategy
14	التَرْحِيل	attarhīl	PS1
5	Omissions	-----	-----
1	الإدانات والهجرة	al'idānāt walhijra	mistranslation
1	الإخلاء	al'iklā'	S4
1	الإعادة الى البلد	al'i'āda ilā albalad	P2
1	المُغادرة	almuḡādra	mistranslation
1	التفني	annafī	S4
1	الإستبعاد	al'istib'ād	S3

Example 4 (Text Two)

10. Source Item: Fuelled

Frequency	Renditions	Transliteration	Transfer Strategy
11	زيادة	ziyāda	P1
4	إثارة	'itāra	S3
4	Omissions	-----	-----
1	إشعال	'iš'āl	S3
1	تعبير عن	ta'bīr 'an	mistranslation
1	مُضاعفة	muḡā'afa	P2
1	توجيه	tawjīh	mistranslation
1	فرض	fard	mistranslation
1	تأجيج	Tājīj	S1

The results of the analysis show that the highest percentage of the correctly translated items (68%) preserved sense when transferred, and (65%) of them fall in the P1 strategy exclusively. As for the items where sense is shifted, strategy S1 scored the highest number. Table 6.5 below displays results of T1:

Table 4.5 Lexical Transfers of Text One

Participant	transfers	Preserved sense				Shifted Sense			
		P1	P2	P3	P4	S1	S2	S3	S4
1	18	14	0	0	0	2	1	1	0
2	19	11	0	0	0	3	2	2	1
3	19	14	0	0	0	3	0	2	0
4	15	10	0	0	0	0	1	3	1
5	19	13	0	0	0	4	1	1	0
6	11	5	1	0	0	1	1	2	1
7	9	6	0	0	0	0	0	3	0
8	4	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	1
9	19	14	1	0	0	2	1	0	1
10	17	11	1	0	0	3	0	2	0
11	17	11	1	0	0	2	2	0	1
12	14	11	0	0	0	1	1	1	0
13	16	11	0	0	0	4	0	0	1
14	18	10	1	0	0	2	1	3	1
15	16	10	1	0	0	1	2	1	1

16	20	10	1	0	0	5	1	3	0
17	10	9	0	0	0	0	0	1	0
18	8	5	0	0	0	1	1	1	0
19	14	8	1	0	1	1	0	1	2
20	11	9	0	0	0	0	0	0	2
21	17	11	1	0	0	1	2	2	0
22	15	12	0	0	0	0	2	0	1
23	18	8	1	0	0	5	0	3	1
24	16	9	1	0	0	2	1	1	2
25	13	9	0	0	0	2	0	0	2
Total	373	242	11	0	1	46	20	34	19
%	-	65%	3%	0%	0%	12%	5%	9%	5%
Mean	14.88	9.68	0.44	0	0.04	1.84	0.8	1.36	0.76

In T2 the pattern of transfers does not differ from that of T1 where the majority of the transfers (80%) preserved sense, whereas the other 20% shifted the sense. Similarly, most of the sense preserving transfers (68%) is of the P1 type. The similarity is reflected in a high correlation positive value of (0.812**). However, differences are noticed in the sense shifting strategy where transfers tend to assemble in the S3 and S4 types.

Table 4.6 below displays the lexical transfers in T2.

Table 4.6 Lexical Transfers: Text Two

Participant	transfers	Preserved sense				Shifted Sense			
		P1	P2	P3	P4	S1	S2	S3	S4
1	18	12	0	3	0	0	1	1	1
2	20	14	0	1	0	2	0	2	1
3	14	11	0	1	0	0	0	0	2
4	15	12	0	0	0	0	0	0	3
5	18	10	0	2	0	2	1	3	0
6	8	6	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
7	12	7	1	2	0	0	0	1	1
8	2	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
9	14	9	1	0	0	1	0	0	3
10	17	9	1	3	0	1	0	0	3
11	16	12	1	1	0	1	0	0	1
12	15	10	1	2	0	0	0	0	2
13	21	13	2	1	0	1	0	3	1
14	14	9	0	2	0	1	0	2	0
15	12	9	0	1	0	0	0	1	1
16	17	11	0	1	0	0	0	1	4
17	3	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
18	3	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
19	10	5	1	1	0	0	0	2	1
20	8	4	0	1	0	0	0	0	3
21	18	12	1	2	0	0	0	2	1
22	18	14	0	2	0	0	0	0	2
23	16	11	0	2	0	0	0	2	1

24	18	12	0	1	0	1	0	2	2
25	16	13	0	2	0	0	0	1	0
Total	343	233	9	31	0	10	2	24	34
%	-	68%	3%	9%	0%	3%	1%	7%	10%
Mean	13.72	9.32	0.36	1.24	0	0.4	0.08	0.96	1.36

The results of the two texts are merged together in Table 4.7 below giving a picture that does not much differ from that of the single texts. More than half the 50 selected items were transferred with an average of 28.64 transfers per participant. The majority of the transfers (73%) belong to the preserve sense type.

Table 4.7 Lexical Transfers: Both Texts

Par	transfers	Preserved sense				Shifted Sense			
		P1	P2	P3	P4	S1	S2	S3	S4
1	36	26	0	3	0	2	2	2	1
2	39	25	0	1	0	5	2	4	2
3	33	25	0	1	0	3	0	2	2
4	30	22	0	0	0	0	1	3	4
5	37	23	0	2	0	6	2	4	0
6	19	11	1	0	0	1	1	3	2
7	21	13	1	2	0	0	0	4	1
8	6	3	0	0	0	1	0	1	1
9	33	23	2	0	0	3	1	0	4
10	34	20	2	3	0	4	0	2	3
11	33	23	2	1	0	3	2	0	2
12	29	21	1	2	0	1	1	1	2
13	37	24	2	1	0	5	0	3	2
14	32	19	1	2	0	3	1	5	1
15	28	19	1	1	0	1	2	2	2
16	37	21	1	1	0	5	1	4	4
17	13	12	0	0	0	0	0	1	0
18	11	8	0	0	0	1	1	1	0
19	24	13	2	1	1	1	0	3	3
20	19	13	0	1	0	0	0	0	5
21	35	23	2	2	0	1	2	4	1
22	33	26	0	2	0	0	2	0	3
23	34	19	1	2	0	5	0	5	2
24	34	21	1	1	0	3	1	3	4
25	29	22	0	2	0	2	0	1	2
Total	716	475	20	31	1	56	22	58	53
%	-	66%	3%	4%	0%	8%	3%	8%	7%
Mean	28.64	19	0.8	1.24	0.04	2.24	0.88	2.32	2.12

Transfers are judged to be either successful or faulty depending on the correctness of the meaning they convey despite the strategy used in the process. Anyway, only transfers of strategies P4 and S4 are treated as faulty

transfers because they do not convey correct meanings. Table 4.8 below displays the pattern of the transfers of both texts.

Table 4.8 Lexical Transfers of both Texts

Par	Lexical Transfers								
	Text One			Text Two			Both Texts		
	successful	faulty	sum	successful	faulty	sum	Successful	faulty	Sum
1	18	0	18	17	1	18	35	1	36
2	18	1	19	19	1	20	37	2	39
3	19	0	19	12	2	14	31	2	33
4	14	1	15	12	3	15	26	4	30
5	19	0	19	18	0	18	37	0	37
6	10	1	11	7	1	8	17	2	19
7	9	0	9	11	1	12	20	1	21
8	3	1	4	2	0	2	5	1	6
9	18	1	19	11	3	14	29	4	33
10	17	0	17	14	3	17	31	3	34
11	16	1	17	15	1	16	31	2	33
12	14	0	14	13	2	15	27	2	29
13	15	1	16	20	1	21	35	2	37
14	17	1	18	14	0	14	31	1	32
15	15	1	16	11	1	12	26	2	28
16	20	0	20	13	4	17	33	4	37
17	10	0	10	3	0	3	13	0	13
18	8	0	8	3	0	3	11	0	11
19	11	3	14	9	1	10	20	4	24
20	9	2	11	5	3	8	14	5	19
21	17	0	17	17	1	18	34	1	35
22	14	1	15	16	2	18	30	3	33
23	17	1	18	15	1	16	32	2	34
24	14	2	16	16	2	18	30	4	34
25	11	2	13	16	0	16	27	2	29
sum	353	20	373	309	34	343	662	54	716
%	95%	5%	100%	90%	10%	100%	92%	8%	100%
Mean	14.12	0.8	14.88	12.36	1.36	13.72	26.48	2.16	28.64

The table above clearly shows that the lexical transfer strategies are mostly used successfully by an overwhelming majority of the participants. The correlations in table 4.9 below lead to an astounding finding that the four components of textual competence which Campbell suggested are not strongly positively related to each other as shown by the correlations among them.

Table 4.9 Components Correlations across Texts

Aspect	Text one	Text two	Both Texts
Omissions vs. Mistranslations	0.182	0.488	0.457
Omissions vs. Grammar Errors	-0.406	0.006	-0.196
Mistranslations vs. Grammar Errors	0.251	0.315	0.331
Transfers vs. Omissions	-0.704	-0.915	-0.874
Transfers vs. Mistranslations	-0.823	-0.793	-0.829
Transfers vs. Grammar errors	0.065	-0.146	-0.046

It is evident from Table 4.9 above that the correlations among the various aspects do not show any strong positive relationship. There is only a moderate correlation between omissions and mistranslations in T2 only which means that when omissions increase mistranslations also increase in this text. On the other hand very strong negative correlations were found between transfers and omissions and between transfers and mistranslations. This indicates a logical relationship in that translators with successful transfers (a positive attribute) have less omissions and mistranslations (positive attributes too). Most of the other negative correlations are weak, very weak, or negligible except a moderate one between omissions and grammar errors in T1. This can only suggest that the constituents of textual competence are skills and abilities which generally develop rather independently in both degree and direction.

4.5 Textual Competence: An Evaluative Scale

In an attempt to assess textual competence of each individual reasonably objectively, a scale is designed by this study to weigh the four constituents separately and assign a score for each. The resultant scores are summed to produce a final score for each participant. The assessment of each constituent is different from the others depending on the range of values to be entered for that constituent on a scale. The scale consists of five award intervals, including values from zero to four. In the omissions category, the highest number of omissions scored was 22 and the lowest was 1. The lowest score is subtracted from the highest to get the distribution range of 21. When (21) is apportioned on five intervals the nearest number is four. So, the participants' omissions are to be assessed on a scale of five intervals, four values each. Since low omissions

represent a positive aspect, translators are awarded the most for the least omissions they have done as follows:

From	To	Award
1	4	4
5	8	3
9	12	2
13	16	1
17	above	0

So participants with omissions ranging between 1 to 4 are awarded the highest score of 4, those with 5 to 8 are awarded less (3 only) and so on; with the increase in the number of omissions there is decrease in the awarded score.

Similarly, in the category of mistranslations the scale is built in the same way, with five intervals- four values each. But this time, though it works on a distribution range of 21 too, it operates between 7 (the lowest number of mistranslations) and 28 (the highest). The same awarding system is followed:

From	To	Award
7	10	4
11	14	3
15	18	2
19	23	1
24	above	0

The category of grammar errors starts from 3 as the lowest score and ends with 31 as the highest score, operating on intervals of six digits each because the distribution range is larger.

From	To	Award
3	8	4
9	14	3
15	20	2
21	26	1
27	above	0

The scale for lexical transfers works in the opposite direction in that higher successful transfers are awarded higher scores, and the award decreases with the decrease of successful transfers. The scale starts at 37 and closes at 5, with intervals of 7 digits each.

From	To	Award
37	31	4
30	24	3
23	17	2
16	10	1
9	5	0

The results of employing this scale on the data of the four categories are displayed in the table 4.10 below:

Table 4.10 Textual Competence Scale

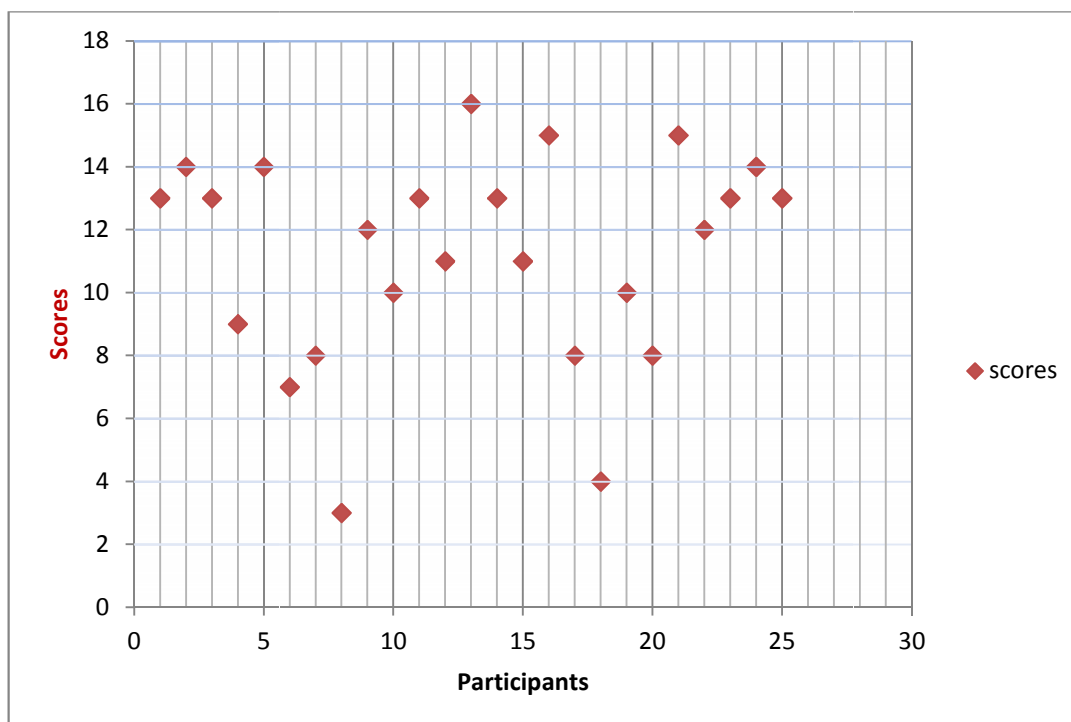
Par.	Omission	Award	Mistranslation	Award	Grammar Errors	Award	Transfer	Award	Sum
1	6	3	8	4	16	2	35	4	13
2	4	4	7	4	17	2	37	4	14
3	4	4	13	3	11	3	31	3	13
4	3	4	17	2	31	0	26	3	9
5	1	4	12	3	12	3	37	4	14
6	11	2	20	1	20	2	17	1	7
7	11	2	18	2	19	2	20	2	8
8	16	1	28	0	15	2	5	0	3
9	5	3	12	3	9	3	29	3	12
10	1	4	15	2	30	0	31	3	10
11	1	4	16	2	9	3	31	3	13
12	7	3	14	3	20	2	27	3	11
13	4	4	8	4	8	4	35	4	16
14	10	2	8	4	7	4	31	3	13
15	9	2	13	3	9	3	26	3	11
16	4	4	9	4	14	3	33	4	15
17	22	0	15	2	7	4	13	1	8
18	19	0	20	1	15	2	11	0	4
19	15	1	11	3	9	3	20	2	10
20	12	2	19	1	10	3	14	1	8
21	4	4	9	4	9	3	34	4	15
22	5	3	12	3	10	3	30	3	12
23	4	4	12	3	13	3	32	3	13
24	7	3	9	4	3	4	30	3	14
25	4	4	16	2	10	3	27	3	13
Mean	7.56	2.84	13.64	2.68	13.32	2.64	26.48	2.68	10.84

Note:

-Red-colour numbers refer to scores above average in their columns.

According to the scale, 14 participants have an above average level of textual competence, whereas the remainder 11 have a lower level. One participant (no.13) only in the whole group has got the highest possible score of 16, as contrasted to participant (no.8) who scored the lowest 3. The participants are well distributed along the whole range of scores which entails the high discrimination ability of the scale as illustrated by the Figure 4.12 below:

Figure 4.12 Distribution of Participant Textual Competence Scores



4.6 Conclusion

In this chapter, it has been revealed that there are some features which characterize the textual competence of a translator and make it possible to portray it by relying on the results of their analysis. Among these are the lexical omissions from the ST, lexical mistranslations, grammatical errors and lexical choices, which all collaborate to draw a picture of textual competence. Lack of control on these features will result in the production of informal texts that are deficient. These features are studied because they decide the match between the ST and the TT and reflect how faithfully and accurately the translation conveys the ST. This leads to important judgments about the TC of different translators.

Purposely, omissions and the lexical choices dissimilarity among the translators are looked at here from the angle of textual competence to reflect the range of ability a translator has in producing a TT with the minimum loss of meaning and information resulting from omitting lexical items from the ST or mistranslating them. In addition, the way lexical items are transferred to the TL

reflects the textual concern and the efficacy of the translator in producing a well-built text.

The endeavour to build an assessment scale for textual competence has revealed significant variations among the group. The core indication it provides is about the independence of each category; in that, even though the four categories employed in the assessment are not dependent on each other and not strongly related, they assume a stable pattern across the two texts. Although it is not valid to generalize from the results of this confined study and from the investigation of two texts only, an indication is possible to infer. Hence, the stable pattern can be inferred as a state where those constituents may be basic in the build-up of textual competence, but at the same time they are separate and develop at different times and rates. This instigates translator training to look at them as distinctive skills whose level and efficacy vary from one translator to another even among a homogeneous group like the one participated in this study. This suggests the necessity of diagnosing them and designing suitable training for specific translators or groups.

The profiling of the different participants' textual competence can be subjected to Campbell's classification of textual competence into substandard, pretextual and textual by considering participants who fall below average as substandard, those who cluster around the average to be pretextual and those who booked the upper level as textual. However, these judgments do not give final generalizations as they will be further discussed when correlated with the monitoring and disposition profiles and with the expert assessments in the final chapter to profile TC as a whole.

Chapter Five: The Study of Disposition

5.1 Overview

In this chapter, the aspect of disposition in translation is studied as a component of TC. Although the term 'disposition' is used by Campbell (1998, p.162) to refer to the translator's overall approach to the task of translating the text, it is not vividly and precisely defined. The term is only practically and empirically adopted in the current study to discriminate, on the one hand, between translators who hold persistent in the face of translation difficulties and problems from translators who generally capitulate and give up easily when facing those difficulties. On the other hand, it discriminates between translators who are prudent and calculating from those who generally take risks in rendering certain aspects of a text. Frequently, translation difficulties puzzle the translator, and the way in facing them largely depends on his approach. He may choose to transfer them to the TL or reduce their rendering to sense only. Campbell (ibid.) postulates that such an attitude by the translator when tackling the text or some of its aspects (persistent or capitulating; risk-taking or prudent) could be interpreted as an attribute of personality or an individual characteristic that is not reflective of TL competence, but it has its impact on his translation performance which is strongly related to his TL competence.

However, the way in which the term 'disposition' is used is undoubtedly ambiguous and inconsistent in relation to character traits, attitudes, habits, skills, knowledge, abilities, motives, desires and trends of behavior. Before proceeding to apply Campbell's definition in the current study, it is important to outline how disposition is defined in general and in the fields of psychology and education in particular. It is necessary to do so because disposition is taken by Campbell as an attitude, a personality attribute and a character trait.

5.2 Definition

In the *Collins English Dictionary* (2014, Online) 'disposition' is given different definitions, some of which do not concern this study because they relate to

other irrelevant fields of knowledge. However, the following two definitions are related to the meaning of the term as it is adopted in this study.

- “a person's usual temperament or frame of mind”.
- “a natural or acquired tendency, inclination, or habit in a person or thing”.

The Comprehensive Dictionary of Psychological and Psychoanalytical Terms (English and English, 1958), defines disposition as:

a general term for any (hypothesized) organized and enduring part of the total psychological or psychophysiological organization in virtue of which a person is likely to respond to certain stable conditions with a certain kind of behaviour.

In fact, dispositions are looked at from different points of view, especially in education and training. For example, Burant, et al. (2007) have surveyed the different kinds of dispositions while investigating the role they play in teacher education and looked at them from three angles as:

- beliefs and attitudes.
- personality traits.
- observable behaviors.

Similarly, Buss and Craik (1983, p.105) propose a formal definition of the different dispositions as "summaries of act frequencies that represent trends or frequencies of acts". Katz and Raths (1985, p.303) suggest that the terms 'trait' and 'disposition' differ in two ways. First, a disposition entails a trend in actions rather than an emotional state of a person. Thus, a person can possess many aspects that describe his character and the way he manages his emotions. He can be honest, ambitious, and courageous or has any other positive or negative aspects. However, these do not describe his disposition, but describe only aspects of the buildup of his character and his emotional control. Second, disposition can be taken to indicate actions and depict their frequency. So, dispositions can describe tendencies of people and how they are prepared to function in a specific way. Thus, the authors exemplify that by referring to the tendency to be an “explorer, problem solver, bully, whiner, and so forth, which may however, be accompanied by emotional states” (ibid, p.303). To explain,

the way in which character traits and dispositions vary is the degree of their intensity is that the intensity of emotional traits differs from that of conscious tendencies (dispositions) in that traits are unconscious and spontaneous and do not always yield themselves easily to the person's management. Unlike traits, dispositions can be subjected to conscious control and reasoning (ibid.).

In his discussion of 'cultivating the disposition to higher order thinking' Resnick (1987, p.4,) postulates that:

the term disposition should not be taken to imply a biological or inherited trait. As used here, it is more akin to a habit of thought, one that can be learned and, therefore, taught.

However, Katz and Rath (1985, p.303) have a somehow different view when they suggest that dispositions are patterns of actions which need some attention to what is going on in the context of the action. Thus, they believe that when these acts are experienced and practiced they may look 'spontaneous, habitual, or even unconscious'. Thus, they use the term 'habit' to refer to actions that are not intentional or resulting from 'thought, reflection, and analysis'. Disposition, on the other hand, is a term that refers to trends in intentional actions that the doer performs in certain contexts and at specific times. The authors make a contrast between habits and dispositions by proposing that:

Inasmuch as intentionality is a mental process, we see dispositions as "habits of mind"—not as mindless habits. They are classes of intentional actions in categories of situations, and they can be thought of as "habits of mind" that give rise to the employment of skills and are manifested (ideally) by skillful behavior (ibid.).

So, the construct disposition is viewed from a psychological standpoint as "act frequencies constituting trends in behavior" (Buss and Craik, 1983, p.107). However, the relationship between disposition and the concepts of knowledge, skills, or proficiency is rather complicated and obscure. Educators noticed that a person may have the knowledge or skills for doing something but does not have the drive or the desire to do it. Using skills and knowledge can be a very sophisticated matter and is not a matter of associating a skill to a disposition to display that skill because:

[e]lements of knowledge are usually associated with mental processes such as inference, recall, memory, classification, and construction, though there is a sense in which we describe people as analytical to mean that they have the disposition to process information analytically rather than holistically or impulsively (ibid.).

Similarly Da Ros-Voseles and Moss (2007); and Swanson and Da Ros-Voseles (2009) adopt Katz's (1993) disposition as an intentional and purposeful attribute; a "tendency to exhibit frequently, consciously, and voluntarily a pattern of behaviour that is directed to a broad goal" (Katz, 1993, p.1). However, Da Ros-Voseles and Moss (ibid.) disagree with him about the different degrees of dispositions he assumes when he defines dispositions as "relatively enduring habits of mind or characteristic ways of responding to experience across types of situations" (P.2). In this definition Katz tries to separate dispositions from the "mindless and unpremeditated habitual behavior" (ibid.). He gives examples of habits that we develop to become very well-established, deeply rooted and frequent in our behavior to the degree that they look unintentional and automatically performed such as 'obeying traffic lights and fastening seat belts'. Such habits, according to Katz, belong to more general dispositions as obedience or law abiding (ibid, p.16).

Another important issue related to the current study concerns whether it is possible to assess dispositions or not. Ennis (1994, p.180) has remarked that:

The basic problem in disposition assessment, (...) is that we are testing for traits that are unobservable, and that we want students to evidence them without their realizing that we want them to exhibit the trait. For, if they do realize it, they can often fake it, assuming that they have the ability and the sensitivity.

However, Ennis could not suggest a solid solution to such a problem due to the difficulty of exclusively attributing performance to either ability or disposition. In addition, there is no guaranteed way to ensure that all aspects of disposition can be evaluated as confirmed by McKenna (2009, p.33) that "dispositional assessments cannot wholly characterize any individual's entire disposition".

In their debate over the role of disposition Borko, et al. (2007, p.361) emphasize two important aspects. First, disposition is not well defined and consequently cannot be applied as a dependable standard in the assessment of teacher accreditation. Second, the lack of a procedural definition of the

construct results in the improbability of measuring it reliably and validly, let alone practically. They quote Rath (1999) who questions the possibility of measuring dispositions when he reflects on his own research on the topic as follows:

I have been unable to scale dispositions reliably—and my research program is essentially a failure. I have searched the literature and appealed to measurement specialists on a national scale for help, but there is little out there. So much of what is written in these standards calls on our colleagues to measure dispositions and their strengths. Can it be done?

Although it is theoretically assumed that dispositions are learnable and, consequently, can be assessed, it is difficult to assess human dispositions because they are matchless and mostly reflective of personal attributes. They involve beliefs, thoughts and tendencies that afford the source of a person's actions. They are not openly recognizable and not clearly associated with specific patterns of actions in a matching manner. As a result, they cannot be easily assessed by using the standard instruments of measurement of the social sciences such as checklists, inventories, and self-report. They are perceptual qualities whose assessment requires indirect research approaches that are not commonly and typically adopted in the social sciences. However, the problems faced in the assessment of dispositions do not abandon the need or the facility for undertaking that assessment.

Generally, Da Ros-Voseles and Fowler-Haughey (2007, p.2) classify dispositions into three main types, one of which (though not exclusively) is closely relevant to the present study. However, it must be noted that they were investigating dispositions of children. These dispositions are:

1. Inborn dispositions which are readily born with the child and can be noticed by both parents and teachers such as 'innate curiosity' and 'the ability to bond'.
2. Social dispositions which are socially valued positively such as "the tendency to be accepting, friendly, empathetic, generous, or cooperative" (Katz and Mc-Clellan, 1997 p.7), or negatively such as 'bossiness'.

3. Intellectual dispositions which are related to intellectual and cognitive attitudes such as predicting, solving problems, inferring cause-and-effect relationships, investigating, curiosity, collecting and recording precise data, cooperation, communication, seeking answers, asking new questions, and persistence.

The third type of disposition is the one that concerns this research and the one Campbell actually adopted, especially for including matters like predicting, solving problems, inferring relationships, investigating and persistence. These are all needed by a translator to do his/her work properly.

5.3 Disposition in TS

The recognition of the aspect of 'disposition' in TS dates back to the mid 1980's when translating was first investigated as a cognitive process. Since its inception in the mid-1980s with the studies of Gerloff (1986), Krings (1986) and Lorsch (1986), translation process research has undergone substantial progress. Those early studies were primarily interested in what goes on in the translator's mind and his attitude to the translation task and they obtained their data by using TAP's. During the nearly three decades which followed, interest in the cognitive and psychological activities in the translator's mind during the process of translating has become one of the focal areas in process research in particular and in TS research in general. Those early studies which relied on TAP's followed a cognitive psychology framework provided by Ericson and Simon (1984/1993) deal with translation as a cognitive task. Other new methods to elicit data have also been adopted, including key-logging (e.g. Jakobson 1999, 2003), eye-tracking (e.g. Jensen: 2008) and screen recordings (e.g. Ehrensberger-Dow and Perrin, 2009). As such, the cognitive and mental processes which accompany the translation process along with the psychological state of the translator and his attitude have become integral components of the research in this area. This emphasis comes from the conviction that these issues play an important role in formulating translation output.

The aim of process translation research is to "understand the nature of the cognitive processes involved in translating, with a focus on the individual

translator” (Englund Dimitrova, 2010, p.406). This aim is also emphasized by Malmkjaer in her argument about the importance of focusing on process research if it is to foresee TS as an autonomous discipline. She confirms that:

we cannot complete it without devoting a considerable amount of study to the central subject matter of Translation Studies, namely the processes of translation and the outcomes of those processes (2000, p.169).

As focus has been shifted from the product to the process, a number of studies and models have been suggested in this direction. Many of them were surveyed in Chapter Two of this study. However, Alvstad, et al (2011, p.2) were not content with the situation to mention that “only a modest number of experimental studies have been published on process-oriented research in translation and interpreting”. They refer to a number of volumes that were published in this respect which include most of the studies of Tirkkonen-Condit and Jaaskelainen (2000), *Tapping and Mapping the Processes of Translation and Interpreting*; Alves (2003) *Triangulating Translation*; Englund Dimitrova (2005) *Expertise and Explicitation in the Translation Process*; Shreve and Angelone (2010), *Translation and Cognition*; and Gopferich, et al. (2010), *Methodology, Technology and Innovation in Translation Process Research*.

In addition to the studies in the volumes mentioned above, there are other examples of studies which tackled disposition in one way or another. For example, Martínez Melis and Hurtado Albir (2001, p.280) include attitudes as a component in the psychophysiological competence which comprises a number of other abilities or subcompetences to form the TC. In their attempt to establish some techniques for evaluating TC They addressed the ability to apply:

psychomotor, cognitive and attitudinal resources: psychomotor competences and skills in reading and writing, cognitive faculties (memory, attention, creativity, logical thought, etc.) as well as psychological attitudes (intellectual curiosity, perseverance, rigour, critical acumen, awareness of and confidence in one’s own ability, etc.).

So, disposition is included here within the psychological attitudes, especially when it refers to ‘perseverance and awareness of and confidence in one’s own ability’, and this is the same sense in which it was used by Campbell.

Similarly, Heeb (2012, pp.177-86) looked at disposition from the point of view of problem-solving without naming it. It is an attempt to arrive at an understanding of the cognitive processes which take place during the process of problem-solving in translation. Her assumption is based on the idea that problem-solving is related to TC and consequently hypothesized that it is possible to detect differences between professional translators and master's students in their confrontation with translation problems. This assumption resonates with Campbell's when he suggests that translators differ in their attitude towards the translation problems they face according to their TC. Her results which were based on the data she collected from retrospective verbalisations, eye-tracking and screen recordings proved that the two translator groups differed in their attitude and treatment of the problems despite their equal awareness of them.

In an interesting work on what makes a translator, Gouadec (2007, pp.156-7) cherishes the aspects of disposition in the answer to the question 'Have I got what it takes to be a translator?' The author presents a true/false checklist or a simple test to those considering taking translation as a job with favourable qualities of a potential translator. In addition to always wanting to do translation, the translator's persistence and attitude are emphasized and are deemed commendable in a number of the test items:

(...) 3. I never give up: I keep trying until I find the answer (...) 5. I can cope with stress and working under pressure (...) 11. I'm good at improvising and I'm not adverse to risk (...) 18. I want to do a job that is constantly challenging (p. 157).

Sebekova (2010) stresses that the 'attitudinal and psychological elements' need to be emphasized in the study of translation models. She thinks that "respective sub-competences and the extent to which they manifest are to a certain extent influenced by the psychological make-up of translators or trainees" (p.40).

5.4 The Current Study of Disposition

5.4.1 Background: As a replication of a process research model by Stuart Campbell (1998) which has elicited its data in a somewhat different way from

the studies that have been mentioned earlier, it is necessary to remind that Campbell has investigated the process of translation through the study of the product. He first introduced his model in 1991 and developed it later in 1998, and he is the only author, to the best of my knowledge, to use the term 'disposition' in an operative manner in TS. The concept may have also been used by other authors (Katz and Raths 1985, p.303, Martínez Melis and Hurtado Albir 2001, p.280; Sebekova, 2010, p.40) under other names such as attitude, persistence, perseverance ...etc. but it was not used so vividly and exclusively in the way Campbell used. His data was derived from examination papers from which he sought to discover the reliability and validity of the tests used for assessing TC. In the early version of his research (1991), he examined 40 translations of an Arabic sentence that was included in a ST used for public examinations of translation from Arabic to English. He ordered the lexical items of the sentence according to their level of difficulty to see the extent to which translators disagree on the rendition of each item (Campbell, 1991, pp.330). In a predominantly error-based analysis of the TT renditions, he categorized these lexical items into six kinds of what he calls 'product phenomena' which he later re-categorized according to the possible processes that might have led to their emergence. The analysis of the results led Campbell to the first version of his TC model (ibid. p.339) which includes two components only:

1. Disposition: The attitudes and psychological qualities that the translator brings to the task which move along two axes: risk-taking vs. prudence and persistence vs. capitulation.
2. Proficiency: This component deals with bilingual skills, and has a developmental dimension. It comprises the three aspects of lexical coding of meaning, global TL competence and lexical transfer.

The more recent version of the model, which Campbell published in 1998, differs from the earlier one in the use of wider data and the inclusion of the additional component of 'monitoring'. This component is not directly based on linguistic knowledge but more related to the translator himself and concerns his ability to monitor his translation output through self-assessment and real-time revision. However, the concern of this chapter is the study of disposition which

is investigated with reference to Campbell's study of the use of word choice and lexical transfers. So, when examining lexis, Campbell bypasses control of the TL and probes into the hidden psychological motivations and dispositions behind lexical choices in translation. Through the examination of data he arrives at some appealing results when he finds out that some translators tend to omit more words from the ST as compared to others who try to translate each part of the ST. He describes these attitudes towards omissions as a matter of persistence as opposed to capitulation. Another exciting result is the striking similarity of some renditions which forms a norm as opposed to the unusual renditions that deviate from the norm. This variation has been accounted for with two disparate attitudes: risk-taking and prudence (Campbell, 1998, p.105). According to Campbell the two axes of persistence vs. capitulation on the one hand, and risk-taking vs. prudence on the other, are responsible for the disposition profile of any translator. This procedure is adopted in the profiling of the translators' disposition in the present study in this chapter. It is worth noting that the data for the current disposition study were taken from the same corpus used to analyze grammatical features. The important contribution of the study is that it seeks to ascertain what happens during the actual process of translation and characterize the different strategies applied by translators through examples. Definitely, through working with empirical data, Campbell offers a coherent model that describes the translator's linguistic skills on the basis of well-defined linguistic and attitudinal parameters.

Given the difficulties and imprecisions regarding determining how to assess disposition or what it exactly means (Ennis, 1994, p.180; McKenna 2009, p.33; and Borke, et al. 2007, p.361), Campbell's choice of this approach to assess disposition is reasonably operative. It is not one of the standard and traditional direct approaches used by educators or by social sciences in the assessment of disposition through testing, for example, and were then criticized for being inappropriate. It is suitable for the situation because it is an indirect research approach that befits assessing the perceptual qualities to which disposition belongs. He attributes capitulation, which shades into the TL competence, to either of two reasons: it may relate to a deficient disposition or to a defective TL competence. Whereas he anticipates that capitulation in translating into L1 can

be attributed to the translator's disposition (overall approach) or his poor SL comprehension (Campbell, 1998, p.161).

As this study investigates disposition in translating into L1, it sets to examine the performance of the participants when they seem to struggle with the translation of STs. It is hypothesized that most of the struggle takes place in the early phase of comprehending the ST which is central, and to a lesser degree, in the choice of lexical items in the latter phase of producing the TT. The aim is to see if they vary considerably in their aptitude to struggle with the ST as some translators insist on translating the whole text through fighting to comprehend new problematic and difficult lexical items, taking risks (Pym, 2010) and trying to produce perfect TTs. Some of the translators may spend most of the time they are allotted in the phase of comprehension, and at the end they find themselves working under considerable pressure in the phase of producing the TT because they run short of time. Some others, on the other hand, surrender easily when faced by translating problems and difficulties, try to evade them, omit difficult lexical items or incline to provide unsuitable and imprecise translations using the first equivalents which come across their minds, even if they are not fully sure of them or not completely satisfied with them. These are all possible scenarios and anticipations which take place in the translation process and resonate with the findings of Campbell's study, but they need to be empirically investigated to see whether what goes on in translating into L2 is different from what goes on in translating into L1 regarding this point.

5.4.2 Data: The current study adopts the same approach that Campbell (1998) has adopted in his investigation of this component. The data that are used in the current investigation of disposition are entirely empirical and include two sets. The first set involves an inventory of the number of lexical items which the participants left untranslated by omitting them in the TT. These untranslated items, which do not appear in the TT, are referred to as omissions. Some participants leave out more items than others and this variation is depicted as 'persistence' (omitting no ST elements or very few of them) when a translator insists on translating the whole text, as opposed to 'capitulation' (omitting many ST elements) when a translator gives up in the face of translation difficulties. Of course, there are degrees of persistence and capitulation as they fall at the opposite ends of a continuum, and there is a cline between them. So,

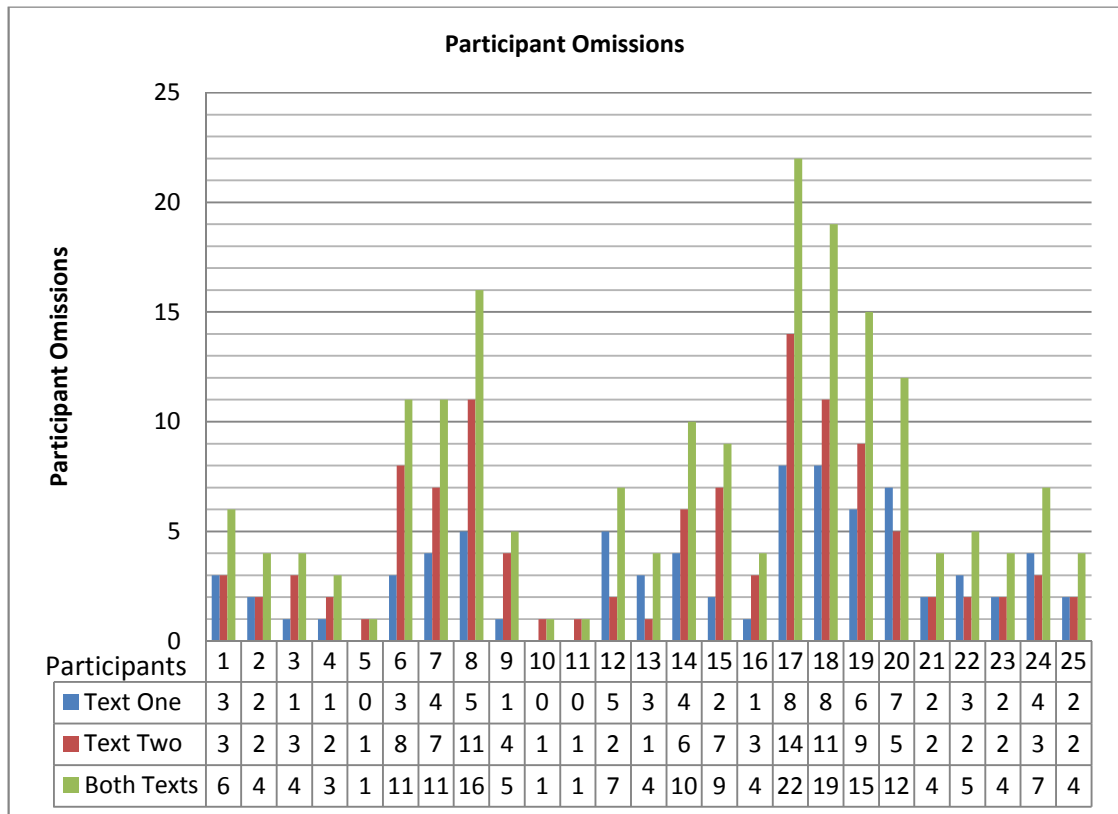
describing a translator as persistent or capitulating in a specific situation must be decided with reference to other members of the group. The second set of data comprises the degrees of dissimilarity among individual participant's renditions reflected by the degree of proximity to the norms of the group or remoteness from them. As some participants perform or make lexical choices closer to the norm, they are regarded 'prudent'. Dissimilarly, participants who produce unusual translations are branded 'risk-takers' (terms were given by Campbell, 1998, p.107).

The data that were entered in the analysis to investigate this topic consisted of the participants' renditions of 50 lexical items that were chosen from the two texts. Twenty-five items were equally selected from each of the two texts prior to the conducting of the experiment. The choice was based on the results of the pilot study where those items were perceived problematic and witnessed variation among the participants in translating them. Consequently, the number of selected renditions is counted by multiplying the number of the items (50) by the number of participants (25) who were asked to translate them to get (1250) renditions (See appendix 5.1 and 5.2). Each participant's renditions were compared with the renditions of the other 24 participants in the sample and judged on the bases of similarity and dissimilarity to yield a total calculation of (30000) judgments. Thus, the data that were obtained and entered in the analysis consist of two sets; (1) omissions and (2) dissimilarity of the compared renditions.

5.4.2.1 Omissions: The first set of the data comprises the number of items that were left untranslated by each participant. Sometimes it is not easy and straightforward to detect the omission as it is possible to move it to different places in the TT. Nevertheless, as the present study investigates specific lexical items whose omission clearly affects the meaning, no considerable difficulty was faced in this regard. Consequently, the inspection of the TTs detected that the number of the untranslated items totals (189) items unevenly distributed on the two texts. There were (77) untranslated items in T1 and (112) items in T2. The percent of the untranslated items represents (15.11%) of the whole renditions which looks considerably high, although it was not possible to decide the degree of its significance as there are no previous studies to resolve to for a standard.

Figure 5.1 below shows the number of the lexical items that were left untranslated by each participant in each text along with the total omissions in both texts:

Figure 5.1 Participant Omissions on Both Texts



The figure clearly shows that omissions on T2 are considerably higher than those of T1. The *mean* of the total omissions of both texts shows that an average of 7.56 out of the 50 selected items were not rendered, and this suggests that some translations may have been affected by the absence of a considerable number of the basic lexical items of both texts. As most of the chosen items were content words one can imagine the gravity of the effect of omitting these items on the meaning of the TTs. However, it is noticed that the participants sharply vary in their omissions. At the time participants 5 and 10 made only one omission each on both texts, participants 18 and 17 made 22 and 19 omissions respectively. An important point here is that the number of omissions seems to be related to the difficulty of the text. Many participants agreed in the retrospective questionnaire that T2 was more difficult to translate

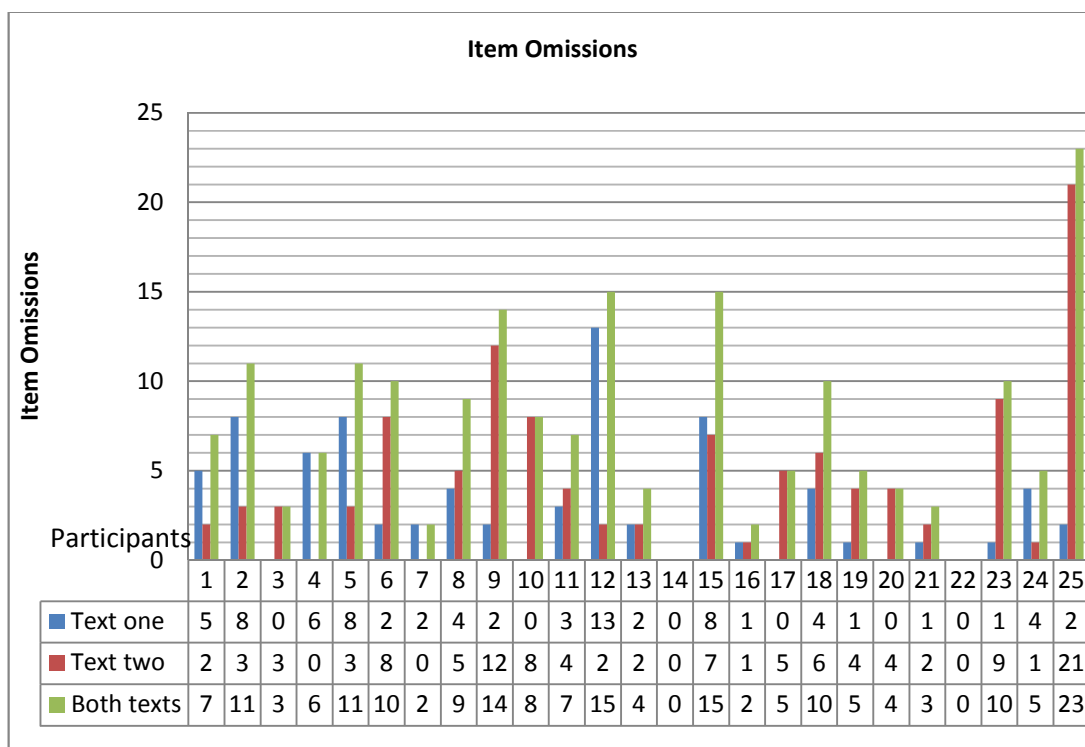
than T1. It is also noticed that the participants (8, 17, & 18) who significantly omitted items almost doubled their omissions in T2 as compared to T1.

Figure 5.1 displays the variation in the omissions among the participants in the whole sample. Three participants (8, 17 and 18) made the highest number of omissions exceeding twice the *mean* of the omissions made by the other participants in the sample. Four others (6, 7, 19, and 20) also omitted considerably above average. The remainder of the participants omitted around or less than average. To disclose the relation between these numbers and the translators' disposition, the statistical analysis of the results has displayed and matched them with the dissimilarity results to locate the different participants on the disposition grid.

It is illustrated that translators displayed considerable variation in their omissions throughout both texts. However, it is plausible to check whether specific items were targeted by the omission more than others. Figure 5.2 below shows the omissions according to item across the two texts. It is obvious that a few items were heavily targeted by omissions in T1. They are items 2, 5, and 15 which together received nearly half the omissions in the whole text. In T2 the number of items which were significantly targeted was larger, with item 25 receiving the highest score followed by items 12, 15, 9, 2, 5, 18, and 24 respectively. Figure 5.2 below illustrates this fact. Two items only (14 and 22) did not prompt any omissions.

5.4.2.2 Dissimilarity among participant renditions (Appendix C.2): The second set of data comprises the dissimilarity in the renditions of the 50 items made by the participants. The renditions of those items were taken from the TTs and tabulated to ease the process of calculation. Each participant's renditions were compared against the renditions made by every other participant. The dissimilarity judgments were based on a choice network where the different renditions produced by the participants of each item were listed together with their frequencies. For example, a source lexical item was differently rendered by different participants but seven translators formally gave a specific rendition;

Figure 5.2 Item Omissions on both Texts



another group of four agreed on another rendition, a third group did not give any rendition and so on (real examples are given in the next section). However, the judgments about similarity/dissimilarity were not made according to form because it is found misleading since many synonyms which are different in form were found correspondent in meaning. Accordingly, the choice of meaning rather than form as a measure was made because form cannot include the different guises in which lexical items are rendered and displayed by the translators. Thus all judgments were taken according to the meaning correspondence of the different renditions whether they were formally similar or not and whether they were exact equivalents or not.

Campbell used the dictionary as the only filter to run his judgments in cases of uncertainty about the meaning of a given alternative. In the present study, judgments on meaning and equivalents in the analysis of TTs were checked against the following three filters:

1. The dictionary was used to limit the meaning of the lexical items under consideration by the context where they appeared. They were checked

against a reliable English-Arabic dictionary; AL-Mawrid by Mounir Baalbaki (2008) which was chosen for this purpose. This dictionary is well-known as one of the most reliable and widely-used dictionaries by translators rendering into Arabic.

2. The researcher had written a professional-level translation of the texts and submitted it to endorsement by three expert translators. The amended version was then presented to the assessing jury to refer to in taking decisions about the similarity/dissimilarity of the renditions. This was supposed to give a guide to the meaning of the lexical items within the context where they appeared in the specific texts.
3. The researcher also resorted to expert native speakers, who are specialists in Arabic, to sift the judgments. This task was completed by a jury of three PhD students, who are native speakers of Arabic with some experience in translation. They were asked to verify whether certain renditions reflect the meaning of the lexical items in the actual contexts. The correspondence among the jury decisions was surprisingly very high except in very few cases which were settled in a final joint session where they were invited to discuss those cases and agree on final decisions. This technique has proved effective, especially, when dealing with rare cases for which the dictionary failed to account in the use of certain words or word combinations.

These filters together helped in eliminating subjective judgments on meaning and subsequently, on textual competence as well (as was explained in the previous chapter).

5.4.2.3 Choice Network Analysis

The aim of designing the choice network is to display how the participants choose from possible alternatives to transfer lexical items and when they agree in their renditions with the contextual ST meaning of an item or deviate from that meaning. Choices which are judged to have corresponding meanings with the original are labelled similar, whereas others which are deviated from the original are labelled different. However, similar choices are looked at as normative choices normally produced by careful and prudent translators while choices that

are deviated from the original meaning are looked at as non-normative and they are usually produced by capitulating and risk-taking translators. The omissions are also treated as non-normative because they are deviant from the norms.

To illustrate the results properly, a network of choices is constructed for each word. The results of each source item are contained in a separate table. The first column in each table indicates the frequency which refers to the number of participants who formally agreed on a specific choice. The second and the third columns, respectively show the source item in Arabic and its transliteration. The right column of the table records the pooled judgments on each item made by the jury. Judgments were labeled with (S) to indicate the similarity of the meaning given by the translator to the contextual meaning of the source item. Whereas they were branded with (D) to tell that the meaning is different from that of the contextual meaning of the source item (See Appendix B for the full choice network results).

The followings are two randomly selected examples, one from each text, to illustrate the procedure. The first item is 'advocacy' which is number two in the list of the selected items of T1. Here 'advocacy' is not rendered by eight participants, while three rendered it into muḥāmā (lawyering), another three into difā' (defence), two into munāṣra (patronizing or supporting), two into nāṣiṭa (active), two into dā'ima (supportive) and one into 'istichāryya (consultative), one into šarīk (partner), one into qānūnī (legal), one into 'atbā' (followers), and one into ḥimāya (protection).

2. Source Item: Advocacy

Frequency.	Renditions	Transliteration	View
8	Omissions	-----	D
3	مُحَامَاة	muḥāmā	S
3	دِفَاع	difā'	S
2	مُنَاصِرَة	munāṣra	S
2	نَاصِطَة	nāṣiṭa	D
2	دَاعِمَة	dā'ima	S
1	إِسْتِشَارِيَّة	'istichāryya	D
1	شَرِيك	Šarīk	D
1	قَانُونِي	Qānūnī	D
1	أَتْبَاع	'atbā'	D
1	حِمَايَة	ḥimāya	S

The second example is 'deportation' which is number seven in the investigated items of T2. This item shows a different pattern from 'advocacy'. More than half of the sample (14 participants) agreed to render it into tarḥīl (deportation), five participants did not render it, one rendered it into al'idānāt walhijra (convictions and immigration), one into al'iklā' (evacuation), one into al'i'āda ilā albald (to send back home), one into almuḡādra (departure), one into annafī (exile or send to exile), and the last into al'istib'ād (expulsion).

7. Source item: Deportation

Frequency	Renditions	Transliteration	View
14	تَرْحِيل	tarḥīl	S
5	Omissions	-----	D
1	الإدانات والهجرة	al'idānāt walhijra	D
1	الإخلاء	al'iklā'	S
1	الإعادة إلى البلد	al'i'āda ilā albald	S
1	المغادرة	almuḡādra	D
1	النفي	annafī	S
1	الإستبعاد	al'istib'ād	S

The procedures of building the choice networks illustrated above were applied to all the 50 chosen items from both texts and they yielded the results displayed in the oncoming tables.

The dissimilarity results among renditions obtained from the comparison between the different participant outputs are displayed in Tables 5.1, 5.2, and 5.3 below. The left column, as well as the upper row, of each table denotes the number of the participant. Then each column to the right shows the number of the dissimilar renditions of the participant whose number appears in the upper row compared to the renditions of the other participants. The same organization is followed in the three tables to respectively display the dissimilarity in T1, T2 and in both texts combined. As the tables show, the number of dissimilar renditions in T1 was (7972), in T2 (8750) and (16722) in both texts

Table 5.1 Text One: Dissimilarity

Par.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	Sum
1	0	11	12	14	9	16	17	17	9	11	15	13	14	9	13	10	16	21	13	12	12	9	12	10	14	309
2	11	0	10	10	9	12	15	19	9	12	9	12	9	5	9	5	11	17	10	17	10	13	8	10	13	265
3	12	10	0	13	10	14	16	19	5	12	10	11	10	7	11	9	16	17	13	14	12	13	13	12	14	293
4	14	10	13	0	13	13	17	18	12	13	15	14	13	10	12	11	13	18	12	19	14	14	13	12	16	329
5	9	9	10	13	0	14	14	21	8	10	12	10	9	10	11	8	16	19	12	14	10	10	10	10	14	283
6	16	12	14	13	14	0	16	21	14	17	15	13	12	12	10	12	16	17	12	18	13	14	12	14	16	343
7	17	15	16	17	14	16	0	20	14	15	18	12	16	16	16	17	16	19	17	16	16	16	15	17	17	388
8	17	19	19	18	21	21	20	0	20	20	20	21	18	17	20	18	18	21	20	16	20	19	21	17	19	460
9	9	9	5	12	8	14	14	20	0	11	10	9	9	9	7	7	15	14	10	12	11	13	11	11	12	262
10	11	12	12	13	10	17	15	20	11	0	13	14	13	12	15	11	16	18	15	18	16	12	13	13	16	336
11	15	9	10	15	12	15	18	20	10	13	0	14	9	10	12	9	17	18	14	17	11	15	10	12	13	318
12	13	12	11	14	10	13	12	21	9	14	14	0	13	11	12	14	15	17	11	12	12	13	11	14	9	307
13	14	9	10	13	9	12	16	18	9	13	9	13	0	10	9	18	16	19	12	14	8	11	8	7	12	289
14	9	5	7	10	10	12	16	17	9	12	10	11	10	0	9	6	12	18	8	14	10	12	9	10	12	258
15	13	9	11	12	11	10	16	20	7	15	12	12	9	9	0	6	15	18	9	15	10	12	9	10	12	282
16	10	5	9	11	8	12	17	18	7	11	9	14	18	6	6	0	14	20	11	15	8	11	8	8	13	269
17	16	11	16	13	16	16	16	18	15	16	17	15	16	12	15	14	0	15	12	17	17	19	15	17	17	371
18	21	17	17	18	19	17	19	21	14	18	18	17	19	18	18	20	15	0	18	18	17	18	18	19	20	434
19	13	10	13	12	12	12	17	20	10	15	14	11	12	8	9	11	12	18	0	13	11	15	11	9	15	303
20	12	17	14	19	14	18	16	16	12	18	17	12	14	14	15	15	17	18	13	0	14	13	15	11	14	358
21	12	10	12	14	10	13	16	20	11	16	11	12	8	10	10	8	17	17	11	14	0	12	4	10	11	289
22	9	13	13	14	10	14	16	19	13	12	15	13	11	12	12	11	19	18	15	13	12	0	11	11	14	320
23	12	8	13	13	10	12	15	21	11	13	10	11	8	9	9	8	15	18	11	15	4	11	0	11	10	278
24	10	10	12	12	10	14	17	17	11	13	12	14	7	10	10	8	17	19	9	11	10	11	11	0	15	290
25	14	13	14	16	14	16	17	19	12	16	13	9	12	12	12	13	17	20	15	14	11	14	10	15	0	338
Sum	309	265	293	329	283	343	388	460	262	336	318	307	289	258	282	269	371	434	303	358	289	320	278	290	338	7972

Table 5.2 Text Two: Dissimilarity

Par	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	Sum	
1	0	8	9	9	9	16	15	20	12	8	11	13	8	12	12	12	19	21	13	18	8	8	11	9	10	291	
2	8	0	11	12	11	10	19	20	11	10	9	12	8	14	13	11	21	21	16	18	10	10	12	10	8	305	
3	9	11	0	11	12	16	15	19	12	13	14	17	12	14	11	12	18	19	15	19	11	11	13	11	14	329	
4	9	12	11	0	10	17	16	20	14	11	12	14	12	15	11	13	22	21	15	19	12	9	12	10	13	330	
5	9	11	12	10	0	17	16	21	12	9	12	13	9	13	14	13	21	20	14	18	9	10	11	10	12	316	
6	16	10	16	17	17	0	13	18	16	16	17	17	17	17	19	19	18	14	16	17	17	17	17	17	17	18	396
7	15	19	15	16	16	13	0	20	16	17	18	18	16	17	19	17	20	17	16	18	12	17	18	16	19	405	
8	20	20	19	20	21	18	20	0	20	21	23	23	22	18	19	21	14	15	16	20	21	20	21	18	19	469	
9	12	11	12	14	12	16	16	20	0	16	14	17	13	13	13	14	18	21	16	21	11	14	15	13	15	357	
10	8	10	13	11	9	16	17	21	16	0	12	11	7	14	14	12	20	21	14	17	10	8	9	7	11	308	
11	11	9	14	12	12	17	18	23	14	12	0	13	11	16	14	12	22	20	17	19	10	12	13	11	11	343	
12	13	12	17	14	13	17	18	23	17	11	13	0	11	16	19	17	19	21	17	17	14	12	14	11	13	369	
13	8	8	12	12	9	17	16	22	13	7	11	11	0	14	13	10	21	20	16	15	8	8	8	6	8	293	
14	12	14	14	15	13	17	17	18	13	14	16	16	14	0	12	13	16	18	11	16	12	11	18	13	17	350	
15	12	13	11	11	14	19	19	19	13	14	14	19	13	12	0	12	16	17	12	16	13	12	16	12	17	346	
16	12	11	12	13	13	19	17	21	14	12	12	17	10	13	12	0	19	19	15	16	11	9	12	10	11	330	
17	19	21	18	22	21	18	20	14	18	20	22	19	21	16	16	19	0	15	13	18	19	19	22	19	20	449	
18	21	21	19	21	20	14	17	15	21	21	20	21	20	18	17	19	15	0	15	17	19	19	20	19	20	449	
19	13	16	15	15	14	16	16	16	16	14	17	17	16	11	12	15	13	15	0	17	15	12	17	15	15	358	
20	18	18	19	19	18	17	18	20	21	17	19	17	15	16	16	16	18	17	17	0	17	15	15	15	18	416	
21	8	10	11	12	9	17	12	21	11	10	10	14	8	12	13	11	19	19	15	17	0	12	12	9	12	304	
22	8	10	11	9	10	17	17	20	14	8	12	12	8	11	12	9	19	19	12	15	12	0	10	7	9	291	
23	11	12	13	12	11	17	18	21	15	9	13	14	8	18	16	12	22	20	17	15	12	10	0	8	8	332	
24	9	10	11	10	10	17	16	18	13	7	11	11	6	13	12	10	19	19	15	15	9	7	8	0	10	286	
25	10	8	14	13	12	18	19	19	15	11	11	13	8	17	17	11	20	20	15	18	12	9	8	10	0	328	
Sum	291	305	329	330	316	396	405	469	357	308	343	369	293	350	346	330	449	449	358	416	304	291	332	286	328	8750	

Table 5.3 Both Texts Dissimilarity

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	Sum
1	0	19	21	23	18	32	32	37	21	19	26	26	22	21	25	22	35	42	26	30	20	17	23	19	24	600
2	19	0	21	22	20	22	34	39	20	22	18	24	17	19	22	16	32	38	26	35	20	23	20	20	21	570
3	21	21	0	24	22	30	31	38	17	25	24	28	22	21	22	21	34	36	28	33	23	24	26	23	28	622
4	23	22	24	0	23	30	33	38	26	24	27	28	25	25	23	24	35	39	27	38	26	23	25	22	29	659
5	18	20	22	23	0	31	30	42	20	19	24	23	18	23	25	21	37	39	26	32	19	20	21	20	26	599
6	32	22	30	30	31	0	29	39	30	33	32	30	29	29	29	31	34	31	28	35	30	31	29	31	34	739
7	32	34	31	33	30	29	0	40	30	32	36	30	32	33	35	34	36	36	33	34	28	33	33	33	36	793
8	37	39	38	38	42	39	40	0	40	41	43	44	40	35	39	39	32	36	36	36	41	39	42	35	38	929
9	21	20	17	26	20	30	30	40	0	27	24	26	22	22	20	21	33	35	26	33	22	27	26	24	27	619
10	19	22	25	24	19	33	32	41	27	0	25	25	20	26	29	23	36	39	29	35	26	20	22	20	27	644
11	26	18	24	27	24	32	36	43	24	25	0	27	20	26	26	21	39	38	31	36	21	27	23	23	24	661
12	26	24	28	28	23	30	30	44	26	25	27	0	24	27	31	31	34	38	28	29	26	25	25	25	22	676
13	22	17	22	25	18	29	32	40	22	20	20	24	0	24	22	28	37	39	28	29	16	19	16	13	20	582
14	21	19	21	25	23	29	33	35	22	26	26	27	24	0	21	19	28	36	19	30	22	23	27	23	29	608
15	25	22	22	23	25	29	35	39	20	29	26	31	22	21	0	18	31	35	21	31	23	24	25	22	29	628
16	22	16	21	24	21	31	34	39	21	23	21	31	28	19	18	0	33	39	26	31	19	20	20	18	24	599
17	35	32	34	35	37	34	36	32	33	36	39	34	37	28	31	33	0	30	25	35	36	38	37	36	37	820
18	42	38	36	39	39	31	36	36	35	39	38	38	39	36	35	39	30	0	33	35	36	37	38	38	40	883
19	26	26	28	27	26	28	33	36	26	29	31	28	28	19	21	26	25	33	0	30	26	27	28	24	30	661
20	30	35	33	38	32	35	34	36	33	35	36	29	29	30	31	31	35	35	30	0	31	28	30	26	32	774
21	20	20	23	26	19	30	28	41	22	26	21	26	16	22	23	19	36	36	26	31	0	24	16	19	23	593
22	17	23	24	23	20	31	33	39	27	20	27	25	19	23	24	20	38	37	27	28	24	0	21	18	23	611
23	23	20	26	25	21	29	33	42	26	22	23	25	16	27	25	20	37	38	28	30	16	21	0	19	18	610
24	19	20	23	22	20	31	33	35	24	20	23	25	13	23	22	18	36	38	24	26	19	18	19	0	25	576
25	24	21	28	29	26	34	36	38	27	27	24	22	20	29	29	24	37	40	30	32	23	23	18	25	0	666
Sum	600	570	622	659	599	739	793	929	619	644	661	676	582	608	628	599	820	883	661	774	593	611	610	576	666	16722

5.4.3 Statistical analysis and interpretation: The aspects of omission and dissimilarity are statistically treated in this study to plot the place of each translator on a disposition grid in comparison to others in the group. It is achieved by creating a dissimilarity matrix to compare each participant's renditions of each word with the renditions of each other participant on a table. Matches and mismatches are counted and a dissimilarity count is made by calculating the proportion of matches and mismatches. The results of the calculations are entered into a dissimilarity matrix. The total dissimilarity count (illustrated below) for each subject is calculated by adding the scores in the rows and columns for each (see Campbell, 1998, p.106).

After that, a disposition grid is established by converting the omission and dissimilarity scores to z-scores and have the results plotted against each other on a scatter gram (Gomez, 2013, p.123). The axes of the scatter gram intersect at the middle of the graph giving four quadrants (Woods et al, 1986, pp.252-254). The disposition of a subject is assessed by examining how the qualities of persistence and risk-taking interact. By locating the subject on the grid we have a powerful and easily interpreted diagnostic of his TC regarding this aspect.

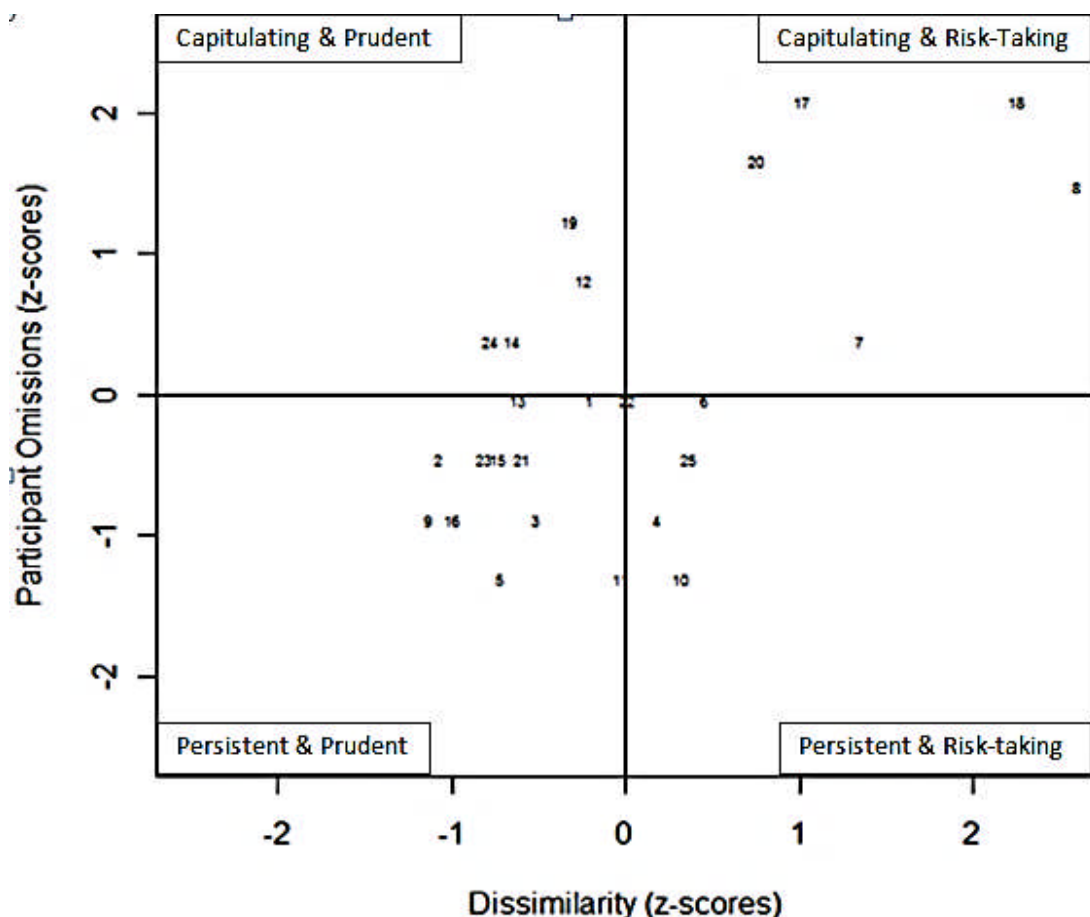
The disposition grid which is formed by the intersection of the two axes of dissimilarity and omission z-scores is helpful in locating the translators on the scatter gram with reference to the focal point in the center of the gram; that is the point where the two axes intersect. The translators are, consequently, grouped into four categories according to the range of the disposition traits they display in their translations of the texts as compared with other members of the group as follows:

- Persistent: a translator with low omissions who tries to translate the whole text and fight the difficulties and problems.
- Capitulating: a translator who omits items from the ST because he is inclined not to face problems and difficulties, and resolves to evade them through omission.
- Prudent: a translator who is usually shrewd and calculating when facing problematic items and mostly tends to avoid risks. This makes him produce mostly standard renditions.

- Risk-taking: a translator who does not give up easily and tends to produce marked equivalents that are more likely unusual ones and are different from the norms or the standard equivalents produced by the other participants.

Table 5.4 displays the dissimilarity matrix for the lexical transfers for T1. Figure 5.3 shows the position of each translator on a disposition grid. For example, we can describe participants 8, 18, 17 and 20 to be the most capitulating and risk-taking at the same time. They lack persistence and tend to delete much and at the same time produce equivalents which are deviated from the group norms.

Figure 5.3 Text One Disposition Grid



Participant 7 comes next in displaying capitulation and risk-taking but slightly tends to show an element of persistence. Participants 19 and 12, and to a lesser degree 24 and 14 are similar to 7 in their capitulation but they differ in having a tendency to be more prudent rather than risk-takers.

The lower half of the grid (below the 0 line) shows that the majority of the participants (16 of them) are located there. Four of them are adjacent to the 0 line (13, 1, 22 and 16) with 22 is precisely located by the focal point. Participants 13 and 1 are both prudent and in the midway between capitulation and persistence. Participant 22 is in the center of the four traits, while participant 6 is located in the middle between capitulation and persistence with a slight tendency to risk-taking. Participants 25 and 4 are almost at a parallel place with 24 and 14 but is located on the opposite side with a tendency to be risk-taking and persistent. A further constellation includes participants 2, 23, 15, 21, 9, 16, 3, 5 and 11 who are all characterized with relatively varying amounts of persistence and prudence. Finally, participant 10 is characterized as the most persistent risk-taking translator in the group.

The Dendrogram in Figure 5.4 shows the distribution of the participants on the grid and identifies the distance between one translator and another. It is possible now to rank the participants according to their degree of disposition.

Figure 5.4 Text One Disposition Dendrogram

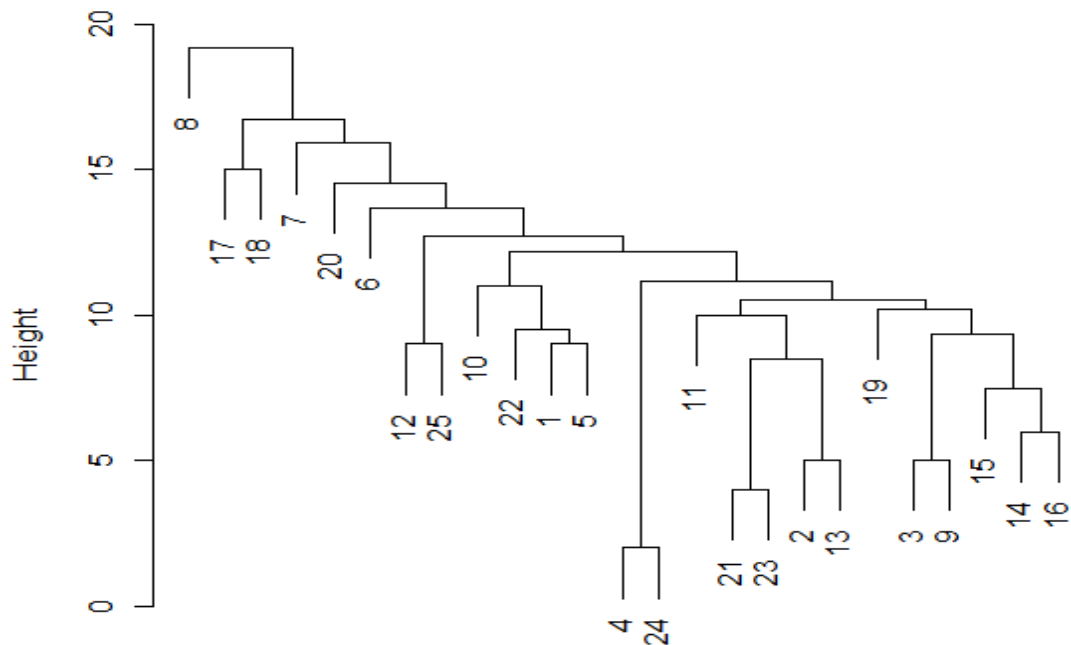


Table 5.4 Text One Dissimilarity Matrix for Lexical Transfers

Participant	V1	V2	V3	V4	V5	V6	V7	V8	V9	V10	V11	V12	V13	V14	V15	V16	V17	V18	V19	V20	V21	V22	V23	V24	V25
1	0	2.1939	2.6558	3.5796	1.2702	4.5033	4.9652	4.9652	1.2702	2.1939	4.0415	3.1177	3.5796	1.2702	3.1177	1.7321	4.5033	6.8127	3.1177	2.6558	2.6558	1.2702	2.6558	1.7321	3.5796
2	2.1939	0	1.7321	1.7321	1.2702	2.6558	4.0415	5.889	1.2702	2.6558	1.2702	2.6558	1.2702	-0.5774	1.2702	-0.5774	2.1939	4.9652	1.7321	4.9652	1.7321	3.1177	0.8083	1.7321	3.1177
3	2.6558	1.7321	0	3.1177	1.7321	3.5796	4.5033	5.889	-0.5774	2.6558	1.7321	2.1939	1.7321	0.3464	2.1939	1.2702	4.5033	4.9652	3.1177	3.5796	2.6558	3.1177	3.1177	2.6558	3.5796
4	3.5796	1.7321	3.1177	0	3.1177	3.1177	4.9652	5.4271	2.6558	3.1177	4.0415	3.5796	3.1177	1.7321	2.6558	2.1939	3.1177	5.4271	2.6558	5.889	3.5796	3.5796	3.1177	2.6558	4.5033
5	1.2702	1.2702	1.7321	3.1177	0	3.5796	3.5796	6.8127	0.8083	1.7321	2.6558	1.7321	1.2702	1.7321	2.1939	0.8083	4.5033	5.889	2.6558	3.5796	1.7321	1.7321	1.7321	1.7321	3.5796
6	4.5033	2.6558	3.5796	3.1177	3.5796	0	4.5033	6.8127	3.5796	4.9652	4.0415	3.1177	2.6558	2.6558	1.7321	2.6558	4.5033	4.9652	2.6558	5.4271	3.1177	3.5796	2.6558	3.5796	4.5033
7	4.9652	4.0415	4.5033	4.9652	3.5796	4.5033	0	6.3509	3.5796	4.0415	5.4271	2.6558	4.5033	4.5033	4.5033	4.9652	4.5033	5.889	4.9652	4.5033	4.5033	4.5033	4.0415	4.9652	4.9652
8	4.9652	5.889	5.889	5.4271	6.8127	6.8127	6.3509	0	6.3509	6.3509	6.3509	6.8127	5.4271	4.9652	6.3509	5.4271	5.4271	6.8127	6.3509	4.5033	6.3509	5.889	6.8127	4.9652	5.889
9	1.2702	1.2702	-0.5774	2.6558	0.8083	3.5796	3.5796	6.3509	0	2.1939	1.7321	1.2702	1.2702	1.2702	0.3464	0.3464	4.0415	3.5796	1.7321	2.6558	2.1939	3.1177	2.1939	2.1939	2.6558
10	2.1939	2.6558	2.6558	3.1177	1.7321	4.9652	4.0415	6.3509	2.1939	0	3.1177	3.5796	3.1177	2.6558	4.0415	2.1939	4.5033	5.4271	4.0415	5.4271	4.5033	2.6558	3.1177	3.1177	4.5033
11	4.0415	1.2702	1.7321	4.0415	2.6558	4.0415	5.4271	6.3509	1.7321	3.1177	0	3.5796	1.2702	1.7321	2.6558	1.2702	4.9652	5.4271	3.5796	4.9652	2.1939	4.0415	1.7321	2.6558	3.1177
12	3.1177	2.6558	2.1939	3.5796	1.7321	3.1177	2.6558	6.8127	1.2702	3.5796	3.5796	0	3.1177	2.1939	2.6558	3.5796	4.0415	4.9652	2.1939	2.6558	2.6558	3.1177	2.1939	3.5796	1.2702
13	3.5796	-0.5774	2.1939	2.1939	4.5033	4.9652	4.9652	4.5033	2.1939	2.6558	1.7321	3.5796	0	1.7321	1.2702	0.8083	4.5033	5.889	2.6558	3.5796	0.8083	2.1939	0.8083	0.3464	2.6558
14	1.2702	1.2702	1.2702	3.1177	5.889	2.6558	4.5033	6.3509	3.1177	3.1177	2.6558	1.2702	2.6558	0	1.2702	-0.1155	2.6558	5.4271	0.8083	3.5796	1.7321	2.6558	1.2702	1.7321	2.6558
15	3.1177	1.2702	2.1939	2.6558	2.1939	1.7321	4.5033	6.3509	0.3464	4.0415	2.6558	2.6558	1.2702	1.2702	0	-0.1155	4.0415	5.4271	1.2702	4.0415	1.7321	2.6558	1.2702	1.7321	2.6558
16	1.7321	-0.5774	1.2702	2.1939	0.8083	2.6558	4.9652	5.4271	0.3464	2.1939	1.2702	3.5796	5.4271	-0.1155	-0.1155	0	3.5796	6.3509	2.1939	4.0415	0.8083	2.1939	0.8083	0.8083	3.1177
17	4.5033	2.1939	4.5033	3.1177	4.5033	4.5033	4.5033	5.4271	4.0415	4.5033	4.9652	4.0415	4.5033	2.6558	4.0415	3.5796	0	4.0415	2.6558	4.9652	4.9652	5.889	4.0415	4.9652	4.9652
18	6.8127	4.9652	4.9652	5.4271	5.889	4.9652	5.889	6.8127	3.5796	5.4271	5.4271	4.9652	5.889	5.4271	5.4271	6.3509	4.0415	0	5.4271	5.4271	4.9652	5.4271	5.4271	5.889	6.3509
19	3.1177	1.7321	3.1177	2.6558	2.6558	2.6558	4.9652	6.3509	1.7321	4.0415	3.5796	2.1939	2.6558	0.8083	1.2702	2.1939	2.6558	5.4271	0	3.1177	2.1939	4.0415	2.1939	1.2702	4.0415
20	2.6558	4.9652	3.5796	5.889	3.5796	5.4271	4.5033	4.5033	2.6558	5.4271	4.9652	2.6558	3.5796	3.5796	4.0415	4.0415	4.9652	5.4271	3.1177	0	3.5796	3.1177	4.0415	2.1939	3.5796
21	2.6558	1.7321	2.6558	3.5796	1.7321	3.1177	4.5033	6.3509	2.1939	4.5033	2.1939	2.6558	0.8083	1.7321	1.7321	0.8083	4.9652	4.9652	2.1939	3.5796	0	2.6558	-1.0392	1.7321	2.1939
22	1.2702	3.1177	3.1177	3.5796	1.7321	3.5796	4.5033	5.889	3.1177	2.6558	4.0415	3.1177	2.1939	2.6558	2.6558	2.1939	5.889	5.4271	4.0415	3.1177	2.6558	0	2.1939	2.1939	3.5796
23	2.6558	0.8083	3.1177	3.1177	1.7321	2.6558	4.0415	6.8127	2.1939	3.1177	1.7321	2.1939	0.8083	1.2702	1.2702	0.8083	4.0415	5.4271	2.1939	4.0415	-1.0392	2.1939	0	2.1939	1.7321
24	1.7321	1.7321	2.6558	-1.963	1.7321	3.5796	4.9652	4.9652	2.1939	3.1177	2.6558	3.5796	0.3464	1.7321	1.7321	0.8083	4.9652	5.889	1.2702	2.1939	1.7321	2.1939	2.1939	0	4.0415
25	3.5796	3.1177	3.5796	4.5033	3.5796	4.5033	4.9652	5.889	2.6558	4.5033	3.1177	1.2702	2.6558	2.6558	2.6558	3.1177	4.9652	6.3509	4.0415	3.5796	2.1939	3.5796	1.7321	4.0415	0

Table 5.5 Text Two Dissimilarity Matrix for lexical Transfers

	V1	V2	V3	V4	V5	V6	V7	V8	V9	V10	V11	V12	V13	V14	V15	V16	V17	V18	V19	V20	V21	V22	V23	V24	V25
1	0	0.9366	1.4049	1.4049	1.4049	4.6829	4.2146	6.5561	2.8098	0.9366	2.3415	3.2781	0.9366	2.8098	2.8098	2.8098	6.0878	7.0244	3.2781	5.6195	0.9366	0.9366	2.3415	1.4049	1.8732
2	0.9366	0	2.3415	2.8098	2.3415	1.8732	6.0878	6.5561	2.3415	1.8732	1.4049	2.8098	0.9366	3.7463	3.2781	2.3415	7.0244	7.0244	4.6829	5.6195	1.8732	1.8732	2.8098	1.8732	0.9366
3	1.4049	2.8098	0	2.3415	2.8098	4.6829	4.2146	6.0878	2.8098	3.2781	3.7463	5.1512	2.8098	3.7463	2.3415	2.8098	5.6195	6.0878	4.2146	6.0878	2.3415	2.3415	3.2781	2.3415	3.7463
4	0.9366	2.3415	2.3415	0	1.8732	5.1512	4.6829	6.5561	3.7463	2.3415	2.8098	3.7463	2.8098	4.2146	2.3415	3.2781	7.4927	7.0244	4.2146	6.0878	2.8098	1.4049	2.8098	1.8732	3.2781
5	0.9366	1.8732	2.8098	1.8732	0	5.1512	4.6829	7.0244	2.8098	1.4049	2.8098	3.2781	1.4049	3.2781	3.7463	3.2781	7.0244	6.5561	3.7463	5.6195	1.4049	1.8732	2.3415	1.8732	2.8098
6	4.6829	6.0878	4.6829	5.1512	5.1512	0	3.2781	5.6195	4.6829	4.6829	5.1512	5.1512	5.1512	5.1512	6.0878	6.0878	5.6195	3.7463	4.6829	5.1512	5.1512	5.1512	5.1512	5.1512	5.6195
7	4.2146	5.6195	4.2146	4.6829	4.6829	3.2781	0	6.5561	4.6829	5.1512	5.6195	5.6195	4.6829	5.1512	6.0878	5.1512	6.5561	5.1512	4.6829	5.6195	2.8098	5.1512	5.6195	4.6829	6.0878
8	6.5561	6.5561	6.0878	6.5561	7.0244	5.6195	6.5561	0	6.5561	7.0244	7.961	7.961	7.4927	5.6195	6.0878	7.0244	3.7463	4.2146	4.6829	6.5561	7.0244	6.5561	7.0244	5.6195	6.0878
9	2.8098	2.3415	2.8098	3.7463	2.8098	4.6829	4.6829	6.5561	0	4.6829	3.7463	5.1512	3.2781	3.2781	3.7463	5.6195	7.0244	4.6829	7.0244	2.3415	3.7463	4.2146	3.2781	4.2146	
10	0.9366	1.8732	3.2781	2.3415	1.4049	4.6829	5.1512	7.0244	4.6829	0	2.8098	2.3415	0.4683	3.7463	3.7463	2.8098	6.5561	7.0244	3.7463	5.1512	1.8732	0.9366	1.4049	0.4683	2.3415
11	2.3415	1.4049	3.7463	2.8098	2.8098	5.1512	5.6195	7.961	3.7463	2.8098	0	3.2781	2.3415	4.6829	3.7463	2.8098	7.4927	6.5561	5.1512	6.0878	1.8732	2.8098	3.2781	2.3415	2.3415
12	3.2781	2.8098	5.1512	3.7463	3.2781	5.1512	5.6195	7.961	5.1512	2.3415	3.2781	0	2.3415	4.6829	6.0878	5.1512	6.0878	7.0244	5.1512	5.1512	3.7463	2.8098	3.7463	2.3415	3.2781
13	0.9366	0.9366	2.8098	2.8098	1.4049	5.1512	4.6829	7.4927	3.2781	0.4683	2.3415	2.3415	0	3.7463	3.2781	1.8732	7.0244	6.5561	4.6829	4.2146	0.9366	0.9366	0.9366	0	0.9366
14	2.8098	3.7463	3.7463	4.2146	3.2781	5.1512	5.1512	5.6195	3.2781	3.7463	4.6829	4.6829	3.7463	0	2.8098	3.2781	4.6829	5.6195	2.3415	4.6829	2.8098	2.3415	5.6195	3.2781	5.1512
15	2.8098	3.2781	2.3415	2.3415	3.7463	6.0878	6.0878	6.0878	3.2781	3.7463	3.7463	6.0878	3.2781	2.8098	0	2.8098	4.6829	5.1512	2.8098	4.6829	3.2781	2.8098	4.6829	2.8098	5.1512
16	2.8098	2.3415	2.8098	3.2781	3.2781	6.0878	5.1512	7.0244	3.7463	2.8098	2.8098	5.1512	1.8732	3.2781	2.8098	0	6.0878	6.0878	4.2146	4.6829	2.3415	1.4049	2.8098	1.8732	2.3415
17	6.0878	7.0244	5.6195	7.4927	7.0244	5.6195	6.5561	3.7463	5.6195	6.5561	7.4927	6.0878	7.0244	4.6829	4.6829	6.0878	0	4.2146	3.2781	5.6195	6.0878	6.0878	7.4927	6.0878	6.5561
18	7.0244	7.0244	6.0878	7.0244	6.5561	3.7463	5.1512	4.2146	7.0244	7.0244	6.5561	7.0244	6.5561	5.6195	5.1512	6.0878	4.2146	0	4.2146	5.1512	6.0878	6.0878	6.5561	6.0878	6.5561
19	3.2781	4.6829	4.2146	4.2146	3.7463	4.6829	4.6829	4.6829	4.6829	3.7463	5.1512	5.1512	4.6829	2.3415	2.8098	4.2146	3.2781	4.2146	0	5.1512	4.2146	2.8098	5.1512	4.2146	4.2146
20	5.6195	5.6195	6.0878	6.0878	5.6195	5.1512	5.6195	6.5561	7.0244	5.1512	6.0878	5.1512	4.2146	4.6829	4.6829	4.6829	5.6195	5.1512	5.1512	0	5.1512	4.2146	4.2146	4.2146	5.6195
21	0.9366	1.8732	2.3415	2.8098	1.4049	5.1512	2.8098	7.0244	2.3415	1.8732	1.8732	3.7463	0.9366	2.8098	3.2781	2.3415	6.0878	6.0878	4.2146	5.1512	0	2.8098	2.8098	1.4049	2.8098
22	0.9366	1.8732	2.3415	1.4049	1.8732	5.1512	5.1512	6.5561	3.7463	0.9366	2.8098	2.8098	0.9366	2.3415	2.8098	1.4049	6.0878	6.0878	2.8098	4.2146	2.8098	0	1.8732	0.4683	1.4049
23	2.3415	2.8098	3.2781	2.8098	2.3415	5.1512	5.6195	7.0244	4.2146	1.4049	3.2781	3.7463	0.9366	5.6195	4.6829	2.8098	7.4927	6.5561	5.1512	4.2146	2.8098	1.8732	0	0.9366	0.9366
24	1.4049	1.8732	2.3415	1.8732	1.8732	5.1512	4.6829	5.6195	3.2781	0.4683	2.3415	2.3415	0	3.2781	2.8098	1.8732	6.0878	6.0878	4.2146	4.2146	1.4049	0.4683	0.9366	0	1.8732
25	1.8732	0.9366	3.7463	3.2781	2.8098	5.6195	6.0878	6.0878	4.2146	2.3415	2.3415	3.2781	0.9366	5.1512	5.1512	2.3415	6.5561	6.5561	4.2146	5.6195	2.8098	1.4049	0.9366	1.8732	0

Table 5.5 above displays the dissimilarity results of T2, while Figure 5.5 below illustrates the position of each participant on the disposition grid. It is clear that in the upper part of the grid, participants 17, 8, and 18 are placed at the top right corner which means that they are the most capitulating and risk-taking translators. Participants 6, 19, 7, and 20 come next with less capitulation and risk-taking than the previous three. Participant 12 is situated exactly on the line between prudence and risk-taking, very close to 15 which only differs in having a very slight touch of prudence. However, the lower part shows a somehow different pattern, which is similar to the pattern seen in the grid of T1.

In the quadrant of persistence and risk-taking, two participants only are found. The first one is number 9 who is situated very closely below the focal point of the grid and the nearest to it. The other one is number 12 who is also not that far from the focal point. In the lower left quadrant of the grid a constellation of 14 participants are bunching together with very small spaces between one another. They are all assembled at the upper right corner of the quadrant at relatively short distances from the focal point. Nearest to the focal point are participants 3 and 16 followed by 4, 23, 25 and 11. They are almost adjacent to the virtual line between prudence and risk-taking. Towards the left and the center of the quadrant eight participants assemble closely. They are 21, 2, 24, 1, 5, 22, 10 and 13.

Two general impressions can be made from the results of both texts in that:

- Capitulation is more related to risk-taking than prudence and that persistence is more related to prudence. A look at the plots shows that most of the capitulating participants are risk-takers: participants 8, 18, 17, 20 and 7 in T1 and 17, 8, 18, 19, 6, and 7 in T2. Risk-taking decreases with the decrease of capitulation as with participants 20 and 7 in T1 and 12 and 15 in T2. On the other hand, persistent participants are mostly prudent and assemble in a restricted area in the lower left quadrant which contains persistence and prudence. This is exemplified by participants 5, 11, 9, 16, 3, and 2 in T1 and 13, 10, 5, 11, 22, and 23 in T2.
- Similarly, the assemblage of the participants in noticeable patterns suggests the homogeneity of the sample and the striking similarity among the majority of the participants.

Figure 5.5 Text Two Disposition Grid

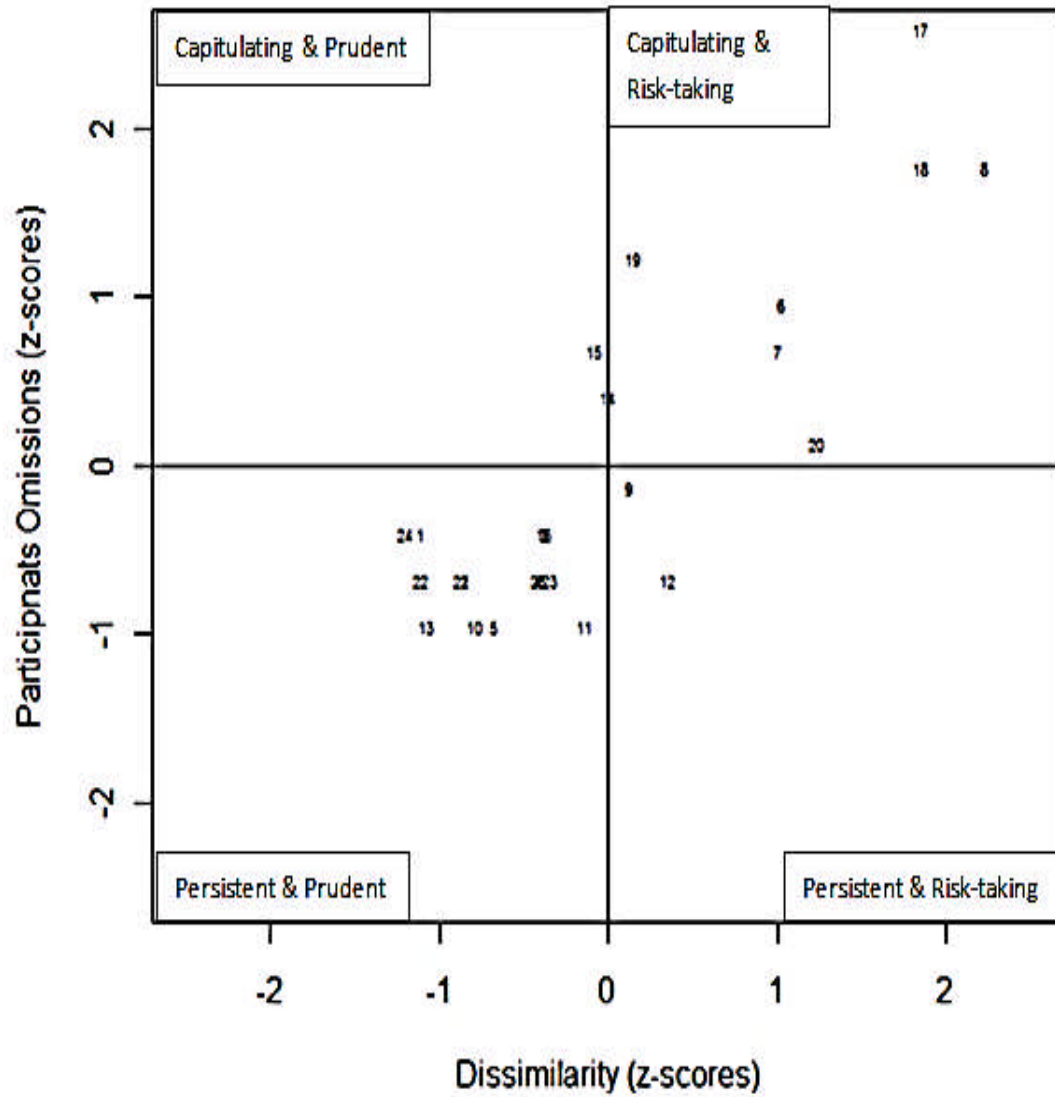
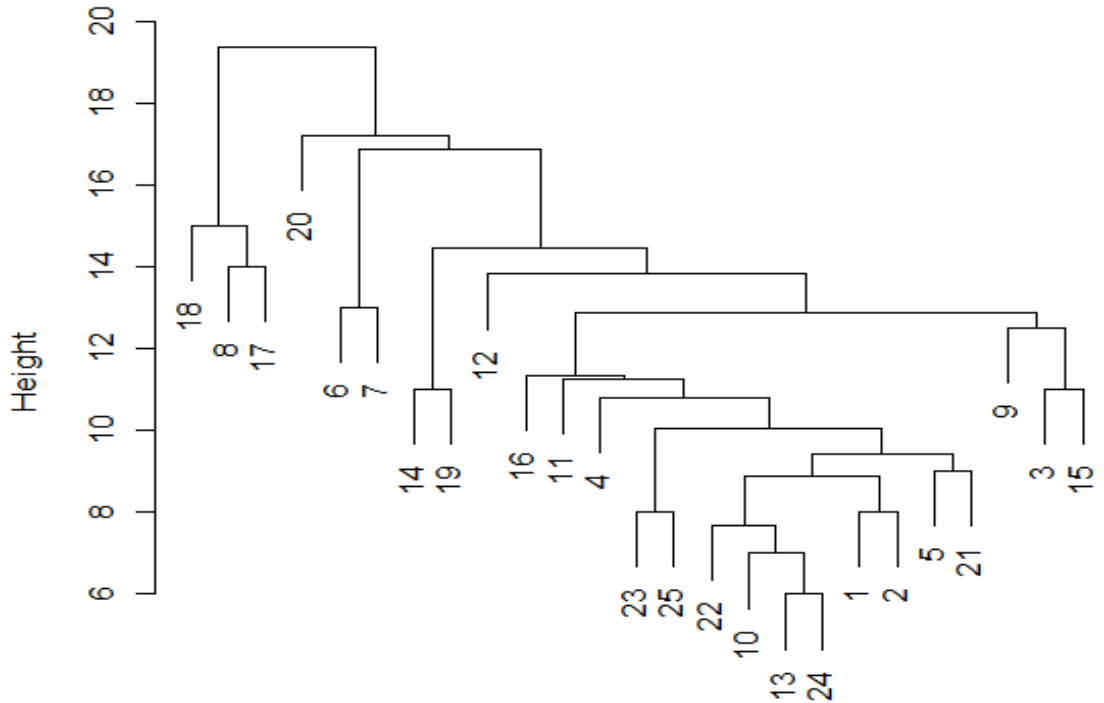


Figure 5.6 below is a dendrogram which clearly displays the distribution of the participants according to their height on the disposition grid.

Figure 5.6 Text Two Disposition Dendrogram



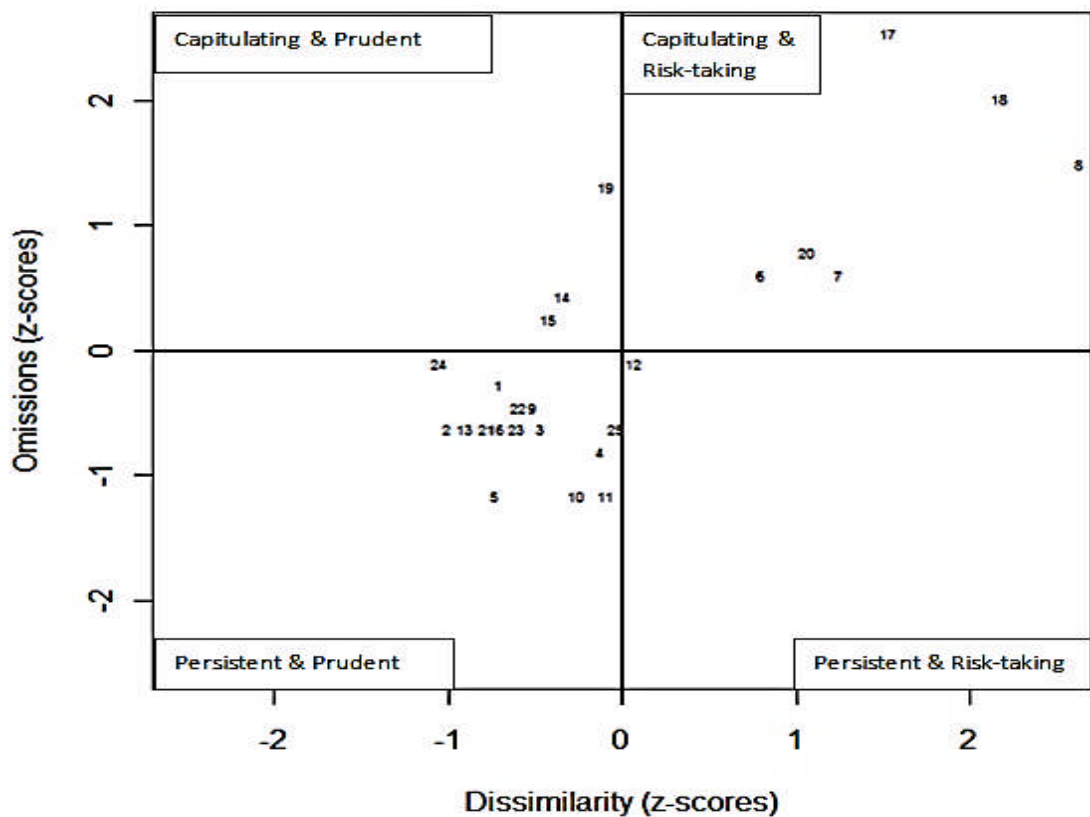
The dissimilarity results of the two texts together combined in a matrix did not show more than very slight shifts in the participant's positions on the disposition grid in comparison with the grids of each of the two texts separately treated. These shifts can be attributed partly to the effect of the omission results which vary for the two texts, and partly to the difference in the performance of the participants as a result of the difference in the level of difficulty of the two texts. Table 5.6 shows the dissimilarity matrix of the lexical transfers on both texts.

Table 5.6 Both Texts Dissimilarity Matrix of Lexical Transfers

Participan	V1	V2	V3	V4	V5	V6	V7	V8	V9	V10	V11	V12	V13	V14	V15	V16	V17	V18	V19	V20	V21	V22	V23	V24	V25
1	0	2.1229	2.7761	3.4293	1.7963	6.3687	6.3687	8.0017	2.7761	2.1229	4.4091	4.4091	3.1027	2.7761	4.0825	3.1027	7.3485	9.6347	4.4091	5.7155	2.4495	1.4697	3.4293	2.1229	3.7559
2	2.1229	0	2.7761	3.1027	2.4495	3.1027	7.0219	8.6549	2.4495	3.1027	1.7963	3.7559	1.4697	2.1229	3.1027	1.1431	6.3687	8.3283	4.4091	7.3485	2.4495	3.4293	2.4495	2.4495	2.7761
3	2.7761	3.1027	0	3.7559	3.1027	5.7155	6.0421	8.3283	1.4697	4.0825	3.7559	5.0623	3.1027	2.7761	3.1027	2.7761	7.0219	7.6751	5.0623	6.6953	3.4293	3.7559	4.4091	3.4293	5.0623
4	3.1027	2.7761	3.7559	0	3.4293	5.7155	6.6953	8.3283	4.4091	3.7559	4.7357	5.0623	4.0825	4.0825	3.4293	3.7559	7.3485	8.6549	4.7357	8.3283	4.4091	3.4293	4.0825	3.1027	5.3889
5	1.4697	2.1229	3.1027	3.4293	0	6.0421	5.7155	9.6347	2.4495	2.1229	3.7559	3.4293	1.7963	3.4293	4.0825	2.7761	8.0017	8.6549	4.4091	6.3687	2.1229	2.4495	2.7761	2.4495	4.4091
6	6.3687	6.0421	5.7155	5.7155	6.0421	0	5.3889	8.6549	5.7155	6.6953	6.3687	5.7155	5.3889	5.3889	5.3889	6.0421	7.0219	6.0421	5.0623	7.3485	5.7155	6.0421	5.3889	6.0421	7.0219
7	6.3687	6.6953	6.0421	6.6953	5.7155	5.3889	0	8.9815	5.7155	6.3687	7.6751	5.7155	6.3687	6.6953	7.3485	7.0219	7.6751	7.6751	6.6953	7.0219	5.0623	6.6953	6.6953	6.6953	7.6751
8	8.0017	8.6549	8.3283	8.3283	9.6347	8.6549	8.9815	0	8.9815	9.3081	9.9613	10.2879	8.9815	7.3485	8.6549	8.6549	6.3687	7.6751	7.6751	7.6751	9.3081	8.6549	9.6347	7.3485	8.3283
9	2.7761	2.4495	1.4697	4.4091	2.4495	5.7155	5.7155	8.9815	0	4.7357	3.7559	4.4091	3.1027	3.1027	2.4495	2.7761	6.6953	7.3485	4.4091	6.6953	3.1027	4.7357	4.4091	3.7559	4.7357
10	2.1229	3.1027	4.0825	3.7559	2.1229	6.6953	6.3687	9.3081	4.7357	0	4.0825	4.0825	2.4495	4.4091	5.3889	3.4293	7.6751	8.6549	5.3889	7.3485	4.4091	2.4495	3.1027	2.4495	4.7357
11	4.4091	1.7963	3.7559	4.7357	3.7559	6.3687	7.6751	9.9613	3.7559	4.0825	0	4.7357	2.4495	4.4091	4.4091	2.7761	8.6549	8.3283	6.0421	7.6751	2.7761	4.7357	3.4293	3.4293	3.7559
12	4.4091	3.7559	5.0623	5.0623	3.4293	5.7155	5.7155	10.2879	4.4091	4.0825	4.7357	0	3.7559	4.7357	6.0421	6.0421	7.0219	8.3283	5.0623	5.3889	4.4091	4.0825	4.0825	4.0825	3.1027
13	3.1027	0.1633	3.4293	3.4293	4.0825	7.0219	6.6953	8.3283	3.7559	2.1229	2.7761	4.0825	0	3.7559	3.1027	1.7963	8.0017	8.6549	5.0623	5.3889	1.1431	2.1229	1.1431	0.1633	2.4495
14	2.7761	3.4293	3.4293	5.0623	6.3687	5.3889	6.6953	8.3283	4.4091	4.7357	5.0623	4.0825	4.4091	0	2.7761	2.1229	5.0623	7.6751	2.1229	5.7155	3.1027	3.4293	4.7357	3.4293	5.3889
15	4.0825	3.1027	3.1027	3.4293	4.0825	5.3889	7.3485	8.6549	2.4495	5.3889	4.4091	6.0421	3.1027	2.7761	0	1.7963	6.0421	7.3485	2.7761	6.0421	3.4293	3.7559	4.0825	3.1027	5.3889
16	3.1027	1.1431	2.7761	3.7559	2.7761	6.0421	7.0219	8.6549	2.7761	3.4293	2.7761	6.0421	5.0623	2.1229	1.7963	0	6.6953	8.6549	4.4091	6.0421	2.1229	2.4495	2.4495	1.7963	3.7559
17	7.3485	6.3687	7.0219	7.3485	8.0017	7.0219	7.6751	6.3687	6.6953	7.6751	8.6549	7.0219	8.0017	5.0623	6.0421	6.6953	0	5.7155	4.0825	7.3485	7.6751	8.3283	8.0017	7.6751	8.0017
18	9.6347	8.3283	7.6751	8.6549	8.6549	6.0421	7.6751	7.6751	7.3485	8.6549	8.3283	8.3283	8.6549	7.6751	7.3485	8.6549	5.7155	0	6.6953	7.3485	7.6751	8.0017	8.3283	8.3283	8.9815
19	4.4091	4.4091	5.0623	4.7357	4.4091	5.0623	6.6953	7.6751	4.4091	5.3889	6.0421	5.0623	5.0623	2.1229	2.7761	4.4091	4.0825	6.6953	0	5.7155	4.4091	4.7357	5.0623	3.7559	5.7155
20	5.7155	7.3485	6.6953	8.3283	6.3687	7.3485	7.0219	7.6751	6.6953	7.3485	7.6751	5.3889	5.3889	5.7155	6.0421	6.0421	7.3485	7.3485	5.7155	0	6.0421	5.0623	5.7155	4.4091	6.3687
21	2.4495	2.4495	3.4293	4.4091	2.1229	5.7155	5.0623	9.3081	3.1027	4.4091	2.7761	4.4091	1.1431	3.1027	3.4293	2.1229	7.6751	7.6751	4.4091	6.0421	0	3.7559	1.1431	2.1229	3.4293
22	1.4697	3.4293	3.7559	3.4293	2.4495	6.0421	6.6953	8.6549	4.7357	2.4495	4.7357	4.0825	2.1229	3.4293	3.7559	2.4495	8.3283	8.0017	4.7357	5.0623	3.7559	0	2.7761	1.7963	3.4293
23	3.4293	2.4495	4.4091	4.0825	2.7761	5.3889	6.6953	9.6347	4.4091	3.1027	3.4293	4.0825	1.1431	4.7357	4.0825	2.4495	8.0017	8.3283	5.0623	5.7155	1.1431	2.7761	0	2.1229	1.7963
24	2.1229	2.4495	3.4293	-0.1633	2.4495	6.0421	6.6953	7.3485	3.7559	2.4495	3.4293	4.0825	0.1633	3.4293	3.1027	1.7963	7.6751	8.3283	3.7559	4.4091	2.1229	1.7963	2.1229	0	4.0825
25	3.7559	2.7761	5.0623	5.3889	4.4091	7.0219	7.6751	8.3283	4.7357	4.7357	3.7559	3.1027	2.4495	5.3889	5.3889	3.7559	8.0017	8.9815	5.7155	6.3687	3.4293	3.4293	1.7963	4.0825	0

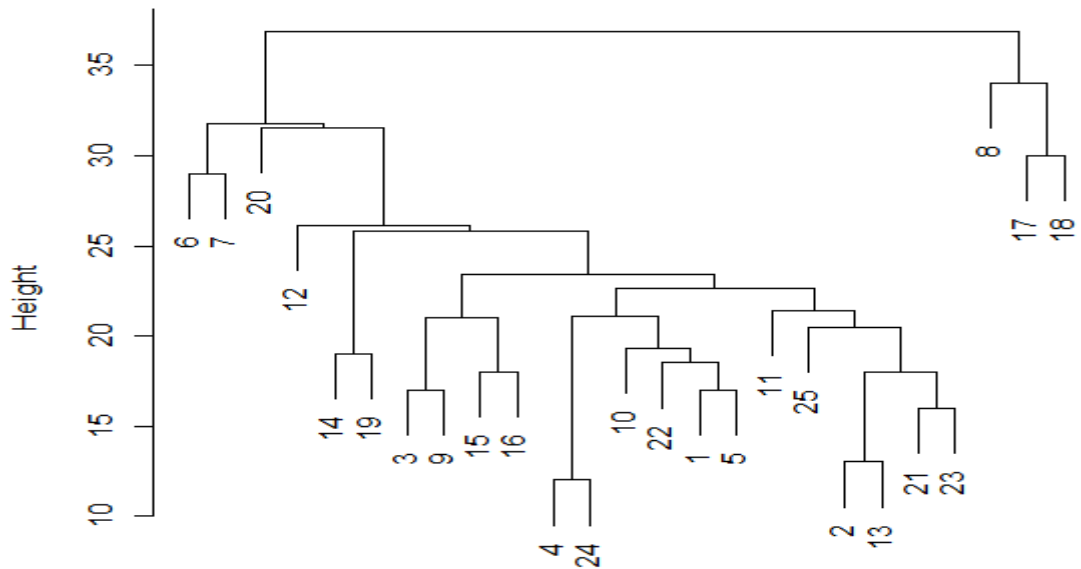
The disposition grid in Figure 5.7 below shows that the participants are unevenly distributed on the four quadrants which describe the translator's disposition traits. In the upper left quadrant there are only three participants (19, 14 and 15) located to qualify as capitulating and prudent. In the upper right quadrant there are six participants (8, 18, 17, 7, 20 & 6) spotted in the zone of capitulation and risk-taking. Surprisingly, in the lower right quadrant which indicates persistence and risk-taking, only one participant is found and is almost very close to the focal point which means that he does not have much of the attributes of risk-taking and persistence. However, the largest noticed constellation is found in the lower left quadrant where 15 participants bunch together densely in the upper right corner of the quadrant adjacent to the focal point. They are to be described as persistent and prudent translators, though their close position near the focal point indicates that they do not possess a high level of those attributes. The grid below shows the distribution of the participants on the disposition grid.

Figure 5.7 Both Texts Disposition Grid



The following dendrogram clearly illustrates the distribution of the participants over the disposition grid and their clustering groups across the assessment quadrants.

Figure 5.8 Both Texts Disposition Dendrogram



5.5 Disposition Evaluative Scale

The participants' disposition has been illustrated above in the three disposition grids and described behaviorally to show the differences among the participants in the group. In the attempt to more objectivize the judgements, the participants have been statistically ranked according to their translation disposition which results from the intersection between the z-scores of participant omissions and dissimilarity. The results of T1 disposition are displayed in table 5.7 below:

Table 5.7 Text One: Disposition Ranking

Rank	Participant	Omission z-scores	Dissimilarity z-scores
1	5	0	0.170486
2	11	0	1.212421
3	10	0	2.117316
4	9	0.179352	0
5	16	0.179352	0.018934
6	3	0.179352	0.37149
7	4	0.179352	1.735543

8	2	0.717409	0.003481
9	23	0.717409	0.098973
10	15	0.717409	0.154606
11	21	0.717409	0.281855
12	25	0.717409	2.233231
13	13	1.613916	0.261325
14	1	1.613916	0.854146
15	22	1.613916	1.30074
16	6	1.613916	2.536693
17	24	2.869297	0.125245
18	14	2.869297	0.22269
19	7	2.869297	6.138502
20	12	4.482959	0.782871
21	8	4.482959	15.15856
22	19	6.455665	0.649958
23	20	8.787074	3.563411
24	17	11.47651	4.593735
25	18	11.47651	11.4386

The results revealed that translators may constellate in some areas of omission but they scatter in dissimilarity. So, even if they have similar values in one dimension they can be discriminated by the disparity in the other. For example, participants 5, 11, and 10 have the same value in omission but different values in dissimilarity to help in ranking their disposition. The same is true about the other constellations highlighted with different colors in the table. However, the correlation between the dimensions of omission and dissimilarity has been found strong as illustrated below:

Correlations

Aspect		Omissions	Dissimilarity
Omissions vs Dissimilarit	Pearson Correlation	1	0.558**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	-	0.004
	N	25	25
Dissimilarity vs Omissions	Pearson Correlation	0.558**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.004	-
	N	25	25

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Similarly, the results of T2 show almost a similar pattern and many translators kept the same or a comparable rank such as participants 5, 11, 10, 4, 2, 23, 18, 17, 18, 19, and 20, whereas, some participants extensively departed their rank such as participant 13, 21, 16, 22, and 9.

Table 5.8 Text Two: Disposition Ranking

Rank	Participant	Omission z-scores	Dissimilarity z-scores
1	13	0	0.017266
2	10	0	0.170404
3	5	0	0.27594
4	11	0	1.143402
5	22	0.074038	0.008798
6	21	0.074038	0.114041
7	2	0.074038	0.127092
8	4	0.074038	0.620786
9	25	0.074038	0.620786
10	23	0.074038	0.744769
11	12	0.074038	2.42456
12	24	0.296045	0
13	1	0.296045	0.008798
14	3	0.296045	0.68145
15	16	0.296045	0.68145
16	9	0.666182	1.774224
17	20	1.184397	5.947745
18	14	1.850416	1.44144
19	15	2.66473	1.266975
20	7	2.66473	4.900468
21	6	3.62712	4.98361
22	19	4.737152	1.82439
23	18	7.402208	9.350141
24	8	7.402208	11.78549
25	17	12.50966	9.350141

The correlation between the two dimensions has been found very strong as can be seen below:

Correlations

Aspect		Omissions z-scores	Dissimilarity z-scores
Omissions	Pearson Correlation	1	0.854**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	-	<.001
	N	25	25
Dissimilarity	Pearson Correlation	0.854**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	<.001	
	N	25	25

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The combination of the results of both texts show minor shifts in the ranking of the different participants as illustrated in table 5.9 below:

Table 5.9 Disposition Ranking: Both Texts

Rank	Participant	Omission z-scores	Dissimilarity z-scores
1	5	0	0.099162
2	10	0	0.627898
3	11	0	0.931418
4	4	0.124327	0.8547
5	2	0.279735	0.001648
6	13	0.279735	0.023226
7	21	0.279735	0.07524
8	16	0.279735	0.112359
9	23	0.279735	0.199809
10	3	0.279735	0.335357
11	25	0.279735	1.032053
12	22	0.497307	0.20894
13	9	0.497307	0.289875
14	1	0.777042	0.119301
15	24	1.118941	0
16	12	1.118941	1.248806
17	15	1.989228	0.396774
18	14	2.517617	0.505663
19	6	3.108169	3.418801
20	7	3.108169	5.271616
21	20	3.760884	4.465192
22	19	6.092011	0.931418
23	8	6.99338	13.59987
24	18	10.07047	10.37098
25	17	13.70703	6.658464

The correlation between the two dimensions is found to be very strong (0.770) at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Correlations

Aspect		Omission z-scores	Dissimilarity z-scores
Omissions	Pearson Correlation	1	0.770**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		<.001
	N	25	25
Dissimilarity	Pearson Correlation	0.770**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	<.001	
	N	25	25

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The ranking will be used in the composite profiling of individual participants TC by adding it to the scores of the participants on textual competence and monitoring.

5.6 Conclusion of the Study of Disposition

The chapter has opened with an attempt to define the term 'disposition' and limit its meaning in TS by first surveying the meaning of the term in the TS sister fields of psychology and education where the term is relevantly used. The survey has shown that the nature of disposition and its relationship to knowledge, skills and proficiency are very complicated, obscure and indirect. For the purposes of the present study, it is decided to deal with it as an intentional learned habit or complex of habits that can be taught, learned and assessed. The notion that some dispositions are innate or inborn is practically discarded in the present investigation, although it is not theoretically entirely denied. This study is not interested in probing the origins and roots of disposition, but rather interested in investigating a current state. That is why studying the notion of innateness is not within the scope of the study. Nonetheless, disposition cannot be entirely directly assessed because it is composed of unobservable traits that are evidenced through forms of behavior and output. Thus, it can be assumed that Campbell is right in choosing an indirect method to assess disposition in TC through investigating specific features in the participants' product.

Apparently, the type of disposition that is closely related to the study of translation process is the intellectual type (Fowler and Haughy, 2007: 2). It comprises attributes and aptitudes that are required in translating such as anticipation, problem solving, relationship inferring, investigating and persistence.

As the present study is a replication of an earlier one it has adopted a similar method of data elicitation and also a similar method of investigating the process through the study of the product. So the results of the investigation reported in this chapter correspond with Campbell's attempt to assess the dimensions of disposition and they allow placing the participants in specific places according to the quantity they possess of those dimensions. Those assessments will be used later in chapter seven to profile the TC of each translator by integrating the

results of disposition with the results of the other two components of 'textual competence' and 'monitoring'. It is worth noting, however, that the same data categorized in the choice network were used in the previous chapter to investigate how the participants deploy the lexical-choice strategies that are open to them in building their texts.

Chapter Six

Translation Monitoring: The Self-assessment Study

6.1 Overview

This chapter deals with **Self-assessment** as the first of two segments which constitute translation monitoring. The second segment is real-life revision which is investigated in Chapter Seven. They both make the third component in Campbell's TC model. Campbell admits that he has studied translation monitoring for reasons different from those of the other two components of his model; textual competence and disposition. In fact, the last two components were studied because of the need for a "general model to underpin the teaching and learning of translation" (Campbell, 1998, p.126), whereas the study of translation monitoring was motivated by a purely practical drive. As Campbell explains, it was motivated by the difficulty of convincing students who fail assignments about their real abilities:

(...) they often expressed inordinate surprise; some students seemed to think they were much better translators than they really were. In investigating the problem, I was led to the conclusion that here was another facet of translation competence (ibid, p.126).

In addition, Campbell confesses that a major problem he faced in studying this component was the fact that it is not 'theoretically underpinned'. He was at pains to mention it, and stresses that his study of this component owes nothing to proposals of monitoring in the context of language acquisition and cognitive psychology, such as Krashen (1977) and O'Malley and Chamot (1990). Thus, Campbell's study is based on purely empirical evidence derived from empirically investigating this problem in particular (ibid, p.153).

The current study of monitoring competence proceeds in almost the same approach Campbell adopted. It includes two dimensions: self-assessment and real-time editing. ('Editing' is Campbell's term which is replaced by revision in the current study). The first dimension refers to the students' general assessment of their own ability to translate and how it relates to the other

components of TC. So, Campbell assumes that their awareness of the quality of their output (self-assessment) can be proposed as a relevant factor in the characterization of TC and, consequently, one of its indicators. This dimension is empirically measured by the responses to a call addressed to the participants to self-assess their output directly after translating each text, as part of the experiment that is carried out. The results of these assessments, then, will be correlated with the independent measure of the tutor's general assessment of the overall and cumulative TC as observed throughout teaching the participants.

6.2 Definition

The term 'self-assessment' is defined by the *Oxford English Dictionary* as the "assessment or evaluation of oneself or one's actions, attitudes, or performance". Similarly, it is defined by the *Oxford US English Dictionary* as the:

assessment or evaluation of oneself or one's actions and attitudes, in particular, of one's performance at a job or learning task considered in relation to an objective standard.

Yet, 'self-assessment' is a term that is widely used in English in almost all fields of life when judgments are required or made by a person about issues concerning him, his actions and his performance of tasks. The sense in which this term is used in the present study differs from the general and broader one mentioned above. It is limited to the one used in learning and teaching, especially in language and translation teaching and learning. Studies about self-assessment in TS will be reviewed after defining and outlining self-assessment in teaching and learning in general.

Generally speaking, self-assessment in teaching and learning is a relatively new concept that is applied and practiced in the processes of learning and teaching at large. It is defined by Boud (1991, cited by Mills and Glover 2007, p.2) as:

the involvement of students in identifying standards and/or criteria to apply to their work, and making judgments about the extent to which they have met these criteria and standards.

Mills and Glover agree to this definition and suggest that a student's involvement in the activity of self-assessment develops his reflection and analysis abilities of both his work and the learning outcomes.

Similarly, Blanche and Merino (1989, p.313) define self-assessment as the information about the learners provided by the learners themselves, about their abilities, the progress they think they are making and what they think they can or cannot do yet with what they have learned in a course. While Coronado-Aliegro (2008, pp.1-3) relates self-assessment to what he calls 'self-efficacy', and reflects that self-assessment is basically the feeling of mastery which the learner develops over a given task that he performs. Self-efficacy, for him, comes out of the learner's sense of achievement founded on data on self-assessment.

Harris and McCann (1994, p.36) describe the concept of self-assessment in a wider prospect and define it as:

(...) useful information about students' expectations and needs, their problems and worries, how they feel about their own [learning] process, their reactions to the materials and methods being used, what they think about the course in general (...).

The interesting point here is that monitoring of the learning process in formative assessment and feedback help to establish self-regulation in the learners which positively affects their learning:

[in] practice, self-regulation is manifested in the active monitoring and regulation of a number of different learning processes: e.g. the setting of, and orientation towards, learning goals; the strategies used to achieve goals; the management of resources; the effort exerted; reactions to external feedback; the products produced (ibid.).

Leniski et al (2006, p.32) consider self-assessment, along with other procedures such as observations, journals, and portfolios, as one of the basic instruments to assess language learners' progress, especially when they 'self-monitor' their performance tasks. Similarly, Gardner as early as 1999 assumes that self-assessment is an effective tool in autonomous learning: "It can be used both as a testing device leading to accreditation and as a device for personal self-monitoring" (2000, p.49). While Dickinson (1987), earlier than Gardner,

stresses the importance of self-assessment or 'self-evaluation' for language learners in general and for autonomous language learners in particular. Rust (2002) views self-assessment as a device to help learners monitor their level of success in specific learning tasks. It is viewed by Rust as a definite indicator of the learner's awareness of the control he has on learning, and reflects his own estimation of that learning.

6.3 Reliability and validity

Since self-assessment is adopted here as a measure of the learners' awareness of the quality of their performance, it is necessary to look at the questions of reliability and validity as essential requirements in any educational measure. Ross (2006, p.3), for instance, concludes that the 'psychometric properties of self-assessment' indicate that it is a reliable technique to assess and to yield consistent and dependable results. However, when considering validity, he arrives at the general conviction that, students commonly give higher estimations of their performance and abilities than what their tutors give them: "student self-assessments are generally higher than teacher ratings" (ibid.). Formerly, Boud and Fachikov (1989) suggest that overestimations are more likely to be found where the self-assessment contributes to the student's grade on a course. Whatever the discrepancy between student and teacher assessment, it cannot but be attributed to what each party assesses. After reviewing a number of studies, Ross (2006) submits that, though self-assessment studies give information about student achievement, such information corresponds only partially to the information given by teacher assessments. The variation is attributed to:

(...) multiple sources, especially student inability to apply assessment criteria, interest bias, and the unreliability of teacher assessments. One systemic source of error might be that students include in their self-assessments information that is not available to the teacher, peers or standardized tests (ibid, p.4).

In a significant study of self-assessment (MacIntyre, et al, 1997, pp.265-28) focused on the role of language anxiety in instigating biases in Self-Ratings of L2 Proficiency, the authors conclude that "one can reasonably assume that,

given appropriate, specific assessment tools, learners should be able to accurately rate their own abilities" (ibid, 267). This goes in line with the review made by Blanche and Merino (1989), who determined that when the skills to be assessed are clear and detailed "there is consistent overall agreement between self-assessments and rating based on a variety of external criteria" (p.315). However, agreement of student self-assessment with external measures cannot be taken for granted because students do not necessarily assess accurately. The authors (ibid, p.267) conclude that language learners mostly overestimate or underestimate their proficiency in language. This, of course, leads to the failure of the assessment to correspond to objective external measures such as tutor's assessment.

The debate continues as to whether self-assessment is reliable or not and there have been arguments in favour and against its reliability. Dickinson (1987, p.136), for example, questions its reliability and favours assessments made by teachers and specialists, when he inclines to believe that 'teachers and other specialists' are more likely expected to be more reliable and accurate in giving assessments about the performance of their learners than the learners give about their own input. The divergence in the compared results between learners' assessment of their performance and their tutors' of the same performance may support the same idea (Blue, 1988). Other early studies arrived at similar findings (for example, Janssen-van Dieten 1989 and Thomson 1996) both discredit the reliability of the learner's self-assessment in favour of the teacher's evaluation.

On the other hand, there are studies which accredit the reliability of self-assessment. Bachman and Palmer (1989), for example, found that learners of an adult group were reliable in assessing their communicative language skills. Similarly, Blanche (1990, p.226) stresses that "the overall reliability of the self-evaluations (...) is impressive".

In fact, it is difficult to account for the inconsistency in the findings of the various studies regarding the issue of reliability. This matter can be attributed to the differences in the variables which decide, to a large degree, the reliability of the findings. In other words, factors such as the size of the sample and the setting definitely affect the reliability of a test because the larger the sample, the more reliable the results will likely be, and also the suitability of the setting,

clarity of the directions and the efficiency of administration all contribute to the reliability of the measure. In addition, the characteristics of the participants in the studies, including their age, sex, education, social and cultural background, and the skill and experience they have in self-assessment procedures, all contribute to that variation. Other variables like the TL being assessed, the test format and the skills being compared can act as additional sources of reliability variation (for details about the factors affecting test reliability see Bachman, 1990, pp.160-223).

The question of whether to use self-assessment as a measuring device on its own or comparing it with some other well-established external criteria, on the bases of validity and reliability, is challenging. Nonetheless, seeking measures with absolute validity and reliability in measuring skills related to language learning could be futile because of the improbability of fully controlling all the variables involved in the process. Consequently, it seems acceptable to use self-assessment and tolerate its margin of error in the same way other measures are accepted and adopted. This conclusion can well sum up this tendency against the conflicting notions and arguments on using self-assessment:

It is, perhaps, comforting that even in the studies where results were disappointing researchers maintained a belief in the value of self-assessment. Undoubtedly, reliability is an issue that needs to be kept in mind but it is not one which should prevent self-assessments from being tried (Gardner, 2000 p.53)

Pedagogically speaking, self-assessment is considered one of the tools that are stimulated in the more modern learner-centred approach to language teaching. Saltourides (2006, p.55) empirically exhibits that the students' awareness of the effectiveness of their learning strategies had developed and increased in that they expressed their desire to continue to use self-assessment in their future study. She also adds that using self-assessment in the curriculum made the learners activities more communicative, thus fitting it under the social constructivist paradigm of learning. Social constructivism is a term which refers to learning theories whose "main concern is with knowledge construction through social interactions (Swan, 2005, P.4)".

To conclude, self-assessment in education and learning can be perceived as:

- a relatively new method of evaluation in learning that has proved its utility as an indispensable device in a learner-centred approach to teaching.
- an educational measure, like most measuring devices, whose reliability and validity are not fully established yet. This is basically due to the novelty of the technique, which may continue to be so for some time in future.
- Pedagogically, an effective motivational device to trigger the learner's awareness of his abilities and skills, and to help him estimate them accurately and objectively.

6.4 Self-assessment in Translation Studies

There are some research studies which have tackled the use of self-assessment in TS, both in translation and interpretation, though they are scarce. Below is a brief survey of the most focal ones which highlight the function and vitality of this measure in translation research.

6.4.1 Self-assessment in interpretation research is recommended and employed in the case of training interpreters to improve the quality of performance. Chiaro and Nocella (2004, p.291), for example, suggest three main areas of operation including training, which, in turn, incorporates the procedures of self-assessment. As such, the significance of assessment in the training of professional interpreters is empirically investigated in a study by Fowler (2007), who investigates the role of self-assessment, along with, peer assessment and evaluation. It is an attempt to validate the use of those three forms of assessment and to inform trainee interpreters to use the feedback in their professional performance. Fowler contends that the reason why the skill of self-assessment is indispensable to interpreter trainees is mostly because after they finish their training "they will probably be quite isolated throughout their professional lives" (ibid, p.255). The study closes with the conclusion that self-assessment, along with peer assessment, are necessary in the training of interpreters because they foster self-awareness of the flaws and errors which accompany performance. They could also be helpful in enabling the interpreters

to devise their own procedures and criteria to assess their performance by themselves in an accurate and useful way.

Similarly, Bartłomiejczyk (2007), in a seminal study, deals with quality assessment of the performance of both professional and trainee interpreters in different contexts. The prominent question in this study is to find out how interpreter trainees react to their own output. Therefore, she attempts to address that question by examining the 'fairly spontaneous' reactions of advanced trainee interpreters. The study of self-assessment recruited eighteen subjects at the same stage of training who were asked to self-assess their output after they interpreted a text from English into Polish in the light of their strategic processing. The results indicated that there was a noteworthy tendency to negatively assess their performance in terms of faithfulness to the original text and to its completeness, with almost complete negligence of matters related to presentation such as voice quality, intonation, pauses and hesitancy. In addition, she concludes that the results of the study generally cast some doubts on the appropriateness of the procedure of self-evaluation when conducted in the same unstructured way applied in her study. She admits that she was not able to elicit sufficient remarks to help in improving training. As a result, she suggests the use of assessment sheets, similar to those recommended by Schjoldager (1996) or Hartley, et al. (2003), to attain better results in diagnosing problems of interpreter output (*ibid.*, pp. 263-4).

On the other hand, Lee (2005) investigates the usefulness of self-assessment in the teaching of interpretation. Graduate students of translation and interpretation were asked to self-assess their performance to their tutor. The results of the survey disclosed that there are, from the point of view of the trainee interpreters, positive aspects in the identification and diagnosis of weaknesses and strengths, enabling them to orient their practice and to allow them monitor and appraise their progress. However, some negative points were detected regarding the time consumed for the process of self-assessment in addition to the emotional throwback of the process on the student who might shy out of making the assessment. Anyhow, both students and teachers find self-assessment useful in the context of interpreting teaching. The feedback to the teachers helped them in remedially working with students to assist them to

overcome the weaknesses which were diagnosed and also in reinforcing the points of strength.

Likewise, Arumi and Esteve (2006, p.159) believe that assessment and self-assessment procedures form a component in the training of interpreters which plays an important role by encouraging self-regulation processes in consecutive interpreting. Postigo Pinazo (2008, p.208) agrees on the importance of training interpreters to self-assess their knowledge and ability stating that:

The training period is vital for introducing future interpreters to habits of recognizing their strengths and weaknesses, lack of specific knowledge and application of learned skills. Integrating self-assessment into teaching and treating it as essential will have positive effects on learners' attitudes to self-criticism and on performance (ibid.).

The study entails that students should participate actively in the evaluation, and their performance reflected that the effects on their learning were positive.

6.4.2 Self-assessment in translation research: The use of self-assessment in translation research is presented in a pioneer study by Fanghanel and Voela (2001), who attempt to bridge the gap between academic and professional translation by trying to establish a 'discipline-based model'. It is accomplished through encouraging students to perform formative self-assessments by responding to a Critical Review Sheet and to end-of-year interviews. These procedures were tried on nine postgraduate students doing their masters in translation during the academic year 1999-2000 at the University of Luton. The authors confess that students previously did not take self-assessment seriously, even though it was introduced in the programme right from the beginning, and stress that the earlier results were disappointing and superficial. This is, they emphasize, the reason why a formative approach is adopted. Despite the obvious merits of applying self-assessment in translation, the authors contend that it is still problematic for two reasons. The first reason is the way of dealing with the notion of "correctness" in translation. Unlike most other disciplines, where it is possible, and perhaps easy, to establish what is correct and what is incorrect, translation does not yield itself well to this notion. It is difficult to decide what the ideal translation of a given text is, simply because there are many possible 'correct' ways or 'model' translations for a text. They conclude that the difficulty stems from the fact that:

any evaluation based on a systematic approach rather than on 'impression' must therefore involve a deconstruction of the text into manageable elements, each of which representing a specific area of knowledge and skills input (ibid, p.47)

The second reason is associated with the nature of translation as an 'interdisciplinary activity' which comprises various "cognitive, social, textual and pragmatic skills and knowledge" (ibid.), which need to be available so that linguistic transfer can happen.

The study closes with some pedagogical implications stressing the visibility of the virtues of self-assessment noticed in the study. These include the students' awareness of the processes and strategies they used in translation and their evident ability in evaluating them. In addition, the participants were capable of running comparisons between STs and TTs to diagnose the weaknesses and strengths in their performance. All these activities can be perceived as cognitive skills characteristic of the autonomy and productive reflection in the translation process. This brings the translation process to the forefront of desired investigation in its nature (ibid, p.60-1).

Correspondingly, Martinez and Hurtado (2001, p.285) consider student self-assessment records as one of the basic evaluation tools in translator training, along with other tools such as teacher's observation records, translation diaries, documentation sources, error inventories and so on. Similarly, Kose (2011, pp.484-85) uses self-assessment scales to identify the levels of his subjects' language skills in his study of the effect of form and meaning in translation focused instruction. His self-assessment scale includes six skills: reading, writing, listening, speaking, grammar, and vocabulary and idioms. Each skill is assessed on a five-value continuum as in the example below (p.488):

_____ Excellent _____ Very good _____ Fair _____ Not good _____ Poor

This continuum is designed for the self-assessment of language skills and is not adopted in this study. A numerical scale is used in place, because it is more precise.

In a vital study, Waddington (2001, pp.311-325) employs self-assessment, along with teachers' assessment and a number of other factors, as a tool in the identification of TC. In the study, he uses 64 students' self-assessment of their ability to translate from Spanish into English. This study is extremely important in that it statistically discloses the relationship between self-assessment and TC. The correlation matrix:

shows that there is a moderately high, statistically significant correlation ($p > .001$) between the first factor (*Translation Competence*) and the second and third factors (*Native Language Competence* and *Self-Assessment*). However, none of these three factors correlates with the variable *series* [refers to *Mathematical Intelligence*], which lends weight to their construct validity in the sense that, whereas the three factors are clearly related to translation ability, it is not surprising that they do not relate to the variable *series*, which is based on a university entrance test designed to test mathematical intelligence (ibid, p.321).

The statistical results also show that there are moderately high, statistically significant correlations between the four methods that were used in the study and the factor of *self-assessment*, which contributes to the verification of the criterion-related validity of all the four ways that were used to assess the quality of student translations (ibid. p.323). In the conclusion, Waddington contends that the main underlying factor is TC, which is closely related to student self-assessment of their TC and to student NL competence. However, the results showed that there was no significant correlation between these two factors and the main factor of mathematical intelligence (ibid. p.324).

A more recent study, conducted by Robinson, et al. (2006, p.115), also stresses the importance of self-assessment in translation training, stating that it helps students to assess their abilities and assists to raise their awareness of responsibility towards their learning. The study investigates the introduction of e-learning in the Spanish university system and the opportunities it has provided to 'reorient translator Training'. It also shows the appropriateness of this mode of learning to translator training. The results indicate that the students positively perceived the new learning mode along with the accompanying assessment processes. In the outset of the study, the authors emphasize that the aims of their choice were pedagogical; to "design this course around the concepts of self-and peer assessment and tutor-moderation" (ibid, p.116). They aimed to

ensure the achievement of the utmost degree of trainees' involvement in the learning process. In addition, they tend to amplify the trainees' sense of responsibility towards their work and to make sure that the trainees are adequately prepared to function successfully in the professional world that awaits them. The study concludes with highlighting the importance of the self-assessment process describing it as a 'logical component' in translator professional training (ibid, p.136).

Finally, a recent study carried out by Fernandez and Zabalbeascoa (2012), which is very close to the current one in its aims and procedures, has investigated the relationship between self-assessment and the performance of trainee translators by correlating their self-evaluation results, based on their answers to post translation metacognitive questionnaires, with their teacher's assessment. It has focused on the trainees' identification of translation problems and the justification they give for their own solutions to those problems. It was revealed that the "best-performing students were more strategically and translationally aware in self-evaluating their own translating". (ibid, p.463)

The study concludes with the affirmation that there is a significant correlation between the students' self-evaluation and their level of performance in terms of identifying and solving translation problems. The study also confirms some didactic implications as the correlation results indicate that the better performing trainees have better strategic and translational awareness than the others, and that the pedagogy and training must aim at raising this awareness to improve the translation performance of trainee translators (ibid, p.476).

In conclusion, the use of self-assessment in TS research has revealed the following:

- It is an appropriate mode to be used in translator and interpreter training because it ensures the trainee's involvement and amplifies the sense of responsibility towards learning and future work.
- Self-assessment is typically associated with that of the tutor to the degree that it can be described as an established relationship. Most of the studies which were reviewed above show the dependency of self-assessment study on the tutor's evaluation as an external factor to establish its relevance and dependability.

6.5 The Current Study

The aim of the current study is to examine the relationship between the participants' self-assessment and the assessment of their tutor as an external measure (see section 1.7). It is based on qualitative data derived from the participants' self-assessments on the texts they translated in the experiment, correlated with the tutors' assessment. These data will be used to uncover the relationship between monitoring and TC, in the sense that it can show whether the overestimation or underestimation of one's performance notably relates to high or low levels of TC possessed by a participant.

In order to realize this, the current study attempts to confirm or, otherwise, falsify the assumptions made by Campbell (1998, pp.135-6) that students have good awareness of their ability to translate into their native language, and also to explore the extent to which students may consistently overestimate or underestimate that ability. Campbell's conclusion, that "Arabic students greatly overestimate their ability [to translate] into their first language" (ibid. p.136), is of great interest in this experiment. In the pilot study (section 3.1), on a scale of one to ten (ten being the highest), two of the participants highly self-assessed their translation ability at eight points and the third assessed it at seven. However, in the experiment of the final study the tutors were asked to give a general cumulative assessment of the level of TC of those particular students (the participants). Their assessment was to be based on their sustained observation of those participants over the course of their studies.

The important aim here is to empirically test the idea that students' general assessment of their own ability to translate, validated by its correlation with their tutor's assessment, relate to the other components of TC, and can be proposed as a relevant factor which assists in its characterization. Robinson, et al. (2006, p.136) consider it as:

(...) a logical component of any course designed to prepare translators for the professional market place. (...) a self-and peer-assessment routine validated by tutor moderation can achieve satisfactory results both in quantitative and qualitative terms.

In the present study, this dimension is empirically measured by the responses to a question addressed to the subjects in order to self-assess their output. Then, the results of these assessments are correlated with the independent measure of the tutor's general impressionistic assessment of each participant's overall TC, as observed throughout the teaching programme.

Although all the participants made a self-assessment of their performance on both texts, one of the tutors declined to give his assessment for reasons, as he expressed, of his compliance with the ethics of the university where he worked. Thus, the study was disadvantaged by the lack of tutor assessment of seven participants, which reduced the sample of this segment to eighteen participants. This matter weakened but did not eliminate the study's ability to investigate tutor rating reliability, as opposed to participant self-assessment.

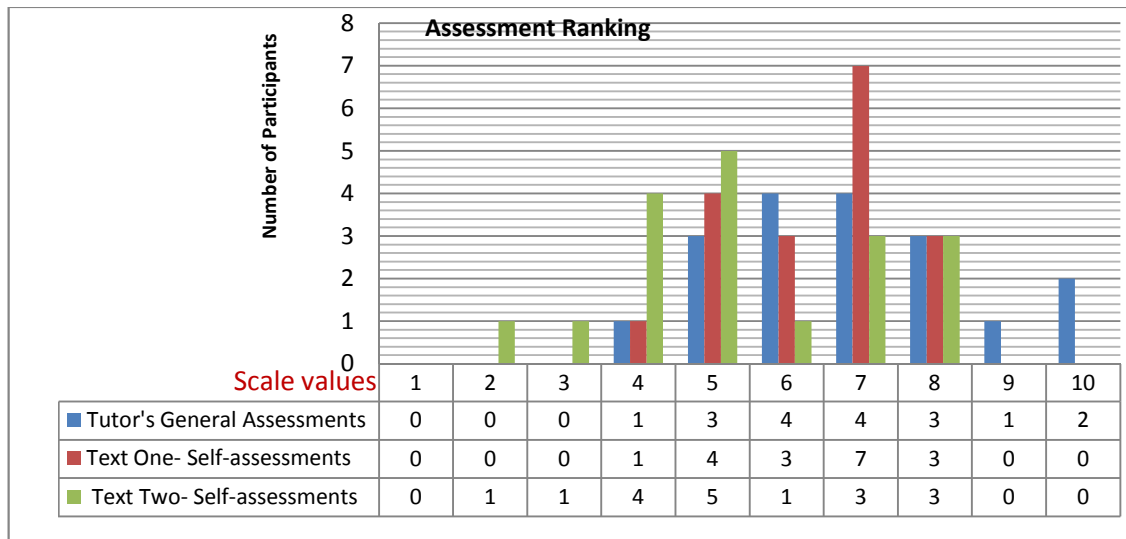
6.5.1 The results: The assessments of the eighteen participants were ranked and displayed in Figure 6.1 below. The term 'scale values' refers to the scales of the continuum below on which the participants were asked to self-assess their translation output on each of the texts they translated in the experiment:

On the scale of ten below, please, estimate your translation quality of the above text (10 being the highest):

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

It is also the same scale which the tutor used in his general assessment of the participants. In fact, the scale and the criteria that were used by both the participants and the tutor were easy and explicit.

Figure 6.1 Tutor and Participant Assessment Ranking



It is illustrated in Figure 6.1 above that:

- Tutor assessment starts at point 4 on the assessment scale and extends to the highest point (10). This means the tutor did not assess any of the participants lower than value 4 on the continuum.
- The frequency of tutor assessment bunches at assessment points 5, 6, 7, and 8, comprising the majority of the participants (14).
- Participants' assessments of their performance on T1 differ from that of T2 in both the range of assessment and its constellation.
- In T1 the assessment, analogous to that of the tutor, starts at point 4 but, dissimilarly, ceases at value 8. The frequency of the results bunches at 5, 6, 7, and 8, (17 participants) with rank 7 being the most frequent.
- By contrast, participant assessment of T2 starts at a lower rank (point 2) than that of T1 and of the tutor. However, it extends to the same range of T1 at value 8 only. Frequency bunching is also different; starting at point 4 to 5 then to 7 and 8, excluding 6 where only one participant opted there.

The differences in assessment are reflected in Table 6.1 below, which shows the match and mismatch between the tutor and participant assessment on each

text for each participant. When participant assessment is higher than that of the tutor the deviation is positively marked with a plus (+), and when it is lower it is negatively marked with a minus (-), whereas matching assessment between the participant and the tutor is marked with (0) disparity. The positive marking indicates overestimation, whereas the negative one indicates underestimation.

Table 6.1 Participant's over and Under-estimation

Par.	Tutor's assessment	Par. Assessment-T1		Par. Assessment-T2		Disparity
		score	disparity	Score	disparity	Mean Disparity
1	8	7	-1	5	-3	-2
2	6	8	+2	8	+2	+2
3	5	7	+2	4	-1	+0.5
4	7	8	+1	8	+1	+1
5	7	7	0	7	0	0
6	5	5	0	2	-3	-1.5
7	4	5	+1	5	+1	+1
8	6	7	+1	7	+1	+1
9	6	7	+1	5	-1	0
10	8	7	-1	4	-4	-2.5
11	7	5	-2	4	-3	-2.5
12	7	6	-1	7	0	-0.5
13	10	8	-2	8	-2	-2
14	10	6	-4	5	-5	-4.5
15	8	7	-1	6	-2	-1.5
16	9	5	-4	5	-4	-4
17	6	6	0	3	-3	-1.5
18	5	4	-1	4	-1	-1
Mean	6.89	6.39	-0.5	5.39	-1.5	-1

The results illustrated in Table 6.1 are summarized in Table 6.2 below showing the number and percentage of over-estimators, matching-estimators and under-estimators.

Table 6.2 Estimation Summary

Estimation	Text one	%	Text two	%	Mean	%
Over-estimators	6	33.33	4	22.22	5	27.78
Matching-estimators	3	16.67	2	11.11	2.5	13.89
Under-estimators	9	50.00	12	66.67	10.5	58.33

The participants generally have the tendency to underestimate rather than to overestimate which runs counter to the previously suggested conclusion drawn by Campbell in the original study when he claims that Arab students tend to overestimate their ability to translate into their native language. However, it is

revealed here that over-estimators for T1 represent only one third of the sample whereas under-estimators for the same text represent half the population. On the other hand, underestimation in T2 is stronger than that in T1 as just a little more than one quarter of the participants overestimated their performance, whereas two thirds of the population underestimated their performance. The difference in the estimation can be attributed to the difference in the level of difficulty of the texts, since the tutor's assessment is general for the participants TC. The current results can be said to agree with the conclusion of MacIntyre, et al. (1997, pp.265-28) that language learners mostly overestimate or underestimate their proficiency in language, since language proficiency is a decisive factor in translation.

6.5.2 The statistical analysis: The results of the correlations between the participant and the tutor assessments are displayed in Tables 6.3 and 6.4 and also in Figure 6.2 below:

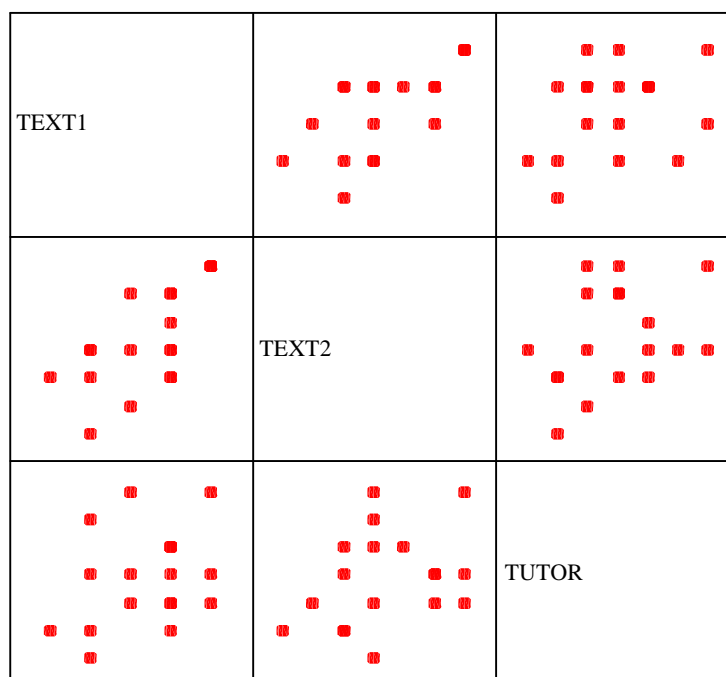
Table 6.3 Tutor and Self-assessment Correlations

Text 1	Pearson Correlation	1.000	0.669**	0.310
	Sig. (2-tailed)	-	0.002	0.211
	N	18	18	18
Text 2	Pearson Correlation	0.669**	1.000	0.323
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.002	-	0.191
	N	18	18	18
Tutor	Pearson Correlation	0.310	0.323	1.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.211	0.191	-
	N	18	18	18

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Significant correlation between the participant assessments on both texts indicates the reliability of that assessment despite the difference between the texts in the level of difficulty and structure. By contrast, the absence of a significant correlation between tutor and participant assessment reflects the lack of validity in the assessment. The distribution of the participants as assessed by the tutor and by themselves on both texts is displayed in Figure 6.2 below:

Figure 6.2 Participants and Tutor Assessment Distribution of both Texts



6.5.3 Interpretation of the results: These results can be interpreted in the following way:

- The significant participant assessment correlation between the two texts indicates the reliability of participant self-assessment in that there is consistency in the assessment they give across the two texts (whether they are overestimating or underestimating).
- If the fact that the participants are native speakers with considerable control on their language is taken into account, the results agree with another statement by Campbell, which contradicts his previous statement about the overestimation of Arabic students. This time he suggests that the ability to self-assess one's translation ability differs:

(...) more fundamentally between types of bilingualism and that poor language competence is linked to overestimation and good language competence to under-estimation (Campbell, 1998, pp.137).

So, the good language competence the participants have could be the reason behind their general tendency to underestimate.

- Retrospectively, a personal and more subjective interpretation based on personal experience would suggest another reason that may contribute to this general tendency of self-assessment, which is unfortunately not possible to scrutinize in this study, and deserves some future investigation. It is supposed here that the current situation can be partly related to the kind of teacher assessment those participants became used to in their past exams and assignments in their schools. As a subject of study, the Arabic language is generally treated with dignity and reverence in the Arab World for reasons of nationality, education and most importantly of religion, especially by teachers of Arabic who are schooled in this direction, and who usually do not tolerate weak performance in the subject. Consequently, under their effect, the students establish the conviction that only superior performance is expected and positively assessed by their teachers. Congruently, the current study participants may have transferred this experience to their personal assessment of their own output, which results in an underestimation of their translation performance in their native language.

6.5.4 Quality Assessment, Self-assessment and Tutor assessment

In order to enhance the results of self and tutor assessments it is decided to validate them against another external measure. This measure consists of the results of the quality assessment of the translation of the texts that are used in the experiment. Thus, the translations of the 25 participants (two texts each) were submitted to three expert raters to individually assess them according to an assessment chart explained by an assessment sheet made up of a number of behavioural statements which describe the levels of output expected from translators on each aspect of the chart. The raters all were Arabic native speakers with experience in translation teaching and assessment. At the time of performing the assessment, two of them, a female and a male, were PhD holders whereas the third (a male) has two bachelors; one in Arabic and one in English, an MA in Arabic and was doing a PhD in Arabic at the time of the assessment. The assessment sheet was derived from the code of practice in the School of Modern Languages and Cultures University of Leeds, and vividly

described and simplified by the researcher to be used easily and reliably. The original one was professionally detailed and was expected to be difficult for raters who use it for the first time without prior training. Below is a copy of the assessment sheet that was used by the raters as a guide in their task:

Translation assessment Sheet

Source Language Comprehension:

- 5--- Perfect comprehension with no traces of miscomprehension at all.
- 4--- Few comprehension problems slightly affect the translation.
- 3--- Minor comprehension problems partly affect the translation.
- 2--- Predominant comprehension problems entirely affect the translation.
- 1--- Comprehension problems so severe that they distort the translation.

Subject Matter:

- 5--- Full command of the subject matter to carry out the translation.
- 4--- Few subject matter problems which slightly affect the translation.
- 3--- Minor subject matter problems which partly affect the translation.
- 2--- Predominant Subject matter problems which entirely affect the translation.
- 1--- Severe subject-matter problems which distort the translation.

Target Language Appropriateness

- 5--- Completely appropriate TL.
- 4--- Few traces of TL inappropriateness slightly affect the translation.
- 3--- Minor TL inappropriateness problems partly affect the translation.
- 2--- Predominant TL inappropriateness problems entirely affect the translation.
- 1--- Completely inappropriate TL distorts the translation

Target Language Accuracy

- 5--- Completely accurate TL.
- 4--- Few traces of TL inaccuracy very slightly affect the translation.
- 3--- Minor TL inaccuracy problems partly affect the translation.
- 2--- Predominant TL inaccuracy problems entirely affect the translation.
- 1--- Severe TL inaccuracy problems distort the translation.

The assessment was recorded on a chart designed by the researcher, comprising the four aspects that were assessed according to the guidance provided in the sheet above. Each aspect was evaluated on a scale of five points. They start with number 5 as the score for the highest desirable output and end up with number 1 as the lowest score for the output. The total mark represents the sum of the scores a participant gets on the different components. Below is a sample of the assessment chart:

Sample Translation Assessment Chart

Participant No.: () Rater: ()

Evaluation	5	4	3	2	1
Comprehension of the SL (SLC)					
Command of subject matter (CSM)					
Appropriateness of the TL (TLAp)					
Accuracy of the TL (TLAC)					

Total Mark: ()

Rater's Signature

The assessments of each rater on both texts were then displayed in a separate table followed by a summary of the correlation between the two texts in general and between each component across the two texts in particular. Table 6.4 shows the results of Rater One:

Table 6.4 Quality Assessment: Rater 1

Par	Text One					Text Two					Both texts
	SLC	CSM	TLAp	TLAc	Sum	SLC	CSM	TLAp	TLAc	Sum	Total
1	5	4	4	3	16	3	3	3	3	12	28
2	4	3	2	2	11	4	3	4	3	14	25
3	4	4	4	3	15	4	3	3	3	13	28
4	3	2	2	1	8	3	3	2	2	10	18
5	4	4	4	3	15	3	2	2	2	9	24
6	4	4	3	3	14	2	2	1	1	6	20
7	3	2	2	1	8	1	1	1	1	4	12
8	2	1	1	1	5	2	2	2	2	8	13
9	3	3	3	3	12	3	3	3	2	11	23
10	3	3	2	2	10	2	2	2	2	8	18
11	4	3	3	2	12	4	3	3	3	13	25
12	3	3	3	2	11	2	2	1	1	6	17
13	4	4	3	3	14	4	4	4	4	16	30
14	4	3	2	2	11	3	3	2	2	10	21
15	3	3	3	3	12	4	3	3	2	12	24
16	3	3	3	3	12	4	3	4	4	15	27
17	1	1	1	1	4	2	1	1	1	5	9
18	1	1	1	1	4	1	1	1	1	4	8
19	2	1	2	2	7	2	1	1	1	5	12
20	2	1	1	1	5	2	2	2	2	8	13
21	5	4	4	4	17	4	4	3	4	15	32
22	4	3	3	2	12	4	3	3	3	13	25
23	3	3	3	2	11	2	1	1	1	5	16

24	3	3	3	3	12	3	2	2	2	9	21
25	5	5	5	4	19	5	4	4	4	17	36
Total	82	71	67	57	277	73	61	58	56	248	525
Average	3.28	2.84	2.68	2.28	11.08	2.92	2.44	2.32	2.24	9.92	21

A look at the table shows that the total scores of the participants (525) were unevenly divided on T1 (272) and T2 (248). The variation could be partly attributed to the different level of difficulty of each text. Though the average score on T1 was higher than that of T2, it is perceived that the total average (21/40) is relatively low and could be attributed to the possible rigorousness of the rater. However, the total scores of the participants reflected considerable variation ranging from a least score of 8 marks by participant 18 to the most score of 36 marks obtained by participant 25. Rater One's evaluation of the different evaluated aspects and of the two texts has yielded the correlations summarized in table 6.5 below:

Table 6.5 Rater 1: Text 1 vs. Text 2 correlations

Aspect	Correlation
Source Language Comprehension (SLC)	0.688
Command of subject matter (CSM)	0.674
Target Language Appropriateness (TLAp)	0.494
Target Language Accuracy (TLAc)	0.606
Sum of the Two Texts	0.690

The results suggest that there is a statistically strong relationship among the various components and also between the results of the two texts. This also suggests the consistency of the rater's assessment.

Although Rater Two yielded slightly higher results than those of Rater One, the same pattern is retained in that higher scores were recorded on T1 as compared to T2. However, the total average score was nearly five marks higher than that of Rater One. The lowest score was 12 marks obtained by participant 18 and the highest score was 35 obtained by participant 15. Table 6.6 below displays the results:

Table 6.6 Quality Assessment: Rater 2

Par	Text One					Text Two					Both texts
	SLC	CSM	TLAp	TLAc	Sum	SLC	CSM	TLAp	TLAc	Sum	Total
1	4	4	3	3	14	3	3	3	3	12	26
2	3	3	2	2	10	4	4	4	4	16	26
3	5	5	4	4	18	3	3	2	2	10	28
4	2	2	2	2	8	2	2	2	2	8	16
5	5	5	4	4	18	3	3	3	3	12	30
6	4	5	4	4	17	3	3	3	3	12	29
7	3	3	3	3	12	2	1	2	1	6	18
8	2	2	2	2	8	2	2	2	2	8	16
9	5	5	4	4	18	3	3	2	2	10	28
10	2	2	2	2	8	2	2	2	2	8	16
11	5	5	4	4	18	4	4	4	4	16	34
12	5	5	4	4	18	2	2	2	2	8	26
13	5	5	4	4	18	3	3	3	3	12	30
14	4	4	4	4	16	2	2	1	1	6	22
15	5	5	4	5	19	4	4	4	4	16	35
16	5	5	5	5	20	3	3	3	3	12	32
17	3	3	2	2	10	2	2	1	1	6	16
18	2	2	2	2	8	1	1	1	1	4	12
19	4	4	4	4	16	3	3	3	3	12	28
20	2	2	2	2	8	3	3	2	2	10	18
21	3	3	3	3	12	4	4	3	4	15	27
22	3	3	3	3	12	3	3	3	3	12	24
23	4	4	4	4	16	4	4	4	4	16	32
24	5	5	4	4	18	4	4	5	5	18	32
25	3	3	3	3	12	3	3	2	2	10	22
Total	93	94	82	83	352	72	71	66	66	275	623
Mean	3.72	3.76	3.28	3.32	14.08	2.88	2.84	2.64	2.64	11	24.92

Similarly, the correlations show a statistically strong relationship between the two texts and also among the four assessed aspects, though relatively weaker than that seen in Rater One's results. There is also a strong rater's consistency as seen by the results displayed in the summary below:

Table 6.7 Rater 2: Text 1 vs. Text 2 Correlations

Aspect	Correlation
Source Language Comprehension (SLC)	0.475
Command of subject matter (CSM)	0.465
Target Language Appropriateness (TLAp)	0.408
Target Language Accuracy (TLAc)	0.412
Sum	0.467

The results of Rater Three are not considerably different from the other two. The total scores and the average fall between those of the two other raters. Scores on T1 are similarly higher than those of T2. The lowest score obtained was 9 by participant 18 and the highest was 32 by participant 21. The results are displayed in the Table 6.8 below:

Table 6.8 Quality Assessment: Rater 3

Par	Text One					Text Two					Both texts
	SLC	CSM	TLA	TLA	Sum	SLC	CSM	TLA	TLA	Sum	Total
1	5	4	3	4	16	4	3	3	3	13	29
2	4	4	3	3	14	4	4	3	3	14	28
3	4	4	3	3	14	4	4	3	2	13	27
4	3	2	2	1	8	3	3	2	2	10	18
5	5	4	4	4	17	3	2	3	2	10	27
6	4	4	3	3	14	3	3	2	2	10	24
7	3	2	2	2	9	2	1	1	1	5	14
8	2	1	2	2	7	2	2	2	2	8	15
9	4	4	3	3	14	4	4	3	2	13	27
10	3	2	3	2	10	2	2	2	2	8	18
11	4	3	3	3	13	4	4	3	3	14	27
12	4	3	2	2	11	3	2	2	2	9	20
13	4	4	4	3	15	4	3	4	3	14	29
14	4	4	3	3	14	3	2	2	2	9	23
15	4	4	4	3	15	4	3	3	3	13	28
16	5	4	4	3	16	4	4	3	3	14	30
17	2	1	2	1	6	2	1	1	1	5	11
18	2	1	1	1	5	1	1	1	1	4	9
19	4	2	3	3	12	3	2	2	2	9	21
20	2	2	2	1	7	3	2	2	2	9	16
21	5	4	4	4	17	4	4	3	4	15	32
22	4	3	3	2	12	4	3	3	3	13	25
23	4	3	3	3	13	4	4	3	3	14	27
24	4	4	3	3	14	4	3	3	3	13	27
25	5	4	4	4	17	4	3	3	3	13	30
Total	94	77	73	66	310	82	69	62	59	272	582
Mean	3.76	3.08	2.92	2.64	12.4	3.28	2.76	2.48	2.36	10.88	23.28

The summary of the correlations below suggest that there is a very strong relationship among the four aspects and also shows the very high consistency of the rater.

Table 6.9 Rater 3: Text 1 vs. Text 2 Correlations

Aspect	Correlation
Source Language Comprehension (SLC)	0.757
Command of subject matter (CSM)	0.683
Target Language Appropriateness (TLAp)	0.796
Target Language Accuracy (TLAc)	0.650
Sum	0.790

However, when the total results of the three raters are examined together, it is found that the average rater correlations (0.751695) show very strong relationships, and suggest the high reliability of the raters and validity of the assessment procedure as shown in Table 6.10 below:

Table 6.10 Correlations among the Three Raters's Assessments

Rater	Aspect	Text One	Text Two
1. Rater 1 vs. Rater 2	Source Language Comprehension	0.322	0.593
	Command of subject matter	0.518	0.423
	Target Language Appropriateness	0.551	0.296
	Target Language Accuracy	0.575	0.326
	Sum	0.520	0.423
	Total	0.545	
2. Rater 1 Vs Rater 3	Source Language Comprehension	0.808	0.806
	Command of subject matter	0.860	0.628
	Target Language Appropriateness	0.737	0.767
	Target Language Accuracy	0.866	0.724
	Sum	0.917	0.783
	Total	0.894	
3. Rater 2 vs Rater 3	Source Language Comprehension	0.634	0.834
	Command of subject matter	0.700	0.781
	Target Language Appropriateness	0.578	0.643
	Target Language Accuracy	0.570	0.803
	Sum	0.679	0.809
	Total	0.817	

It is clear from the table that the total correlations reflect a range between strong and very strong relations. Although the correlations between single aspects in

the comparison of Rater One and rater Two show some moderate to strong correlations, the total correlation is strong. In addition, the correlation between Rater One and Rater Three and between Rater Two and Three are very strong, to the degree that they can be treated as identical. Table 6.11 below displays those results:

Table 6.11 Rater’s Assessment vs. Self and Tutor’s Assessment

Aspect	Rater 1	Rater 2	Rater 3
Self-assessment of Text 1 vs. Tutor’s	0.214	-0.091	0.267
Self-assessment of Text 2 vs. Tutor’s	0.381	0.209	0.289
Rater’s assessment of Text 1 vs Tutor’s	0.341	0.332	0.464
Rater’s assessment of Text 2 vs Tutor’s	0.580	0.227	0.434
Rater’s assessment of both texts vs. Tutor’s	0.515	0.328	0.473

However, the correlations between the participant self-assessment results and the raters’ quality assessment generally show low to moderate relationships. On the other hand the correlations between raters’ assessments and tutor’s assessment show moderate to high relationship. This leads to the conclusion that the participants’ self-assessments or their awareness of their output are less credible than the general assessment of the tutor.

6.6 Conclusion

The results of this study lead to the conclusion that the participants’ self-assessments, or their awareness of their output, are less credible than the general assessment of the tutor. Specifically, it does not correlate well with the results of the external measures of the tutor as well as with those of the quality assessment raters. In other words, the study has shown that the self-assessment technique has unapproved reliability and validity to be used on its own as an element in assessing TC. However, it can be an effective motivational device, as suggested by some studies reviewed in this paper, to help trainee translators develop an awareness of their abilities or level of professionalism. In this case, it must be used in a guided and moderate way, urging students to take it seriously. To conclude, its reliability is especially questionable in translation because of the unique nature of the translation

process as far as the notion of correctness is concerned, and also the possibility of having multiple correct translations (Fanghanel and Voela, 2001, p.47). So, the students may think that they deserve higher evaluations than they actually get because of the inconsistent evaluation criteria they have in mind, which generally allow for subjectivity. Subsequently, self-assessment is not recommended as a dependable measure in the assessment of TC or even as a credible indicator of it.

Chapter Seven

Translation Monitoring: The Real-time Revision Study

7.1 Overview

Real-time revision [my term] is the second segment of the study of monitoring and it refers to the intervention made by the translator to repair his output during the translation process, both in the drafting of the TT or directly after that in the post-drafting phase. This process is commonly referred to as 'self-revision' in TS (Mossop, 2010, p.167). Generally speaking, the term 'revision' is used in TS in a broader sense than the one used in the present study. It refers to real-time revision and self-revision along with other processes such as 'other revision' and 'delayed revision' which will be all outlined briefly in the few oncoming pages.

The issue of revision has been investigated in TS, though not widely, and presumed to be a relevant and effective phase in the translation process (Antunovic and Pavlovic, 2011, p.233; PACTE, 2009, p.31). Roughly speaking, there is no dispute among translators and translation trainers about the importance of revision in the translation process, despite the apparently relative lack in the empirical studies which have investigated the subject, and despite the inconsistency in using the terms which describe the whole process or some of its facets and aspects. However, assessing the translator's revision skill is found to be related to the translator's SL competence which is a basic component in TC (Antunovic and Pavlovic, *ibid.*).

7.2 Definition

It would be appropriate to acknowledge the fact that it is difficult to exclusively limit the definition of the term 'revision' as it is used interchangeably with a host of other terms, each of which may indicate just one component or aspect of a wider and more comprehensive process. Allman (2007, p.37) bluntly describes the problem which these terms make as they intervene in what the reviser is required to do when dealing with a draft translation. He stresses the

need to provide precise descriptions of the various terms that are used to refer to the process of revision, despite the belief that they can be used interchangeably because they have the same aim of repairing a translation:

The terms 'proofreading', 'editing', 'reviewing', 'post-editing' 'revision' and 'checking' are often used almost interchangeably. Initially, it might be thought that it does not really matter, as they all boil down to the same thing: checking to see if the translation is 'right.' However in terms of negotiating the [translation] assignment, a set of, not definitions exactly, but descriptions of what all these tend to signify, involve or relate to would be appropriate (...).

Throughout his paper, the author stresses the significance of establishing a clear and exclusive code to be given to the reviser in any translation revision assignment in order to guide him to the tasks he is needed to concentrate on.

Antunovic and Pavlovic (ibid, p.213) attributed 'terminological confusion' or the use of a large number of terms, almost interchangeably to refer to the process of revision, to the scarcity of empirical studies that specify the terms, when they suggest that:

This fact [scarcity of empirical studies] can probably explain the terminological confusion that still exists in the literature regarding this **crucial aspect** [my emphasis] of translation. Thus revision, correction, editing, reviewing, rereading, checking and quality control are sometimes used as synonyms, or without transparent distinction criteria.

Similarly, Chakhachiro (2005, p.225) considers revision as a 'subfield of translation criticism' whatever its purpose is; whether used to repair the student's translation output, establishing models for assessment, or investigating the translation process. He feels that revision is a 'bi-directional process' which has multiple functions such as ensuring the accuracy of translation, assessing its quality and ensuring its appropriateness to the readership. In line with Chakhachiro, the Revision Manual of the European Commission Directorate-General for Translation (2010, p.6) defines revision as the:

comparison of a translation with its original, in order to point out and/or correct possible shortcomings, both in terms of content and formal presentation.

Mossop (2010, p.201) defines revision as “the process of checking a draft translation for errors and making appropriate amendments”. In the introduction of his book devoted entirely to revision and first published in 2001, Mossop differentiates between revision and editing as two related and overlapping, yet different processes. He thinks that ‘revising’ is an aspect related to the translation profession with a different history and development from that of editing (ibid, p.1). His views in this connection are:

- Revision is concerned with translation, whereas editing is concerned with original writing.
- They engage in different activities. At the time revision is concerned with mistranslations and the ways to repair them, editing is engaged in looking for writers and suggesting changes in the content, design and layout of writing.
- Editing uses different ‘market-oriented criteria’ from those of revision such as changing, rewriting or deleting parts of the written texts to suit the intended readership. These criteria are not generally accepted in translation because fidelity to the ST is one of the requirements of good translation.
- Mistranslations result from reasons that are different from those of the slips and mistakes of original writing because the production process in translation differs from the process of original writing. The translator works in direct contact with the ST which excessively affects the wording of the draft TT. This problem does not happen in the original writing because the language problems which appear in a translated text and found by the reviser differ from the problems dealt with by the editor such as the ‘unidiomatic language’ found in the translations (ibid, p.1).

Despite these differences in the tasks of the reviser and the editor, a translator may find himself required to perform both tasks as an obligation of his job (ibid, pp.1-2).

Comparably, Englund Dimitrova (2005, p.106) defines revision as changes to the TT made by translators both during the writing or the post-writing phases of

a translation task. She does not agree with Hayes et al. (1987, p.185) who include other activities in revision rather than changes in the TT, such as rereading and evaluating. However, Hayes (1996) changes his earlier categories and integrates revision in the writing process as a whole. In this model he replaces the previous categories of writing: 'planning', 'text generation' and 'revision' by broader cognitive categories, 'reflection', 'text production' and 'text interpretation', thus implying that revision is not a separate identifiable process, but rather integrated in the text interpretation process. This indicates that revision can occur at any time during the writing and the translation process. Yet, Breedveld (2002, p.96) disagrees with the idea of integrating revision in the whole process and considers it as a separate phase in the writing process that can be obviously recognized as independent of the phase of text production. In practice, it is not always possible to separate the revision process because much of the revision takes place simultaneously with the other phases of the translation.

7.3 Types of revision

In his comprehensive survey of revision, Brian Mossop (2007) divides translation revision into two types:

1. Other revision where the process is carried out by a reviser other than the translator of the text. This kind of revision, according to him, could be 'unilingual' where the reviser checks the accuracy of the TT and its suitability to the purpose without returning to the ST except on very rare occasions. It is different from the 'comparative' revision [Mossop's term] where the reviser basically and very often resolves to the comparison between the ST and the TT to check the accuracy, precision and fidelity of the translation. So, the reviser here needs both texts to implement his task.
2. Self-revision or 'checking', as it is named by the new European standard EN 15038 Translation Services (2006, pp.5-12), refers to the amendments on the translation made by the translators themselves, both during or after the translation process. The translator may put the translation aside for an overnight or so and go back to revise it later. This type of revision, where the translator postpones the revision

process for some time, will be called 'delayed revision' for purposes of this study to distinguish it from 'simultaneous revision' or real-time revision. It is worth noting here that the current study is only interested in the simultaneous revision conducted by the translator on the spot during or directly after drafting the translation in the same translation session, without allowing any considerable time intervals between drafting and revising.

7.4 Empirical Studies of Revision

There are different methods that are used to empirically study revision. Mossop (ibid, P.5) outlines three basic methods to observe the process of revision, which can be used individually or in combination. Those methods can be enhanced by the translators' assertions that are elicited from their responses to interviews or questionnaires on how they go along in their revisions. This process is intended to safeguard the investigation from the possibility that people may not report or carefully observe what really takes place in the process. These methods are:

- Keystroke recording, which employs the analysis of the translator's actions on the screen.
- Think-aloud recording, where the translators deliberately release their thoughts and intentions in the spoken form while translating, or retrospectively comment on them after they have finished the process of revising.
- Draft observation, which examines the changes that the translator made on his original draft.

These methods are used both individually and jointly to study the different kinds and aspects of revision. Below are some empirical studies that tackled the different kinds and aspects of revision adopting a single or a joint method in their investigation. This review starts with the empirical studies which investigated the various aspects of the 'other revision'.

7.4.1 Revision effectiveness and the ST: Following Mossop's (2007) classification of the kinds of revision, 'unilingual revision' is the type where the

reviser conducts his task with little or no reference to the ST. While in the 'comparative revision' the ST and the TT are used mutually throughout the revising process. The effect of consulting the ST or ignoring it in revising has been investigated by the following two studies, which compared unilingual revision with comparative revision.

- The first study was carried out by Bruentte, et al. (2005) who used different terms for revision from those used by Mossop (2007). The authors renamed Mossop's 'unilingual revision' as 'monolingual revision' as opposed to 'bilingual revision' which Mossop referred to as 'comparative revision'. The study was based on the hypothesis that "monolingual revision was just as effective as bilingual revision, and could be done at a lower cost, because it is less time-consuming" (p. 29). In order to test its hypothesis, the study compared the results of the monolingual revision of the output of 14 subjects, who were professional translators working into their L1 (French into English), with the results of the bilingual revision of the same translations made by the same subjects. The texts were five French into English texts comprising 5,000 words and 18 English-into-French texts comprising 14,000 words. The revisions were analysed by a group of experts consisting of university instructors, expert translators and revisers. The results of the investigation showed that bilingual revision was much more effective than monolingual revision in yielding a better quality of the final translation in terms of text readability, linguistic correctness and appropriateness to the translation purpose. Although monolingual revision requires less time to carry out, it is proved to be less appealing than the bilingual one in terms of ensuring high translation quality (ibid, p.44). Yet, Mossop (2007, p.6) describes these results as 'alarming' because unilingual revision is widely used in translation revision and confesses that more studies are required to confirm or disconfirm these findings. Subsequently, he agrees with the authors on the idea that practical conclusions cannot be drawn from a single study.
- A second study that investigated unilingual revision was conducted by Krings (2001). This study, which is also reviewed by Mossop (2007),

referred to revision as the 'post-editing' process. It investigated the revision of English-German, French-German and German-English machine translation output, conducted by 52 German-speaking students in a technical translation program. The research methods that were used included thinking aloud protocols and video recording. The text that was used in the study was a book, which is a translation of a 1994 dissertation, and a large portion of its 636 pages was concerned with methodological issues and with extremely detailed reporting of results. Unilingual revision, where the subjects had no access at all to the ST, was one of the topics considered by Krings (*ibid*, p.435) along with other topics. The task of the participants who were translation instructors and professional translators was:

to rate, on a 1-5 scale, the quality of each sentence of the raw English-to-German MT output and of the unilingually revised output of each subject. The raters were not given specific criteria to use, except that in rating the revised version they were to pay special attention to whether or not it reflected the correct and complete meaning of each sentence of the source text. The average quality of the raw MT output was 2.39, and of the revised output 3.38 (out of a possible 5.0). Almost 80% of errors were successfully corrected (though one must bear in mind that MT output contains many more gross easily spotted errors than human translation). (Mossop, 2007, pp.7-8)

However, the results show that not all other remaining errors were corrected as the errors that may misinform the reader about the meaning of the ST remained uncorrected. This especially happened when the machine translation system fails to recognize the part of speech of items in the ST. The revisers were able to successfully correct about half the errors of this kind by relying on their world knowledge or by guessing through the context. In most of the cases they came out with sentences that were sharply different from those of the original version. Mossop (*ibid*, p.8), subsequently, concludes his review of this study by affirming that:

this finding raises what is perhaps the central practical issue in revision and self-revision: will the reviser find and correct the most serious mistakes, or only correct large numbers of minor errors?

This comment, besides reflecting the importance of revision in the translation process, exposes the variation among translators and revisers in their approach to conducting revision and the scope of their work. As they attempt to find remedy to the errors and mistranslations in the translated text they are revising, their approach is different to those errors and also the way they attempt to repair them.

7.4.2 Reviser's experience: Looking at revision from a different angle, Künzli (2006, pp.149-211) investigates the degree of relevance of the specific translation experience of the translator/reviser in the field of the material they were revising to the effectiveness of the revision. The idea of the study is to investigate whether translators are successful in cases of revising materials in a field they have no translation experience in. It has employed think-aloud protocols on ten professional translators who were asked to verbalise their comments while they were revising translated texts from French into German (their active language). Then, an expert in the subject-matter who was a freelance technical translator with a degree in engineering was asked to evaluate their revision. The subjects all had previous experience in revising translations except one of them, but no one was specialized in technical translation. The investigation was focused on revising just one terminological problem of rendering the term *la bride* where the draft translation had four possible equivalents as alternatives. Kunzli confers that professional translators may not successfully revise technical translations because of comprehension or expression problems (ibid, p.208).

However, only one participant revised it accurately because he was the only one among the participants who looked at the relationship of the term to the rest of the sentence in which it was used. He grasped that this term was synonymous to a term used ahead in the same sentence. The other participants looked at the term separately without considering the context where it was used. The study concludes with the conviction that experience in the domain of the translated text is necessary. This finding is highlighted by Mossop (2007, p.9) who states that:

even experienced translators and revisers start working at the lexical level at the expense of the textual level when doing technical texts, because they are mesmerized by technical terms.

7.4.3 Timing of revision: In another study in the same sequence, Künzli (2007, pp.115-26) investigates the aspect of time spent on revising, but in this occasion he examined the performance of professional translators who were revising a legal text rather than a technical one. In this study he uses the same ten translators recruited in the previous study. Similarly, this study uses think-aloud protocols as a method of investigation. The recorded spoken verbalisations of the subjects were revised by a subject-matter expert who was a university teacher with degrees in law and translation and with 20 years legal translation teaching experience. She was asked to evaluate the participants' output by comparing it to the unrevised translation.

The results of the study disclosed that the relationship between the time spent on revision and its effectiveness was conflicting. It was revealed that the two translators who spent more time than all the others produced the best revised versions compared to the rest of the group. In addition, those versions were not only recognised as better but also as acceptable to the evaluator. These two participants were among the four who declared that they had familiarity with the legal translation. Unexpectedly, however, the next two participants who also spent more time yielded the worst revised versions which were nonetheless worse than the draft itself. Surprisingly, one of these two belongs to the four participants who were familiar with legal translation and expected to do better than participants who were unfamiliar. As a result, it has been rationalised that the time spent on revision does not necessarily relate positively to the quality of the yielded output. The results were also explained in the light of the time when the participants did the revision as they had two other texts to revise. It was revealed that participants who revised the legal text first improved the draft translation, whereas those who revised it last impaired the draft (ibid, p.124). This finding indicates that the quality of revision may be affected by the degree of the tiredness the reviser feels. This makes the issue worthy of investigation and will have practical and pedagogical implications. The way translations are revised is a relevant issue to translator training because translators need to self-revise their translations or, in certain cases to revise the

translations of others as a part of their job. As a result, they need to acquire the skills, principles and competencies necessary to carry out the tasks of revisers (ibid, p.125).

Undoubtedly, timing revision is associated with the different phases of the revision process. Many authors agree that there are three noticeable phases in the translation process despite the differences in the labels they use for them. Table 7.1 below gives some examples:

Table 7.1 Phases of the Translation Process

Author	Year	Phases
Englund Dimitrova	2005	planning the task, writing the translated text and revising the text
Jakobsen	2003	initial orientation, drafting and revising
Mossop	2001	pre-drafting, drafting, post-drafting
Jääskeläinen	1999	Pre-writing, writing and post-writing.

In these studies it is obvious that self-revision takes place in the last phase of the translation process, whatever name it takes. Nevertheless, this is not necessarily the case as much of the revision is carried out during the drafting stage and proceeds to the post-drafting or the revising stage. Englund Dimitrova (2005, p.22) reflected on this point as follows:

Most of the terms are chosen on the basis of empirical data, which potentially makes them unsuitable in view of the analysis of future data, which may differ in nature: for instance, the terms *drafting phase* or *Rohübersetzungsphase* seem to imply that the translator views the first version as a draft and later makes a number of revisions in it, although in the literature there are examples of subjects considering the task finished after this phase.

7.4.4 Revision and the treatment of errors: Another issue of revision quality was investigated by Arthern (1983, 1987 & 1991). The investigation aimed to explore the effect of revision on the text in terms of:

- the errors left unchanged by the reviser,
- the extent to which the changes made were necessary to improve the text, and
- the fact that the changes made were really necessary, unnecessary or harmful.

The author presented inventories of the different kinds of errors in revision which his participants made together with the perceived effects they have on the revised product.

7.4.5 Revision and directionality: The relationship between revision and the direction of translation has been investigated by some studies. The results regarding this aspect were not compatible. Jakobsen (2003, p.88), for example, concludes that “[c]ontrary to expectation and prediction, no significant effect was found between language direction and revision”. Although, in an earlier study (2002, p.202) the same author reveals that professional translators and student translators similarly did a little more revision when they work in the L1 into L2 direction or under the TAP condition. However, Alves et al. (2009, p.289) found that “when the orientation, drafting, and revision phases are considered separately, directionality does have an impact on the process”.

7.4.6 Revision, expertise and TC: The relationship between revision and TC has been investigated by a number of studies through analysing the revision patterns of translation students and of professional translators. Campbell (1998, p.150) investigates the revision patterns of student translators when he considers translation monitoring (which comprises revision) as one of the three components of his model of TC. He concludes that “the ability to monitor output is indeed a describable facet of translation competence” (ibid.). Conversely, Antunovic and Pavlovic (2011, p.232) did not find consistent connections between SL competence and the kind and amount of revisions.

Some other studies compared revision patterns of student translators or non-translators with those of professionals. Jensen (1999, p.113) found that professional translators do more corrections in the revision phase compared to the non-translators. To the contrary, non-translators do significantly more corrections than professional translators during the translation in the drafting phase. Jakobsen (2002, p.194) found that the general pattern for the professional translators involved in his study “was that they devoted slightly more time to initial orientation (...) and rather more time to end revision than the student translators. Yet, Englund Dimitrova (2005, p.116), in the discussion of revisions during the drafting phase, did not find a “clear pattern which correlates with amount of experience in translation”.

7.4.7 Revision and translating style: This point refers to the approach a translator adopts in distributing the activities of the translation process, including revision, over the phases of that process. Mossop (2010, p.19) describes two different styles or strategies that translators use in conducting their translation and two others in revision:

- In the first style, translators prepare thoroughly by reading the entire text and do a large amount of 'conceptual or terminological research' before beginning the drafting phase of the translation.
- In the second style, translators take a quick look at the text and then start drafting the translation.

As for self-revision, there are two styles too:

- There are translators who do not make corrections while they draft their translation but move smoothly onto translating the whole text and then self-revise the translation.
- On the other hand, there are translators who do most of the self-revision during the drafting phase, leaving very little to the post-drafting phase. They make changes once and again, consider an earlier translated part of the text and make corrections.

Asadi and Seguinot (2005, p.527) agree with Mossop, stating that professionals appear to adopt one or the other of two styles or 'cognitive approaches' in the production of their translation, which includes the process of revision.

- The first style involves what they call 'prospective thinking' which is similar to the 'precomputer translation' where:

professionals using a typewriter or Dictaphone were forced to translate first mentally or orally, taking in large chunks of text and reading ahead for comprehension before beginning to type (2005, p.527).

In this style most of the decisions and the translation planning are done before drafting. The authors sympathetically refer to monitoring which results in taking decisions at the text-level, and affects the consistency of the whole translation (ibid, p.529).

- The other style of production is what they called the ‘on-screen’ style. In this style translators do less planning as compared to the previous style and deal with shorter segments of the ST. Changes are made in lexical choices in the translated sentence segments as they progress in their translation. Similarly, changes in syntax are made when sentences are translated which reflects the growing comprehension. Users of this style make “constant backtracking, rereading translated segments, and then moving segments of the translation to produce target syntax where necessary (ibid, p.530). Both styles are illustrated in Figure 7.1 below, adopted from ibid, p. 527).

Figure 7.1 Asadi and Seguinot’s Styles of Translation Production

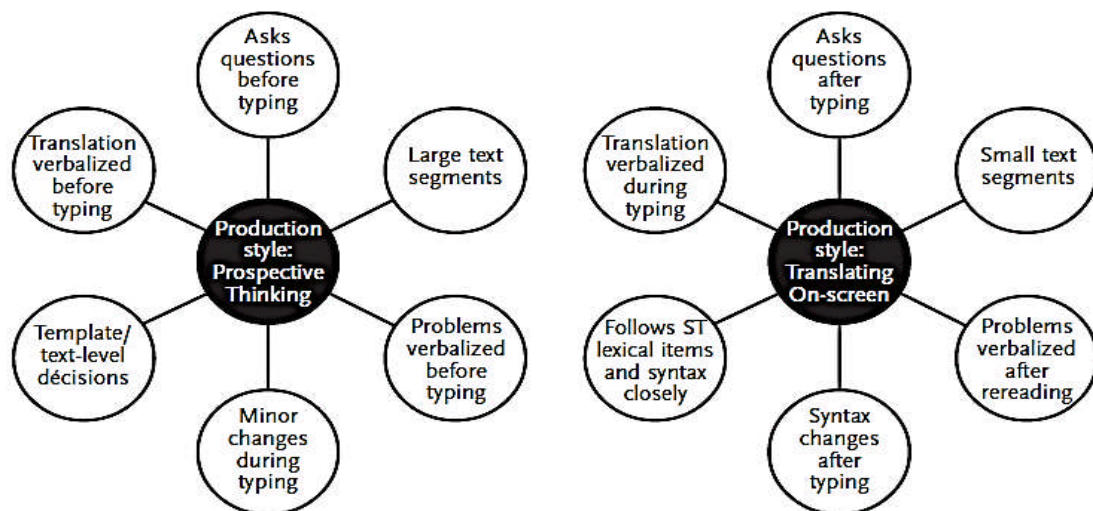


FIGURE 1
A model of signs of a *Prospective Thinking* production style

FIGURE 2
A model of signs of a *Translating On-screen* production style

Englund Dimitrova (2005, pp.152-153) discusses the possible existence of ‘different process profiles’ according to the translator’s application and distribution of the three phases of planning, text generation and revising during the translation process. She defines the concept of process profiles as:

a stable set of process characteristics at the individual level, or to more general profiles where the process characteristics of a given individual may vary between different tasks and modalities (...) and thus coincide with different profiles (ibid, p.152).

She sketches out five different process profiles based on the data she derived from her subjects, who were nine participants only categorized into four professional translators, two translation students and three language students (ibid, pp.76-77). However, she asserts that she cannot generalise her process profiles to other translation tasks and situations or to other participants. The same idea is highlighted by Mossop (2010, 170), who points out that translators perhaps “use different approaches depending on whether the text is short or long, urgent or not, poorly or well-written, on a familiar or unfamiliar topic.”

7.5 Self-Revision

Self-revision strikingly differs from other revision in aims and concerns. Mossop (2007, p.12) stresses that the issues that worry the other-reviser do not usually worry the self-reviser. For example, the self-reviser is fully aware of the ST which he must have already read and comprehended before moving to drafting, which is the next phase of the translation process. Thus, there is no place for unilingual revision at all in the process of self-revision because both the ST and TT are present in the situation to consult whenever needed. In addition, the translator generally has no reason to make unnecessary changes to his own translation and is usually unduly attached to his own wording because he is not seduced to change, unlike the other reviser who may make unnecessary changes just to show that he has done his job thoroughly. Finally, unlike what usually takes place in other revision, self-revision is normally carried out at the same time of drafting or directly after it without leaving lengthy time intervals between the two processes. What Mossop states here is almost true because the reviser himself is the translator, and the administrative procedures of referral are non-existent, which saves time. But this may not apply to all cases especially to long documents where there is always a later phase for revision. Yet Mossop indicates that most of the early studies of self-revision (from 1985 to 1995) were carried out on students, who were not necessarily translation students, rather than on professional translators (ibid, p.12). Thus, he indirectly questions the validity of such studies in that they did not recruit the suitable participants in their experiments, which could have undermined the value of their findings.

A salient and fairly detailed study of self-revision was conducted by Englund Dimitrova (2005) where both think-aloud protocols and keystroke recording were employed on a combination of participants composed of nine subjects of varying translation experience. They were two very experienced senior translators, two less experienced junior professional translators, two translation students and three language students. They translated a two-page text from a L2 (Russian) into their L1 (Swedish). The study investigated a variety of issues, where professional translators were compared to students. These issues include the number of changes made, the time of making the changes, the resort to the ST and the correspondence between what the translators say and what they actually do (pp. 67-77).

The results of the study show that the two senior translators significantly differ from the other translators in the number of revisions they made, which were impressively fewer than those made by the other participants. In addition, those two experienced professionals made most of their revisions during the drafting process and very few during the post drafting phase of the translation. This phenomenon was construed by the author as a result of the tendency of the less experienced translators to defer the revision to the post-drafting stage and she suggests that it is their intention to see the drafted TT before deciding on what needs to be revised (pp.142-149).

However, Englund Dimitrova portrays a methodological problem which she faced concerning the reliability of the simultaneous reporting made by professional translators. She states that they did not always practice what they tell they were going to do when they describe their work habits:

When comparing the described usual work procedures with the actual approach during this task, it was found that three of the four professionals deviated from their verbalized habits (ibid, p.137).

For example, they may not let the text rest, as they claimed, before they go to post-drafting revision, or they may not actually revise the draft on paper (as they confessed) rather than on the computer screen to find problems which may go unnoticed in the onscreen revision. Subsequently, she speculates that those professionals might say things which they believe translators should do as a rule, or that they might practice these procedures when they translate a different

text type in a different situation or in the real workplace. She also takes this phenomenon as an indicator of those participants' flexibility as professional translators, with work habits that may be adjusted to suit different situations (ibid.).

Other interesting facts that Englund Dimitrova arrived at in the same study concern the participants' comments when revising. She finds out that only 10% of the total comments concern the ST correspondence while all the remainder concern aspects of the TT, and that senior professional participants made none of the comments that concerned the ST. Relying on the think aloud transcripts, she also submits that much of the translation and the revision are mentally attempted first before they were drafted, especially by the professionals who literally and mentally translate short chunks, revise them mentally first and then write them down. In some other instances, they write down the literal translations and then revise them to something non-literal either immediately or later. She suggests that this process helps in freeing the short-term memory for the processing of larger units and to evaluate the style and pragmatics, which realizes the purpose of the translation. However the author suggests that using literal translation is a more common strategy in the translation of typologically similar languages (pp.137-151).

Another basic self-revision study, by Asadi and Séguinot (2005), has tackled the translator's approach to the process of translation as far as production and time of revision are concerned. It aimed to find out the strategies which professional translators employ to handle knowledge gaps and memory capacity using the minimum amount of time and effort to produce their quality translations (p.524). The subjects of the study were nine professional translators into their L1; seven working from English into French and the other two working from French into English. The keystroke recording and think aloud protocols were used as the method of investigation. The study identified two different approaches to the translation initial composition, which correspond with Englund Dimitrova's and Krings's findings. On the one hand, the study revealed that some translators seemed to mentally create their initial translations before entering them on screen, making only a few changes immediately after that. On the other hand, the others seemed to revise while translating as they frequently type their renditions and immediately revise them. The study also identified

different distributions in the tasks of writing, researching and revising over the various phases of pre-drafting, drafting and post-drafting phases. These distributions show that, on the one extreme, there were people who started their work by writing very quickly and leaving most of the work of research and revision until the drafting phase; whereas, on the other extreme, there were people who did most of their revision as they drafted the translation. In the latter case those translators would have little left that they would do during post-drafting (ibid, p.538).

In a significant empirical study, Jakobsen (2002, pp.191-204), investigates translation drafting of both professional translators and translation students from the point of view of translation process and product. The subjects of the study were all Danish native speakers comprising four student translators and four professional translators. Each subject translated four texts; two Danish into English and two English into Danish. The recording of keystrokes and the time devoted to each stage of the translation were recorded. Three stages were identified: pre-drafting, drafting and post drafting. The study revealed that the results agree with Englund Dimitrova's that professionals completed the drafting phase more quickly than the student translators, they also spent more time on post-drafting than them, yet, the professionals made fewer changes than students in this phase, which means that they mostly retain the same text they have initially decided on with minimum changes:

Not only did the professional translators produce target text faster than student translators, but the text they produced was more durable. Once a solution had been found and allowed by the translator's internal censor to be typed, it was more likely to survive into the final target text version than the much more volatile and tentative solutions produced by the student translators (ibid, 203)

Finally, an interesting point regarding the amount of revision that this study reveals is denoting that both professionals and students did a little more revision during the drafting phase when translating into the L2.

In an empirical study, Shih (2006) investigated self-revision from the point of view of the translator. The study was based on an interview conducted to 26 non-literary translators who work from English into three other languages;

French, German and Chinese. The participants were asked questions about four areas in their revision practices including

- the number of times they separately go over a translation,
- the length of the 'drawer-time', which refers to the period of time the translators put their drafts aside before revising them,
- what they are looking for when revising as reflected by the 'translators revision checklists' and,
- Finally, the other revision procedures they employed and whether they think they use any unusual revision practices (p. 295).

The results of the study revealed that the translators generally claimed that they revise their translations for only few times, and this is opposite to the popular belief that they revise them many times. As for the drawer-time it was revealed that it very seldom exceeds one night, yet some of them think that leaving the translation to rest is not necessary. Regarding what they are looking for when revising, the study confirmed that they included Mossop's parameters (2001, pp.99-112) and added to them. It also showed that translators develop their own habits of revision depending on their previous experiences, the feedback they get from their clients and their personal working style. However, the general picture shows that translators believe that revision is necessary and useful when there is time for it because it helps to repair a variety of aspects in the text. Finally, these responses made by the translators provide insights to the translator trainers about the utility of confirming and encouraging undertaking revision as an integral part of the translation process (ibid, p.311).

7.6 Summary

- In the study of translation revision one faces the difficulty of limiting the definition of the term 'revision'. It is a challenging issue due to the fact that different researchers used diverse, imprecise and overlapping terms to refer to the concept or to some facets of it. In addition to the fact that those terms were not well-established, they were used interchangeably and without definite considerable transparent distinction criteria to the degree that they sometimes become misleading. In fact, the lack of

reliable principles to limit the task of the translation reviser contributes to this vague and indistinct situation. The reviser may find himself performing the different tasks of the reviser, editor, proofreader, literary critic, and writer. This poses questions to the translator training institution about what to include in the curriculum and the assessment of the translator and reviser trainee.

- The nature and effect of revision is decided by a number of factors that are not determined by the reviser and in most cases they are imposed on him. They may not conform to the general principles of revision but rather follow the aims and desires of the customer to whom the translation is made. For example, the time limit that is allotted to the reviser or imposed on him decides to some extent the amount and quality of the revision and ultimately the quality of the yielded translation. The function of the document may also decide the nature of the revision as some documents require more precision and fidelity to the ST than others. For instance, a legal or a scientific text usually demands more terminological precision than a journalistic or a literary text which, in turn, demands more concentration on form rather than on the objective facts.
- Some other factors which affect the process of revision also relate to the reviser and to the situation in which he works and decide his revision performance. These include the translation direction whether he is working into his L1 or into a second or foreign one where language competence and proficiency vary significantly. The reviser's expertise in the field he works in also decides the degree of success in his revision depending on the degree of familiarity with the terminology that is used in the specific text. Moreover, the reviser's personal style can well interfere with the quality of his revision.
- Empirical studies on revision have arrived at somehow conflicting results concerning the kinds of revision, time, effectiveness, level and relation to TC. In most cases the time that is spent on revision is not aimlessly wasted as it was seen that revision mostly enhances the quality of the revised texts, whether carried out during the drafting phase or after it. Although the results were conflicting regarding the amount of time that is

spent on revision and the resulting amendments on the quality of the revised text, they generally support the positive effect on the quality of the yielded output. The level of difficulty of a text decides the level at which the translator works and subsequently the level of the reviser's work. In difficult texts, for example, translators, and revisers too, tend to work at the lexical rather than the textual level. However, revision remains one of the indispensable phases in the translation process which indicates the translator's competence.

7.7 The current Study

7.7.1 Introduction

The current study has empirically investigated the degree of relevance between real-time self-revision and TC into the L1. It basically tackles the translator's opportunity of intervention to improve the output through real-time revision. This intervention includes all additions, deletions and amendments the translator makes in his attempts at improving the quality of his translation output. Systematic variation among translators in the effectiveness of that intervention can be proposed as a facet of TC. The systematic variation here refers to following noticeable patterns of intervention such as replacing a certain lexical item by another, deleting a preposition, changing the tense of the verb, shifting the place of certain items and so on.

As was stated in the Methodology (Chapter 3), the participants were asked, in the directions to the experiment, to write their translations together with all the changes and corrections with ballpoint-pens. This makes it unlikely that the corrections or changes will be completely erased and the crossed out words will be possible to read to ensure noticing as many interventions or corrections as possible. The measurement of this dimension is carried out by making inventories of the changes or "interventions/no-interventions", referred to as "edits/no edits" by Campbell (1998, pp.138-139) which were carried out by each translator. It was also argued that it is not important to time the revision because it is not a separate process in terms of time as it takes place during the same session. It is normally conducted as an integral part of the translating process whether it took place during the drafting phase or directly after. It is most likely conducted at various stages of that process and varies from one translator to

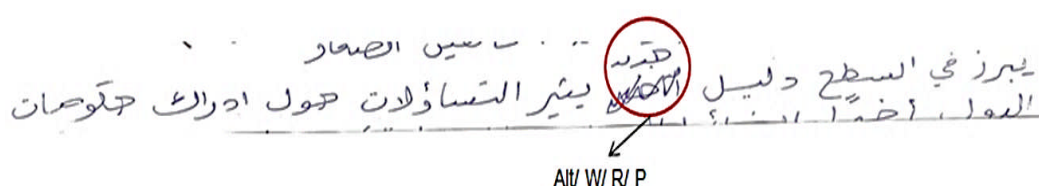
the other. However, an idea was explored as the participants were asked in the retrospective questionnaire about the timing of their revision during the translation process and about the amount of time they spent on revision as such for each text. Subsequently, the interventions were categorized according to the six dimensions that Campbell used in his analysis (ibid, pp.138-40). Each participant interventions were checked on a copy of the translated texts to identify the strategy, the level, the purpose and the effect. The following acronyms were used to work out the results:

Alt= alternative, C= correction, Del= deletion, Fs= false start, Ins= insertion, Neg= negative, Neu= neutral, Par= participant, Ph= phrase, Pos= positive, Ps= partial switch, S= sentence, R= Textual revision, W= word.

(i) **Strategy**: there are five kinds of strategy that were observed by Campbell (p.138) and adopted in this study. They are:

1. Alternative (called 'Bracketed Alternative' by Campbell), where the translator places a word or a phrase between brackets as a substitute to a previously written one. However, in this study the term 'Alternative' is used in a somewhat broader sense to include, in addition to the bracketed alternatives, alternative renditions given above an item, below or after it. For example:

Participant 1, Text 1 gives an alternative translation of 'new' (جديد jadīd) in place of (الأحدث al'aḥḍaṭ 'the newest') which he used first. So, the strategy is providing an alternative, at the level of the word, the purpose is revision and the effect is positive.

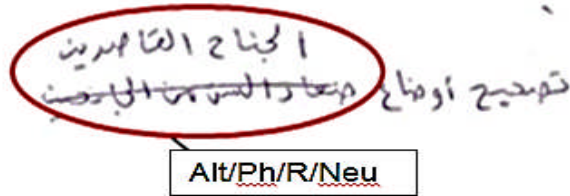


Handwritten Arabic text: "يبرز في السطح دليل الدول أخذت المنارة؟" and "يسير التساؤلات حول ادراك جتوصان". A red circle highlights the word "جديد" (jadīd) in the first sentence. An arrow points from the label "Alt/ W/ R/ P" below to the circled word.

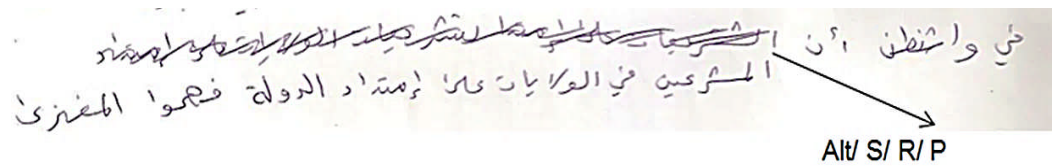
The alternative can be at the level of the phrase or the sentence as can be seen in the following interventions:

Participant 2, in text 1, at the phrase level: aljunāḥ alqāṣīrin (الجُنَاحِ القاصرين Offensive minors) is used in place of (ṣiḡār assan mina aljāniḥīn

Young offenders). So, the strategy is alternative, the level is phrase, the purpose is revision and the effect neutral because the same meaning is conveyed by both.

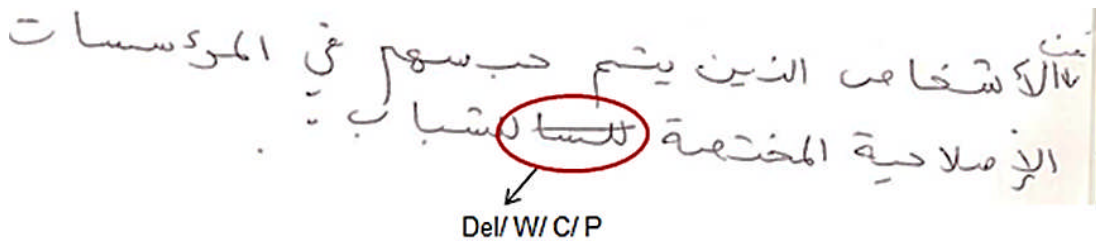


Or it may be at the the sentence level, as the same participant replaces إنَّ التشريعات على إمتداد تشريعات الولايات (inna attašrī'āt 'alā 'imtidād tašrī'āt alwilāyāt) which literally means 'The legislation across legislation' is replaced by (المُشرعين في) almušarī'in fī alwilāyāt 'alā 'imtidād addawla fahimū almağzā). It means 'lawmakers in the different States understood the significance', so the effect is positive as a more accurate rendition is provided.

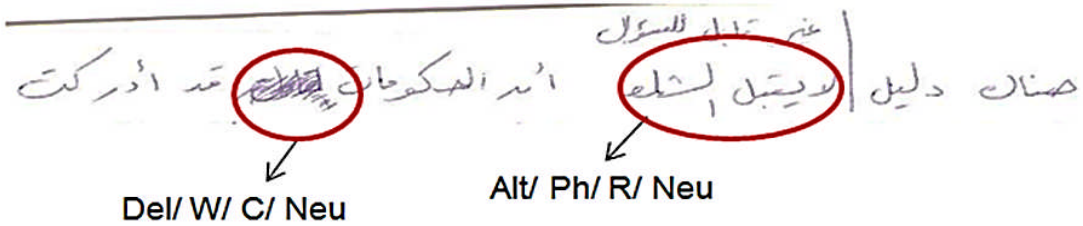


2. Deletion, where the translator deletes material from a previously completed string. Here, he deletes a misspelt word to correct it.

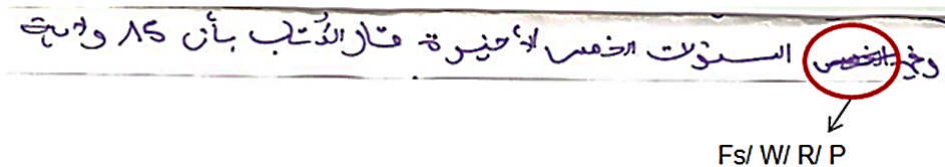
Example: Participant 23, T1:



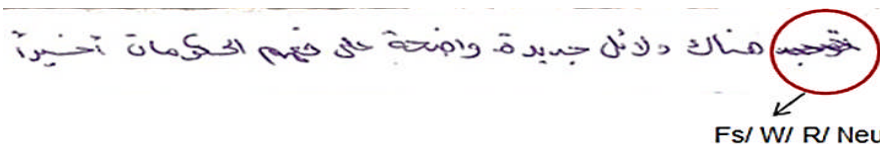
Participant 17, T1, deleted a misspelt word which did not affect the meaning.



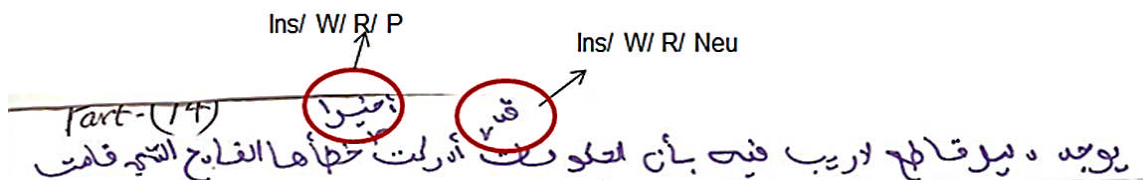
3. False start, where a translator starts a string, deletes it and then resumes. For example: Participant 14, T1 starts a sentence with a wrong word-order, deletes it and resumes correctly.



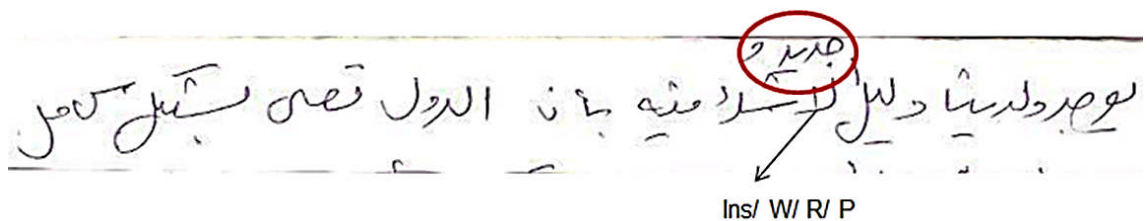
Or par.11, text 1:



4. Insertion, where the translator inserts material in a previously completed string with a caret. For example: Participant 14, text 1:

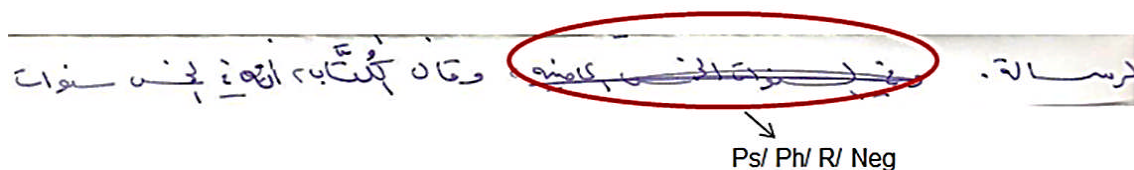


Or participant 4, text 1:

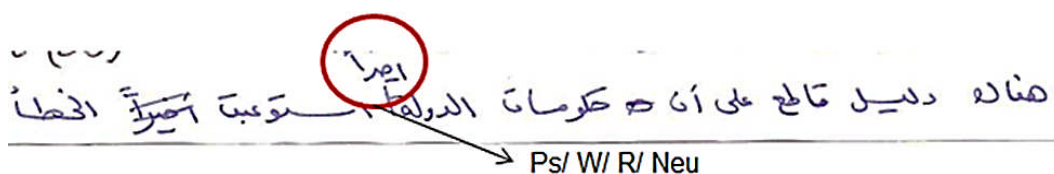


5. Partial switch where the translator moves materials to another place in the text or switches their position in the same string. For example, participant 3, text 1, moves (السنوات الخمس 'alsanawāt alḵams) which is the

correct word order to a latter place (الخمس سنّوات) alḵamssanawāt),
distorting the word order, thus, making a harmful or negative
intervention.



Or participant 3, text 1 who moves the word (أخيرا) aḵīrān ‘finally’) after
(استوعبت) istaw‘abat ‘understood’). The shift does not change the meaning
because the place of the adverb here did not affect the meaning.

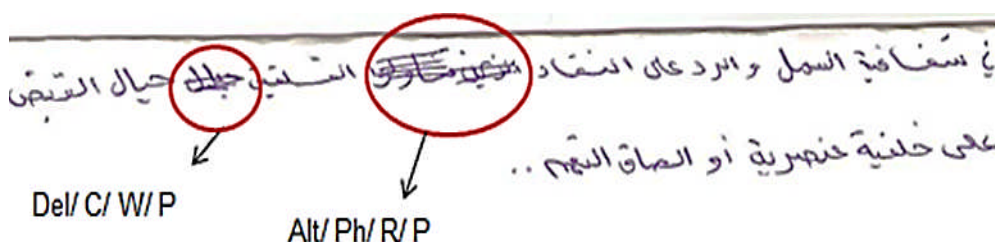


Although these different strategies can be detected when translation revision
is examined, they are used at different levels of frequency by different
translators. However, the wide range of using them all or most of them can be
taken as an indicator of the translator’s monitoring competence, which in turn
indicates the TC of the reviser.

(ii) **Purpose:** Campbell (1998, p.139) assumes that there are two purposes for
what he calls ‘editing’ and which is called ‘real-time self-revision’ in this study.
These are correction and revision. According to Campbell, it is almost difficult to
draw a clear line between them because it is difficult to “disentangle the
intentions of the translator from the opinion of the analyst” (ibid.). In the present
study the term ‘self-revision’ is used in place of Campbell’s ‘editing’ and the
term ‘correction’ is used in the same sense he used it. Thus, it will refer to the
translator’s intervention which aims at correcting structural or/and spelling
errors. However, Campbell’s ‘revision’ is renamed here as ‘textual revision’ in
order to make it more specific. Yet, it retains the same sense that he referred to
which is revising the translation from the point of view of semantic equivalence
and textual building, regardless of whether the translation is structurally well-
formed or not. Thus, the term ‘revision’ in this study refers to both correction
and textual revision. The following example illustrates both kinds:

Context: participant 11, T2 (...) *could quell critics who talk about concerns regarding racial profiling and pre-textual arrests.*

The phrase *talk about concerns* is rendered first into (شَارَكُوا *šārakū* 'participated') which is inaccurate. It is replaced then by (الْمُتَعَلِّقِينَ *alqaliqīn* 'concerned'), which is an accurate rendition, and in this way it is a positive one that improved the meaning. On the other hand, the translator crossed a misspelt word and replaced it by a correctly spelt one (حِيَال *ḥiyāla* 'regarding'). This intervention is considered a positive correction in the writing technicalities.



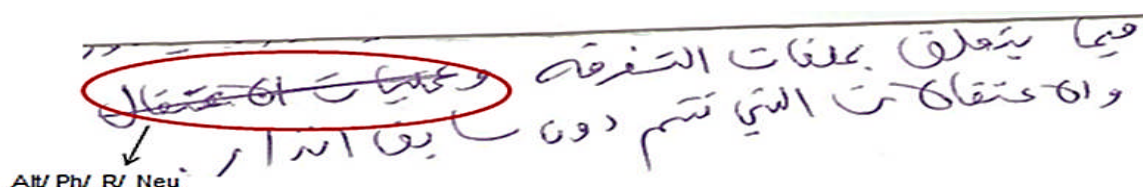
(iii) **Level:** It refers here to the structural level where the self-revision takes place. The three levels set by Campbell are: word, phrase and clause. They are accepted as effective standards in this study except replacing the clause by the sentence for considerations that the sentence is more inclusive than the clause and is commonly adopted as a unit of grammatical and textual analysis. In addition, as the sentence includes the clause as one of its normal components, including both in one category allows reducing the number of categories. Practically speaking and upon examining the data of the current study, it was revealed that revisions at the levels of clause and sentence are very few and there is no practical need to deal with them as separate categories. The intervention at the different levels was illustrated clearly by the previous examples.

(iv) **Effect:** The effect of revision is concerned with the influence it has on the output of each translator. There are three types of effect which result from the process of revision: positive, neutral or negative. Positive revisions are those revisions which correct errors or polish the structure in a desirable way making the translation better. Neutral revisions are those which replace a correct segment by another correct one or an incorrect segment by another incorrect one, thus, neither benefiting nor harming the translation. Finally, negative revisions happen when the translator replaces a correct segment by an

incorrect one, unknowingly harming the translation. All the three types of effect were illustrated in the examples above.

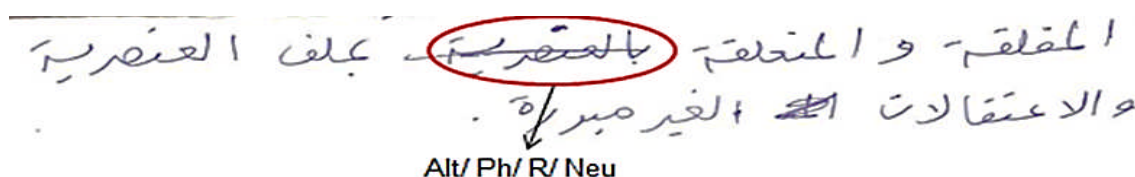
(v) **Frequency:** This can be measured by the number of interventions in a whole TT, or the number of interventions that appear in each part of the TT as a translation of a randomly decided number of words from the ST (per 100 words, for example, as it is suggested and applied by Campbell and in the present study too). For example if a participant makes 11 interventions in his TT as the translation of a ST of 220 words, his intervention frequency is 5.0 only in every 100 words.

(vi) **Economy:** It refers to a translator's tendency to be more economical or not in revising. It can be measured by calculating the number of TT words per revision, used by each participant so that it becomes comparable to those of the others. For example, when a participant revising his draft tends to replace single words by larger combinations such as phrases or even clauses and sentences, he is judged to be uneconomical because he is going to produce a larger text than the original draft and subsequently than the ST, whereas another may use less words in the final version than the first draft, for example, participant 15, in T2 made this intervention:



فما يتعلق بملفات التفريغ
والاعتقالات التي تسمى دون
عمليات الاعتقال
Alt/ Ph/ R/ Neu

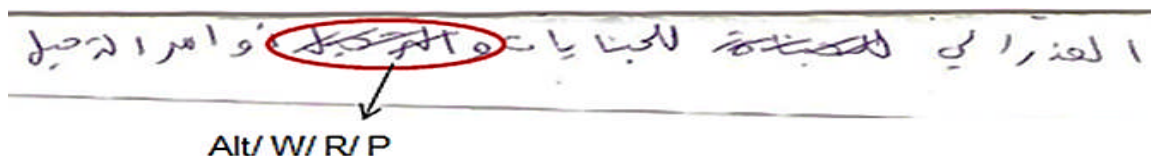
Here the translator successfully replaced a phrase (عمليات الاعتقال) 'amaliyāt aliā 'itqāl) by a single word conveying the same meaning (الاعتقالات : Arrests) to be more economic. Whereas, participant 1, in T2, replaces a two-word phrase (بملف العنصرية) bilunsuriya 'racism') by a three-word phrase (ملف العنصرية والاعتقالات) bimalaf al'unşuriya 'File of racism') which makes it less economic:



الملف العنصرية والاعتقالات
بملف العنصرية
والاعتقالات
Alt/ Ph/ R/ Neu

Similarly, participant 2, in T2: Context: *criminal convictions and deportation orders*.

He replaced one word (attarḥīl الترحيل 'Deportation') by a phrase (أوامر الترحيل) 'awāmīr attarḥīl 'Deportation orders) to make a positive change at the expense of economy:



7.7.2 The results: The results of the analysis of each text are displayed separately and then a combination of the results of both texts is presented. The general results of self-revision will be displayed first, the results of each assessment dimension will follow and the statistical analysis comes last.

7.7.2.1 Text One: Table 7.2 below shows the results of the participants' real-time self-revision of T1, calculated and tabulated in accordance with Campbell's six dimensions employed in this study as explained earlier. The following acronyms will be used in the oncoming tables.

Alt= alternative, C= correction, Del= deletion, Econ= Economy, Freq= Frequency, Fs= false start, Ins= insertion, NInt= noticed Interventions, Neg= negative, Neu= neutral, Par= participant, Ph= phrase, Pos= positive, Ps= partial switch, S= sentence, TR= Textual revision, W= word.

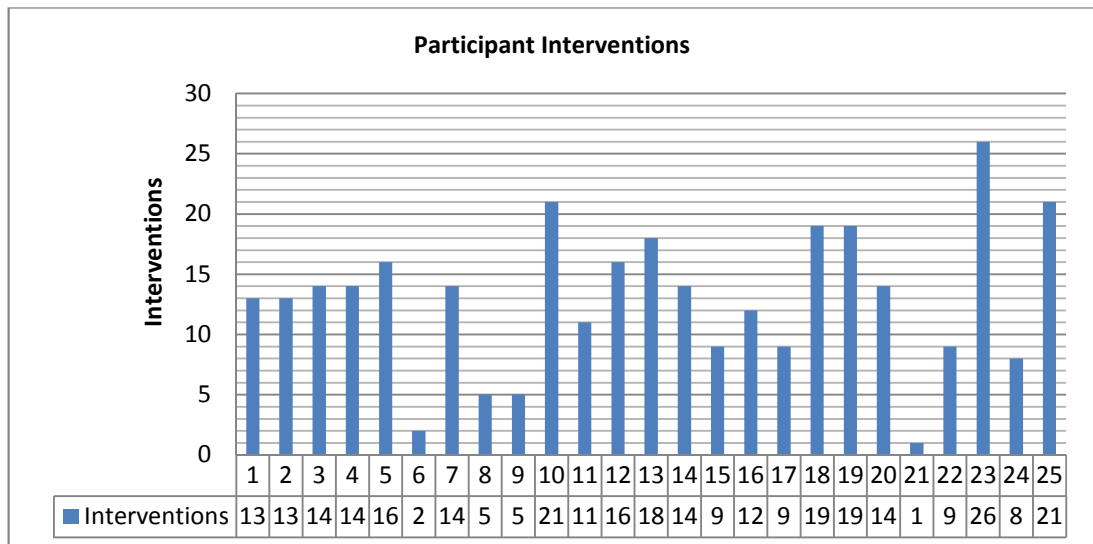
Table 7.2 Text One: Participant Self-Revision

Par	NInt	Strategy					Purpose		Level			Effect			Freq	Econ
		Alt	Del	Fs	Ins	Ps	C	TR	W	Ph	S	Pos	Neu	neg	100	W per Int
01	13	7	2	1	1	2	1	13	11	1	1	13	0	0	5.90	1.38
02	13	11	1	1	0	0	2	11	5	7	1	9	4	0	5.90	2.07
03	14	6	6	2	0	0	6	8	11	3	0	8	5	1	6.36	1.42
04	14	8	3	0	2	1	5	9	9	5	0	11	2	1	6.36	1.50
05	16	9	5	1	0	1	5	11	11	5	0	4	11	1	7.27	1.31
06	2	1	0	1	0	0	0	2	1	1	0	0	2	0	0.90	1.50
07	14	4	7	2	0	1	3	11	11	3	0	8	6	0	6.36	1.35
08	5	2	2	1	0	0	2	3	4	1	0	3	2	0	2.27	1.00
09	5	3	0	2	0	0	2	3	3	2	0	5	0	0	2.27	1.40
10	21	11	6	1	2	1	6	15	16	5	0	16	5	0	9.54	1.00
11	11	7	3	1	0	0	1	10	8	3	0	7	3	1	5.00	1.45
12	16	6	9	0	1	0	5	11	13	4	0	5	11	0	7.27	1.06
13	18	10	3	0	3	1	2	16	12	5	1	14	3	1	8.18	1.33
14	14	8	2	2	2	0	3	11	7	7	0	11	3	0	6.36	1.64
15	9	4	4	0	0	1	4	5	6	3	0	9	0	0	4.09	1.22
16	12	5	3	0	3	1	2	10	6	6	0	7	5	0	5.45	1.5
17	9	6	2	0	0	1	2	7	5	4	0	3	6	0	4.09	1.77
18	19	10	4	2	1	2	3	16	12	8	0	4	14	1	8.63	1.68
19	19	14	3	1	0	1	7	12	14	4	1	9	8	2	8.63	1.36
20	14	10	2	1	1	0	3	11	3	10	1	7	6	1	6.36	1.57

21	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0.45	1.00
22	9	5	2	1	0	1	3	6	7	2	0	5	3	1	4.09	1.22
23	26	17	5	2	1	1	5	21	13	11	2	19	6	1	11.8	1.73
24	8	3	3	0	0	2	3	5	6	2	0	5	2	1	3.63	1.5
25	21	7	5	0	4	5	3	18	11	8	2	15	5	1	9.54	2.33
X	12.9	7	3.3	0.8	0.84	1	3.2	9.8	8.1	4.5	0.4	7.9	4.5	1	5.86	1.45
Sum	323	174	83	22	21	23	79	244	205	109	9	198	112	13		

The results show that the total number of the noticed interventions made by the 25 participants was (323), unevenly distributed among the participants. The highest number of interventions was 26 made by participant (23) and the lowest was 1 only made by participant (21). Figure 7.2 below displays the interventions made by each participant.

Figure 7.2 Text One: Participant Noticed Interventions



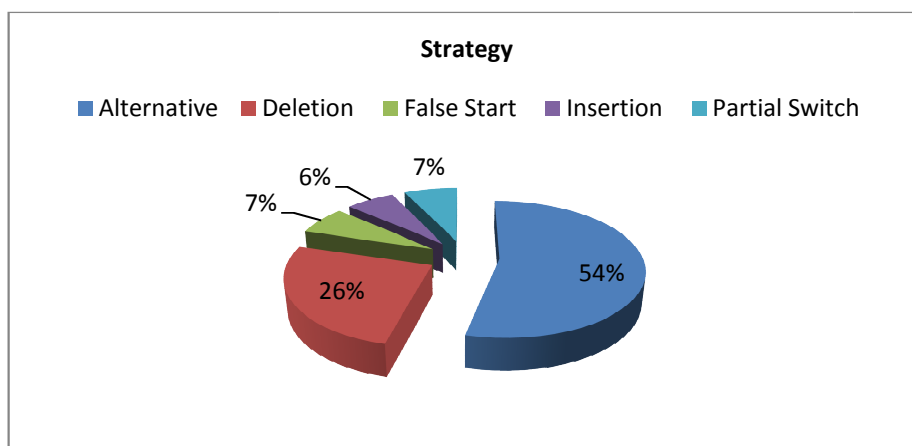
The striking variation among participants in the number of the interventions can be similarly noticed in the distribution of the five strategies that were used by the translators. The total interventions which took the form of an alternative segment were 174, followed by 83 deletions, 23 partial switches 22 false starts, and 21 insertions. Table 7.3 below gives a closer picture of the dimension of **strategy** in the revision of T1 together with the percent of each segment.

Table 7.3 Text One Revision: The Dimension of Strategy

Par.	NInt.	Alternative		Deletion		False Start		Insertion		Partial Switch	
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
01	13	7	53.48	2	15.38	1	7.69	1	7.69	2	15.38
02	13	11	84.61	1	7.69	1	7.69	0	0	0	0
03	14	6	42.85	6	42.85	2	14.28	0	0	0	0
04	14	8	57.14	3	21.43	0	0	2	14.28	1	7.14
05	16	9	56.25	5	31.25	1	6.25	0	0	1	6.25
06	2	1	50	0	0	1	50	0	0	0	0
07	14	4	28.57	7	50	2	14.26	0	0	1	7.14
08	5	2	40	2	40	1	20	0	0	0	0
09	5	3	60	0	0	2	40	0	0	0	0
10	21	11	50.38	6	28.57	1	4.76	2	9.52	1	4.76
11	11	7	63.63	3	27.27	1	9.09	0	0	0	0
12	16	6	37.50	9	56.25	0	0	1	6.25	0	0
13	18	10	55.55	3	16.66	1	5.55	3	16.66	1	5.55
14	14	8	57.14	2	14.28	2	14.28	2	14.28	0	0
15	9	4	44.44	4	44.44	0	0	0	0	1	11.11
16	12	5	41.66	3	25	0	0	3	25	1	8.33
17	9	6	66.66	2	22.22	0	0	0	0	1	11.11
18	19	10	52.63	4	21.05	2	10.52	1	5.26	2	10.52
19	19	14	73.68	3	15.79	1	5.26	0	0	1	5.26
20	14	10	71.43	2	14.28	1	7.14	1	7.14	0	0
21	1	0	0	1	100	0	0	0	0	0	0
22	9	5	55.55	2	22.22	1	11.11	0	0	1	11.11
23	26	17	63.38	5	19.23	2	7.69	1	3.85	1	3.85
24	8	3	37.50	3	37.50	0	0	0	0	2	25
25	21	7	33.33	5	23.80	0	0	4	19.04	5	23.80
Mean	12.92	6.96	51.09	3.32	27.89	0.92	9.42	0.84	5.16	0.88	6.25
Total	323	174	53.87	83	25.70	22	6.81	21	6.50	23	7.12

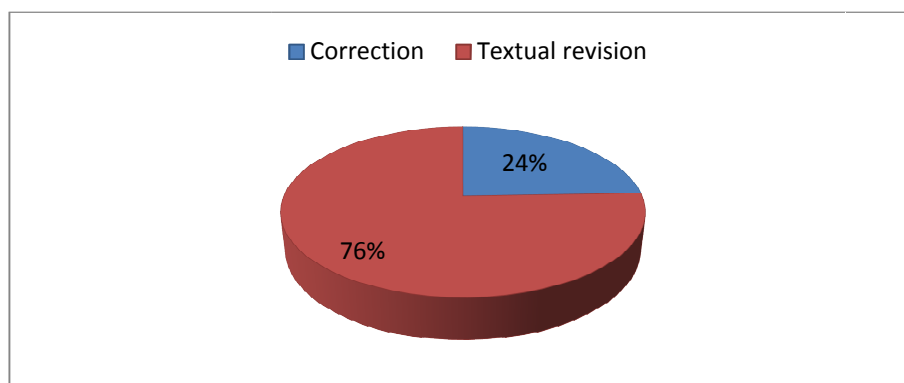
Figure 7.3 is a chart which visually illustrates the proportions of each strategy in the participant revisions. It is obvious that the use of these strategies varies from one participant to the other.

Figure 7.3 Text One Revision: Strategy Distributions



The second dimension investigated the **purpose** of revision. It was revealed that the overwhelming majority of the changes (244) were revisions for textual building. Revisions for correction (79) composed only about one quarter of the total changes. This may suggest that the participants were more concerned about matters of equivalence and textual building than issues of structural and formal correctness.

Figure 7.4 Text One: Correction and Textual Revision Proportion



On the dimension of the **level** of intervention smaller segments were more targeted than larger ones. So, the level of 'word' received the majority of the interventions where 205 interventions were noticed at that level. The 'phrase' level came next with 109, whereas the 'sentence' level underwent only 9 interventions. This result was unexpected, especially from translators who were interested in revision for textual building as was suggested by the results of the

previous dimension of purpose. Figure 7.5 below shows the proportion of each level:

Figure 7.5 Text One: Revision Level

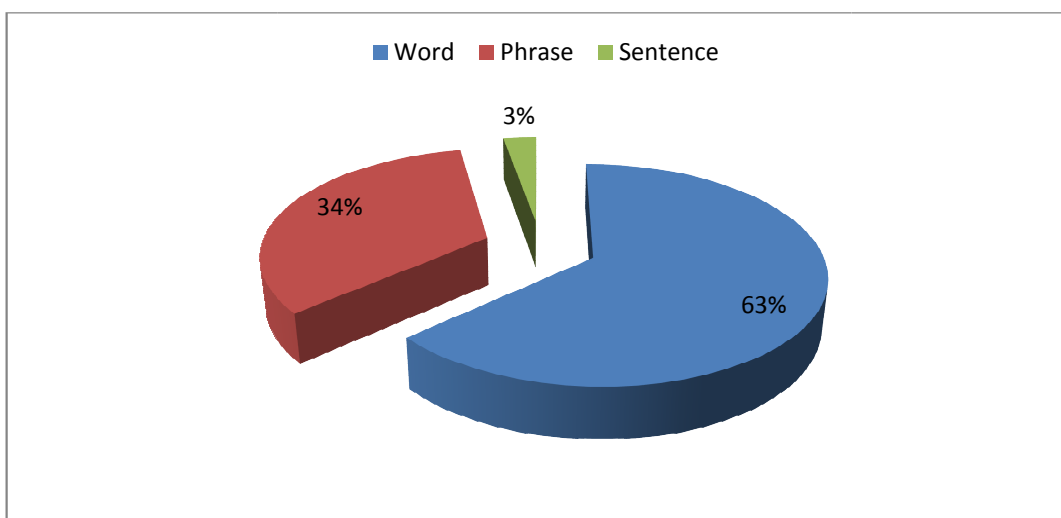


Table 7.4 below gives the details of the dimensions of the purpose and level in the revision of T1 for each participant and for the whole group:

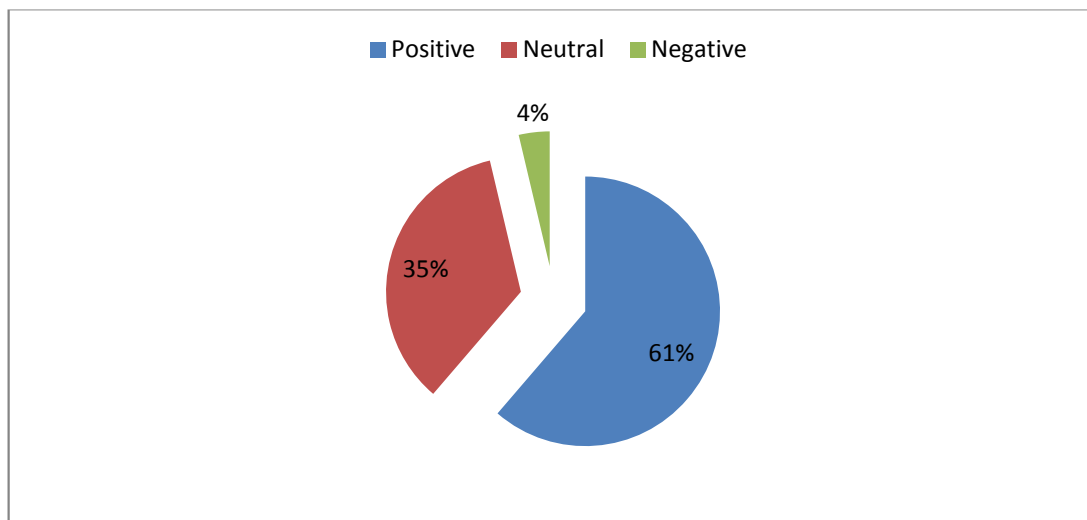
Table 7.4 Text One Revision: The Dimensions of Purpose and Level

Par.	NInt.	Purpose				Level					
		Correction		Textual Revision		Word		Phrase		Sentence	
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
01	13	1	7.69	12	92.30	11	84.61	1	7.69	1	7.69
02	13	2	15.38	11	84.61	5	38.46	7	53.85	1	7.69
03	14	6	42.85	8	57.14	11	78.57	3	21.43	0	0
04	14	5	35.71	9	62.28	9	62.29	5	35.71	0	0
05	16	5	31.25	11	68.75	11	68.75	5	31.25	0	0
06	2	0	0	2	100	1	50	1	50	0	0
07	14	3	21.42	11	78.57	11	78.57	3	21.42	0	0
08	5	2	40	3	60	4	80	1	20	0	0
09	5	2	40	3	60	3	60	2	40	0	0
10	21	6	28.57	15	71.43	16	76.19	5	23.81	0	0
11	11	1	9.10	10	90.90	8	72.73	3	27.27	0	0
12	16	5	31.25	11	68.75	13	81.25	3	18.75	0	0
13	18	2	11.11	16	88.89	12	66.67	5	27.77	1	5.56
14	14	3	21.43	11	78.57	7	50	7	50	0	0
15	9	4	44.44	5	55.56	6	66.67	3	33.33	0	0
16	12	2	16.67	10	83.33	6	50	6	50	0	0
17	9	2	22.22	7	77.78	5	55.56	4	44.44	0	0
18	19	3	15.79	16	84.21	12	63.16	7	36.84	0	0
19	19	7	36.84	12	63.16	14	73.68	4	21.05	1	5.26
20	14	3	21.43	11	78.57	3	21.43	10	71.43	1	7.14

21	1	1	100	0	0	1	100	0	0	0	0
22	9	3	33.33	6	66.67	7	77.78	2	22.22	0	0
23	26	5	19.23	21	80.77	13	50	11	42.31	2	7.69
24	8	3	37.50	5	62.50	6	75	2	25	0	0
25	21	3	14.29	18	85.71	11	52.38	8	38.10	2	9.52
Mean	12.92	3.16	27.9	9.76	72.02	8.24	64.41	4.32	32.55	0.36	2.022
Total	323	79	24.46	244	75.54	205	63.47	109	33.75	9	2.79

As for the fourth dimension which investigated the effect of the revisions on the final output of the translator, it was revealed that the majority of the interventions (197) was positive, and led to improvements in the translation. It was also revealed that a considerable number of the interventions (113) was neutral and made little or no effect on the quality of the translations as correct segments were replaced by other correct segments and incorrect segments were replaced by other incorrect ones. Dissimilarly, only a very small fraction of the interventions (12) was negative in that a correct segment was replaced by an incorrect one which leads to harming the translation quality. Figure 7.6 below shows the proportions of each element in this dimension.

Figure 7.6 Text 1 Revision Effect



So, it is evident from the results of this dimension in particular that revision in this specific study is a useful phase in the translation process which mostly enhances the quality of the final text rather than impairing it. Table 7.5 shows the results of T1 revision in the dimension of effect for all the participants:

Table 7.5 Text One Revision: The Dimension of Effect

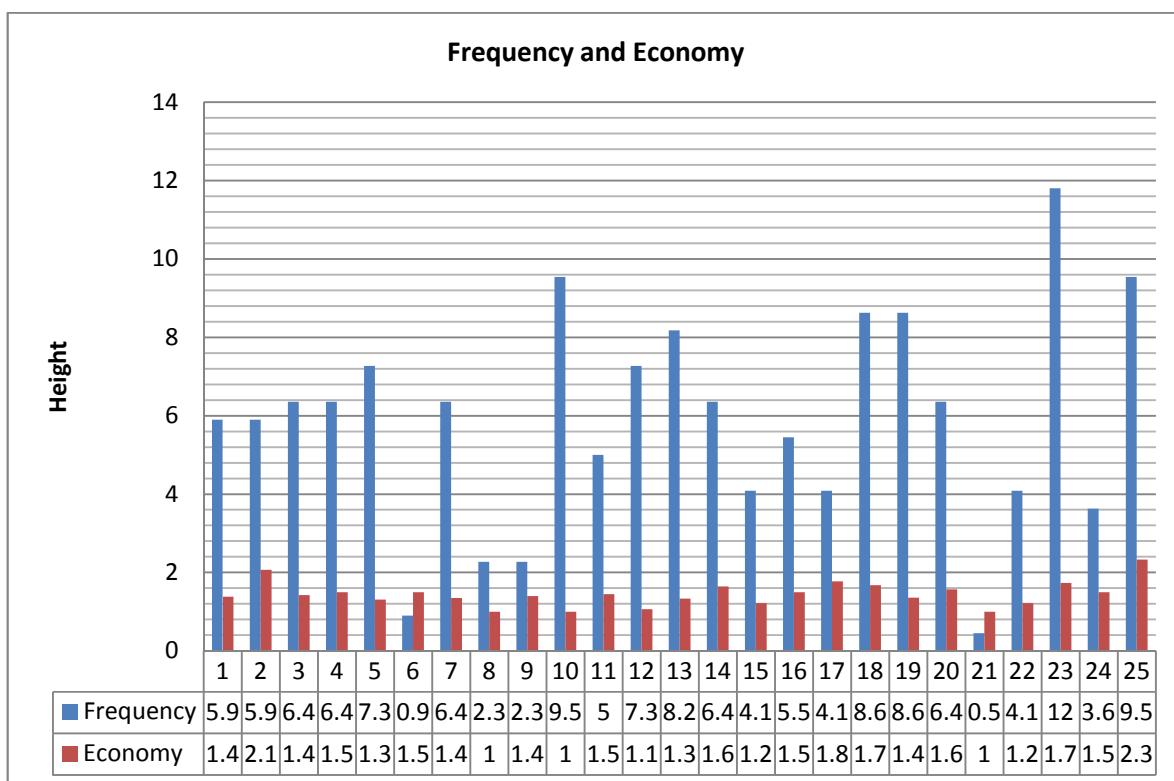
Participant	Noticed Interventions	Positive		Neutral		negative	
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
01	13	13	100	0	0	0	0
02	13	9	69.23	4	30.77	0	0
03	14	8	57.14	5	35.71	1	7.14
04	14	11	78.58	2	14.29	1	7.14
05	16	4	25.00	11	68.75	1	6.25
06	2	0	0	2	100.0	0	0
07	14	8	57.14	6	42.86	0	0
08	5	3	60.00	2	40.00	0	0
09	5	5	100.0	0	0	0	0
10	21	16	76.19	5	23.81	0	0
11	11	7	63.64	3	27.27	1	9.09
12	16	5	31.25	11	68.75	0	0
13	18	14	77.78	3	16.67	1	5.55
14	14	11	78.57	3	21.43	0	0
15	9	9	100.0	0	0	0	0
16	12	7	58.33	5	41.67	0	0
17	9	3	33.33	6	66.67	0	0
18	19	4	21.05	14	73.68	1	5.26
19	19	9	47.36	8	42.10	2	10.53
20	14	7	50.00	6	42.86	1	7.14
21	1	0	0	1	100.0	0	0
22	9	5	55.55	3	33.33	1	11.11
23	26	19	73.08	6	23.08	1	3.84
24	8	5	62.50	2	25.00	1	12.50
25	21	15	71.43	5	23.81	1	4.76
mean	12.92	7.88	57.89	4.52	38.50	0.52	3.61
Total	323	198	61.30	113	34.98	12	3.72

The fifth dimension investigated the **frequency** of revision across the text by counting the number of changes per each 100 words. The results showed that the frequency ranged from as low as 0.45 for participant 21 to the highest frequency of 11.81 for participant 23. The difference in individual frequency can be attributed to the assumption that some translators are inclined to intervene more than others to amend their texts or that some translators revise mentally before putting pencil to paper. However, the average frequency of the changes made by the whole sample for this text was 5.87 per 100 words.

Finally, the dimension of **economy** investigated the size of the interventions as compared to the TT draft original segments, and was measured by

comparing the number of words that were used in each intervention. The smaller the size of the segments used to replace previously used ones (for example a single word in place of a phrase) in the revised version of the TT the more economy the translator displays. It was found that some translators displayed more economy than others. For example, participants 8, 10 and 21 showed the highest economy which was one word per a change of an original word despite the variation in the number and place of the interventions they made, while participant 25 showed the least economy by using 2.33 words per intervention of an original word. The mean of the economy measure was 1.45 for the whole sample. Figure 7.7 below displays the levels of frequency and economy of interventions in T1:

Figure 7.7 Text One: The Dimensions of Frequency and Economy



The significant correlation among the different dimensions can be interpreted as an element of unity among those dimensions and reflects their suitability to assess revision as one pack. However, this idea will be further examined when the results of T2 and the Combined Texts will be displayed and analyzed later in this chapter.

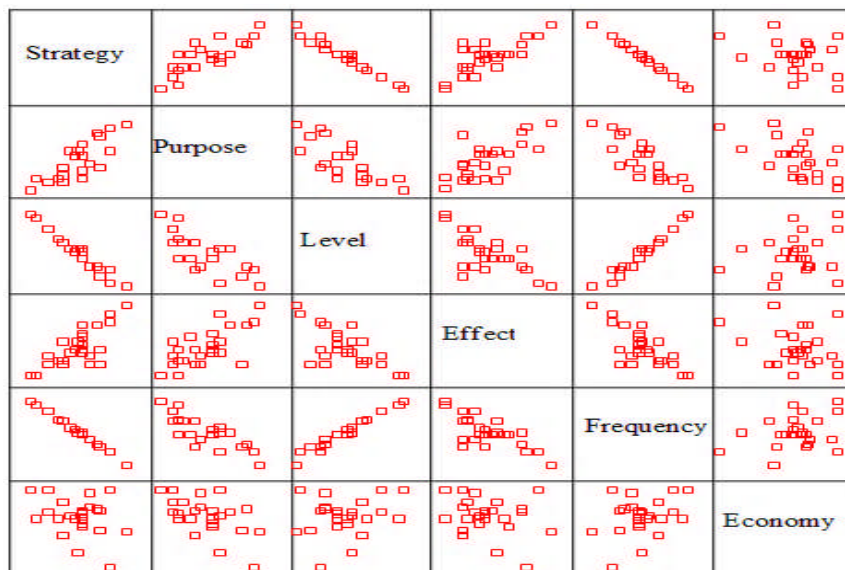
Table 7.6 Text One: Correlations among Dimensions

Dimension		Z score: Strategy	Z score: Purpose	Z score: Level	Z score: Effect	Z score: Frequency	Z score: Economy	Mean z score
Z score: Strategy	Pearson Correlation	1.000	.813**	-.980**	.746**	-.999**	-.326	.213
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000	.000	.000	.000	.111	.307
	N	25	25	25	25	25	25	25
Z score: Purpose	Pearson Correlation	.813**	1.000	-.744**	.686**	-.807**	-.528**	.352
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.	.000	.000	.000	.007	.084
	N	25	25	25	25	25	25	25
Z score: Level	Pearson Correlation	-.980**	-.744**	1.000	-.679**	.982**	.233	-.158
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.	.000	.000	.263	.452
	N	25	25	25	25	25	25	25
Z score: Effect	Pearson Correlation	.746**	.686**	-.679**	1.000	-.738**	-.275	.620**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.	.000	.184	.001
	N	25	25	25	25	25	25	25
Z score: Frequency	Pearson Correlation	-.999**	-.807**	.982**	-.738**	1.000	.328	-.197
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.	.110	.345
	N	25	25	25	25	25	25	25
Z score: Economy	Pearson Correlation	-.326	-.528**	.233	-.275	.328	1.000	.362
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.111	.007	.263	.184	.110	.	.075
	N	25	25	25	25	25	25	25
Mean z score	Pearson Correlation	.213	.352	-.158	.620**	-.197	.362	1.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.307	.084	.452	.001	.345	.075	.
	N	25	25	25	25	25	25	25

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

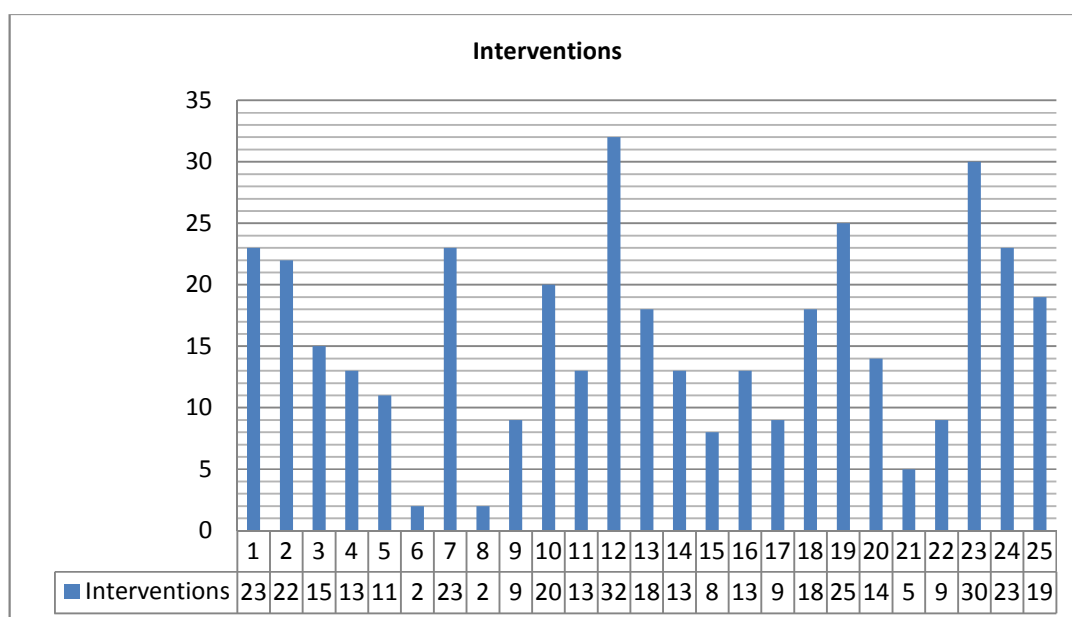
Finally, Figure 7.8 also gives a vivid picture of the participants' revision performance in relation to the six dimensions of assessment. Each participant's performance on each dimension is separately displayed plotted on a scatterplot. In cases where the dots are densely positioned in one place or direction they indicate a strong relationship, but when they are scattered about they indicate that the relation is not strong on each two variables.

Figure 7.8 Text one: The Dimension Z scores Scatterplot



7.7.2.2 **Text Two:** Although both texts were virtually equal in size, the number of noticed interventions in T2 was relatively larger than the number noticed in T1. This fact can be attributed to the higher level of difficulty of T2 compared to T1 as it was stated by the participants' responses to the retrospective questionnaire. Figure 7.9 shows the participant interventions on T2:

Figure 7.9 Text Two: Participant Interventions



The total interventions in this text were 389 with a markedly higher participant intervention average of 15.56 as compared to 323 interventions of T1 and an interventions average of 12.92 for a participant. The interventions were also unevenly distributed among the participants. The highest number of them was made by participant 12 who made 32, whereas the lowest (2 only) was made by participants 6 and 8. Table 6.19 below displays the results of participant real-time self-revision of T2. It was calculated and tabulated in the same way used for T1 according to the same dimensions of assessment.

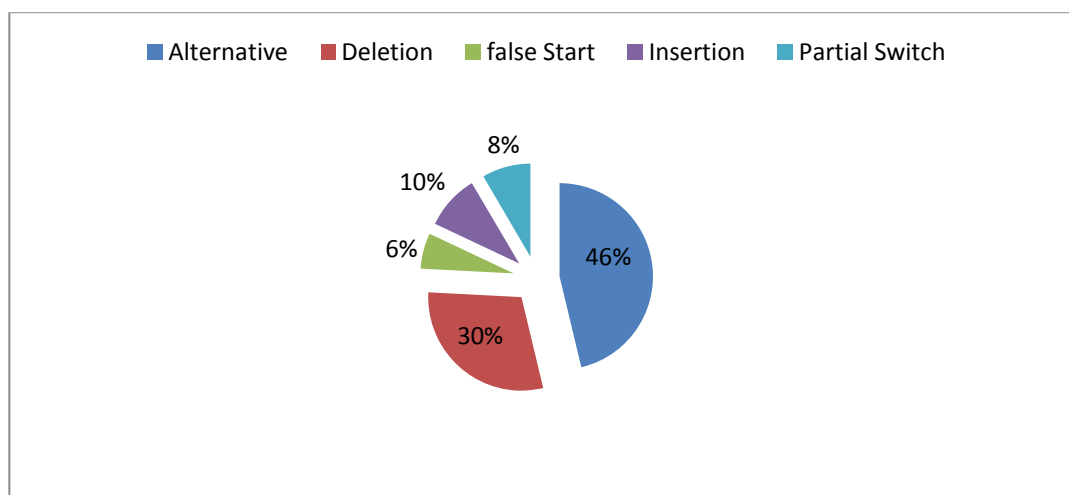
Table 7.7 Text Two: Participant Self-Revision

par	NInt	Strategy					Purpose		Level			Effect			Freq	Econ
		Alt	Del	Fs	Ins	Ps	C	TR	W	Ph	S	Pos	Neu	neg		
01	23	8	10	0	3	2	2	21	15	6	2	15	8	0	10.45	1.43
02	22	7	5	1	4	5	0	22	14	7	1	15	6	1	10.00	1.63

03	15	5	6	0	0	4	3	12	9	2	4	7	7	1	6.81	2.06
04	13	5	4	0	3	1	4	9	11	2	0	8	5	0	5.90	1.15
05	11	6	3	2	0	0	1	10	8	3	0	2	7	2	5.00	1.18
06	2	0	1	1	0	0	2	0	2	0	0	2	0	0	0.90	1.00
07	23	10	9	3	0	1	10	13	16	7	0	9	12	2	10.45	1.34
08	2	2	0	0	0	0	0	2	1	1	0	1	1	0	0.90	1.50
09	9	5	3	1	0	0	2	7	7	2	0	5	4	0	4.09	1.22
10	20	8	6	3	3	0	2	18	15	5	0	12	8	0	9.09	1.05
11	13	8	2	3	0	0	2	11	10	3	0	7	6	0	5.90	1.30
12	32	15	13	1	0	3	10	22	26	6	0	11	19	2	14.54	1.15
13	18	9	3	0	2	4	3	15	10	8	0	7	11	0	8.18	1.55
14	13	7	3	0	0	3	2	11	7	6	0	7	6	0	5.90	1.61
15	8	8	0	0	0	0	4	4	5	3	0	5	3	0	3.63	1.37
16	13	6	2	0	4	1	0	13	7	6	0	11	2	0	5.90	1.46
17	9	5	1	0	2	1	0	9	4	4	1	4	5	0	4.09	3.37
18	18	10	4	0	0	4	6	12	14	4	0	7	11	0	8.18	1.44
19	25	10	12	2	0	1	4	21	15	9	1	12	10	3	11.36	1.72
20	14	7	3	1	2	1	1	13	8	6	0	7	5	2	6.36	1.35
21	5	0	3	1	1	0	3	2	4	1	0	5	0	0	2.27	1.2
22	9	6	0	1	2	0	0	9	4	4	1	7	1	1	4.09	2.44
23	30	13	15	0	1	1	9	21	17	12	1	22	7	1	13.63	1.76
24	23	14	3	2	4	0	3	20	14	9	0	15	8	0	10.45	1.95
25	19	6	4	2	6	1	6	13	14	4	1	12	7	0	8.63	1.47
x	15.56	7.2	4.6	0.96	7.08	1.32	3.16	12.4	10.28	4.8	0.48	8.6	6.36	0.6	7.07	1.55
Sum	389	180	115	24	37	33	79	310	257	120	12	215	159	15		

The results illustrated that the participants generally displayed a wide range of **strategies** similar to what they did in T1, and likewise showed significant personal differences as it was clearly reflected in figure 7.10 below.

Figure 7.10 Text Two: Proportions of the Five Strategies



In the strategy of providing alternative translations the highest number of interventions was detected, representing 180 of the total noticed interventions.

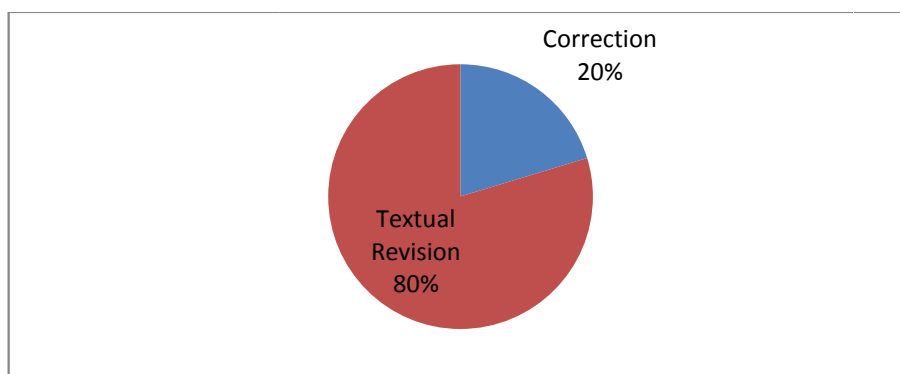
The highest was scored by participant 12 who made 15 changes compared to the lowest score by participant 8 who made only two interventions. Deletions were the second highly used strategy with 115 interventions, followed by insertions (37), partial switches (33) and false starts (24) respectively. Table 7.8 below summarizes the results of the dimension of strategy.

Table 7.8 Text Two: The Dimension of Strategy

Par	NInt	Alternative		Deletion		False Start		Insertion		Partial Switch	
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
01	23	8	34.78	10	43.47	0	0	3	13.04	2	8.70
02	22	7	31.82	5	22.73	1	4.55	4	18.18	5	22.73
03	15	5	33.33	6	40.00	0	0	0	0	4	26.67
04	13	5	38.46	4	30.77	0	0	3	23.08	1	7.69
05	11	6	54.55	3	27.27	2	18.18	0	0	0	0
06	2	0	0	1	50.00	1	50.00	0	0	0	0
07	23	10	43.48	9	39.13	3	13.04	0	0	1	4.35
08	2	2	100.0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
09	9	5	55.56	3	33.33	1	11.11	0	0	0	0
10	20	8	40.00	6	30.00	3	15.00	3	15.00	0	0
11	13	8	61.54	2	15.38	3	23.08	0	0	0	0
12	32	15	46.88	13	40.63	1	3.13	0	0	3	9.38
13	18	9	50.00	3	16.67	0	0	2	11.11	4	22.22
14	13	7	53.85	3	23.08	0	0	0	0	3	23.08
15	8	8	100.0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
16	13	6	46.15	2	15.38	0	0	4	30.78	1	7.69
17	9	5	55.56	1	11.11	0	0	2	22.22	1	11.11
18	18	10	55.56	4	22.22	0	0	0	0	4	22.22
19	25	10	40.00	12	48.00	2	8.00	0	0	1	4.00
20	14	7	50.00	3	21.43	1	7.14	2	14.29	1	7.14
21	5	0	0	3	60.00	1	20.00	1	20.00	0	0
22	9	6	66.67	0	0	1	11.11	2	22.22	0	0
23	30	13	43.33	15	50.00	0	0	1	3.33	1	3.33
24	23	14	60.87	3	13.04	2	8.70	4	17.40	0	0
25	19	6	31.58	4	21.05	2	10.53	6	31.58	1	5.26
Mean	15.56	7.2	47.76	4.6	26.99	0.96	8.14	1.48	9.55	1.32	7.42
Total	389	180	46.27	115	29.56	24	6.17	37	9.51	33	8.48

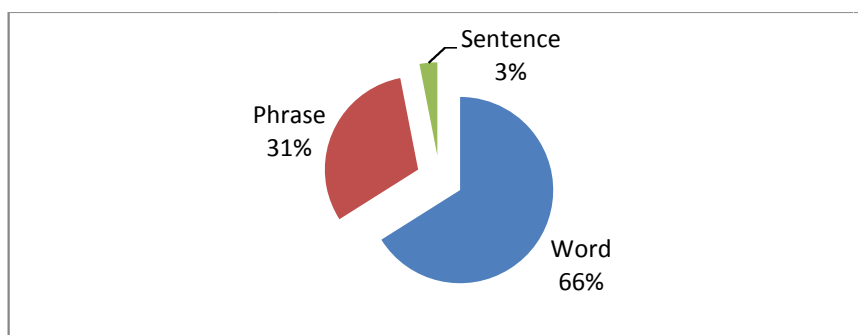
Similarly, in the other four dimensions the results showed almost the same pattern and tendency of those of T1. In the dimension of **purpose** the interventions for textual revision (310) significantly exceed those of revision for correction (79) making about three quarters of the total interventions.

Figure 7.11 Text Two: Revision Purpose



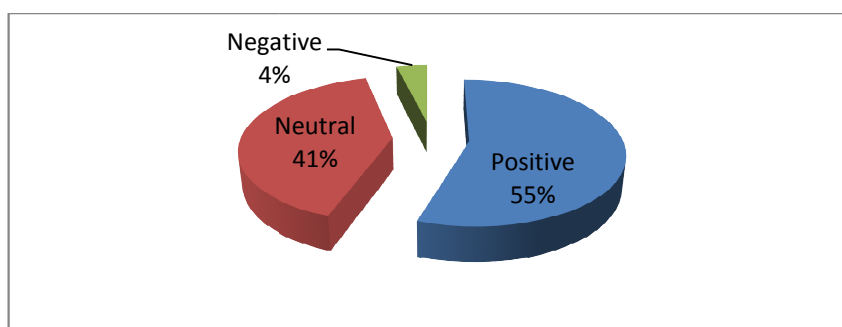
The same is true about the dimension of the **level** of translation where the number of interventions in the level of 'word' was the highest (257) followed by the 'phrase' (120) and the least was by the sentence (12).

Figure 7.12 Text Two: Distribution of Interventions on Levels



As for the **effect** of revision on translation quality also similar results were obtained. Most of the interventions (215) were positive, a considerable number of the interventions (159) were neutral and only few of them (15) were negative.

Figure 7.13 Text Two: Effect of Revision



The following table summarizes results of the dimensions of purpose and level:

Table 7.9 Text Two: The Dimensions of Purpose and Level

Par.	NInt.	Purpose				Level					
		Correction		Textual Revision		Word		Phrase		Sentence	
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
01	23	2	8.70	21	91.30	15	65.22	6	26.09	2	8.70
02	22	0	0	22	100.0	14	63.64	7	31.82	1	4.55
03	15	3	20.00	12	80.00	9	60.00	2	13.33	4	26.67
04	13	4	30.77	9	69.23	11	84.62	2	15.38	0	0
05	11	1	9.09	10	90.91	8	72.73	3	27.27	0	0
06	2	2	100.0	0	0	2	100.0	0	0	0	0
07	23	10	43.48	13	56.52	16	69.57	7	30.43	0	0
08	2	0	0	2	100	1	50.00	1	50.00	0	0
09	9	2	22.22	7	77.78	7	77.78	2	22.22	0	0
10	20	2	10.00	18	90.00	15	75.00	5	25.00	0	0
11	13	2	15.38	11	84.62	10	76.92	3	23.08	0	0
12	32	10	31.25	22	68.75	26	81.25	6	18.75	0	0
13	18	3	16.67	15	83.33	10	55.56	8	44.44	0	0
14	13	2	15.38	11	84.62	7	53.85	6	46.15	0	0
15	8	4	50.00	4	50.00	5	62.50	3	37.50	0	0
16	13	0	0	13	100.0	7	53.85	6	46.15	0	0
17	9	0	0	9	100.0	4	44.44	4	44.44	1	11.11
18	18	6	33.33	12	66.67	14	77.78	4	22.22	0	0
19	25	4	16.00	21	84.00	15	60.00	9	36.00	1	4.00
20	14	1	7.14	13	92.86	8	57.14	6	42.86	0	0
21	5	3	60.00	2	40.00	4	80.00	1	20.00	0	0
22	9	0	0	9	100.0	4	44.44	4	44.44	1	11.11
23	30	9	30.00	21	70.00	17	56.67	12	40.00	1	3.33
24	23	3	13.04	20	86.96	14	60.87	9	39.13	0	0
25	19	6	31.58	13	68.42	14	73.68	4	21.05	1	5.26
Mean	15.56	3.16	22.56	12.4	77.44	10.28	66.30	4.8	30.71	0.48	2.99
Total	389	79	20.31	310	79.69	257	66.07	120	30.85	12	3.08

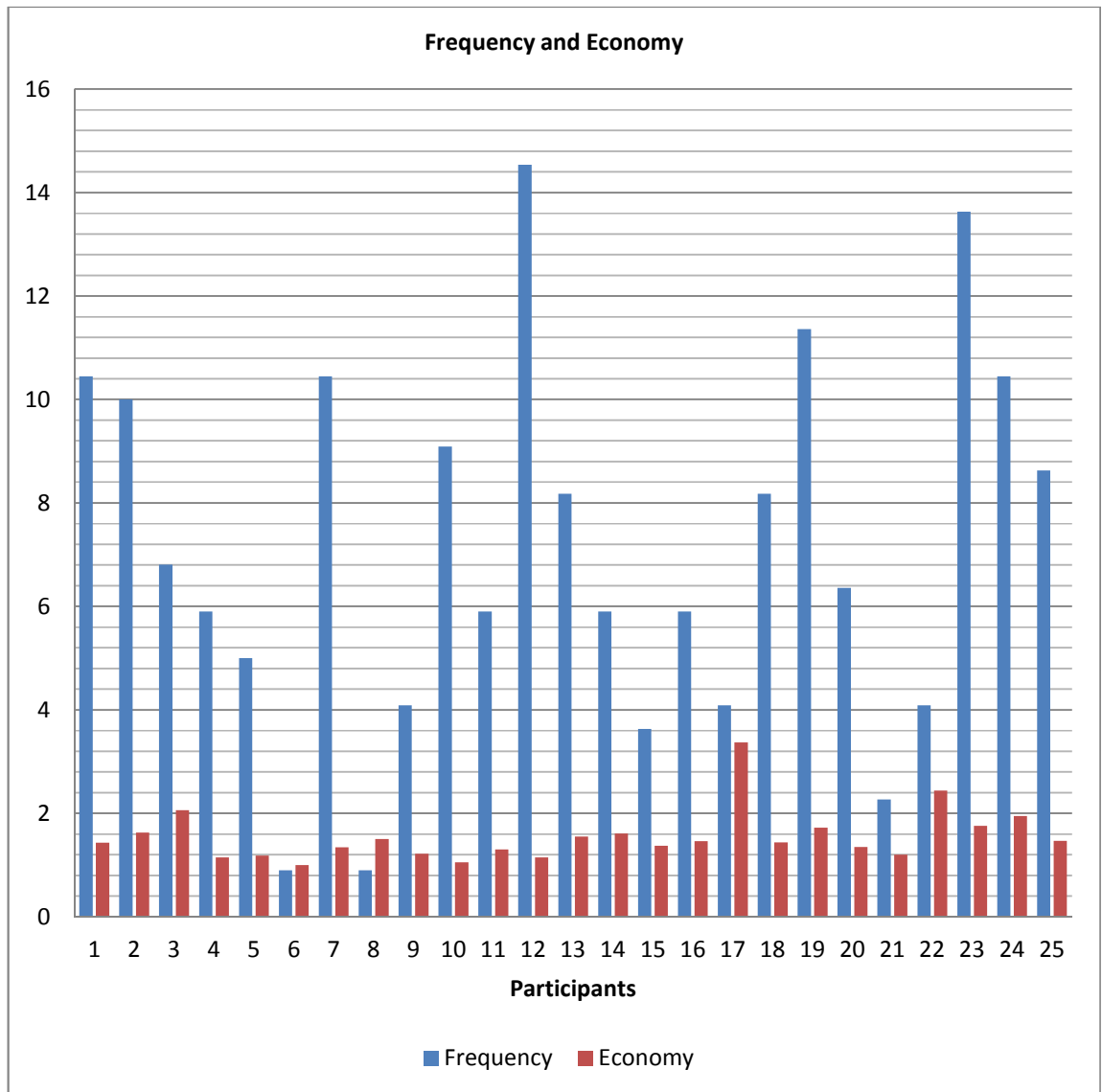
As for the **effect** of revision on the final translation output, it was noticed that the majority of the interventions were positive ones enhancing the final product. While the second considerable number of the interventions was the neutral ones which neither enhanced nor harmed the translation, the negative interventions were very few and made only 3.86% of the total interventions. This is the same tendency of the revision effectiveness noticed in T1. Table 7.10 below summarizes the results of the effectiveness dimension.

Table 7.10 Text Two: The Dimension of Effect

Par	NInt	Positive		Neutral		negative	
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
01	23	15	65.22	8	34.78	0	0
02	22	15	68.18	6	27.27	1	4.55
03	15	7	46.67	7	46.67	1	6.66
04	13	8	61.54	5	38.46	0	0
05	11	2	18.18	7	63.64	2	18.18
06	2	2	100.0	0	0	0	0
07	23	9	39.13	12	52.17	2	8.70
08	2	1	50.00	1	50.00	0	0
09	9	5	55.56	4	44.44	0	0
10	20	12	60.00	8	40.00	0	0
11	13	7	53.85	6	46.15	0	0
12	32	11	34.38	19	59.38	2	6.25
13	18	7	38.89	11	61.11	0	0
14	13	7	53.85	6	46.15	0	0
15	8	5	62.50	3	37.50	0	0
16	13	11	84.62	2	15.38	0	0
17	9	4	44.44	5	55.56	0	0
18	18	7	38.89	11	61.11	0	0
19	25	12	48.00	10	40.00	3	12.00
20	14	7	50.00	5	35.71	2	14.29
21	5	5	100.0	0	0	0	0
22	9	7	77.78	1	11.11	1	11.11
23	30	22	73.33	7	23.33	1	3.33
24	23	15	65.22	8	34.78	0	0
25	19	12	63.16	7	36.84	0	0
Mean	15.56	8.6	58.14	6.36	38.46	0.6	3.40
Total	389	215	55.27	159	40.87	15	3.86

However, the **frequency** of interventions was slightly higher in this text than it was in T1 (7.07), and this is a natural result due to the larger number of interventions that were made in the revision of this text compared to the other one. Lastly, the level of economy was closely similar, with T2 slightly lower (1.55) in this dimension.

Figure 7.14 Text Two: The Dimensions of Frequency and Economy



The statistical results were similar to those of T1 in that highly significant correlations at level 0.01 (two-tailed hypothesis) were found among the dimensions of strategy, purpose, and level. Dissimilarly, the correlation with effect was not significant, whereas there is significant correlation between frequency and the dimensions of strategy, level, and economy at level 0.05 (two-tailed hypothesis). Table 7.11 below shows those correlations.

Table 7.11 Text Two: Correlations among Assessment Dimensions

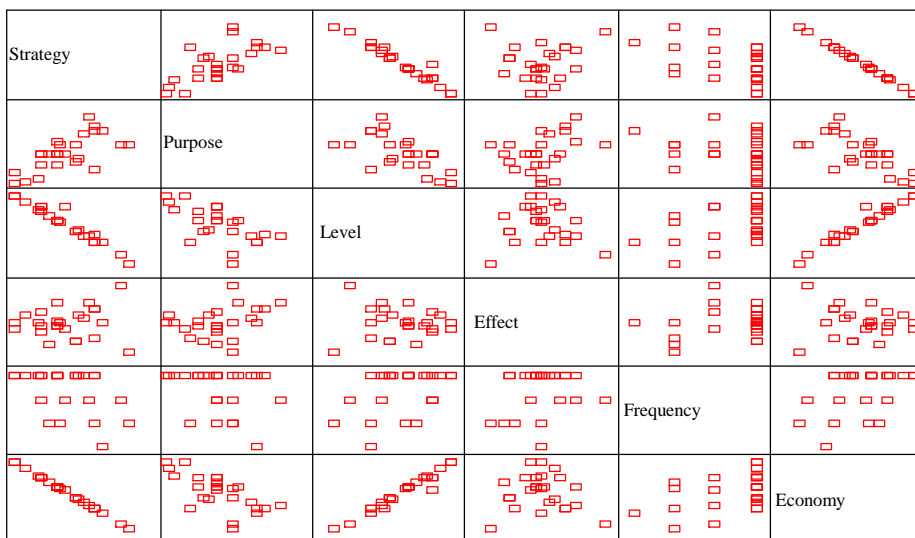
Dimensions		Z score: Strategy	Z score: Purpose	Z score: Level	Z score: Effed	Z score: Frequency	Z score: Economy
Z score: Strategy	Pearson Correlation	1.000	.674 **	-.973	.111	-.443 *	-1.000 **
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000	.000	.596	.027	.000
	N	25	25	25	25	25	25
Z score: Purpose	Pearson Correlation	.674 **	1.000	-.619 **	.314	-.267	-.674 **
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.	.001	.126	.197	.000
	N	25	25	25	25	25	25
Z score: Level	Pearson...	-.973 **	-.619 **	1.000	-.065	.418 *	.973 **
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.001	.	.757	.037	.000
	N	25	25	25	25	25	25
Z score: Effed	Pearson Correlation	.111	.314	-.065	1.000	.230	-.111
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.596	.126	.757	.	.269	.597
	N	25	25	25	25	25	25
Z score: Frequency	Pearson Correlation	-.443 *	-.267	.418 *	.230	1.000	.443 *
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.027	.197	.037	.269	.	.027
	N	25	25	25	25	25	25
Z score: Economy	Pearson Correlation	-1.000 **	-.674 **	.973 **	-.111	.443 *	1.000 **
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.597	.027	.
	N	25	25	25	25	25	25

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

A picture of the participant-dimension relationship is shown in Figure 7.15 below and it illustrates the variation among the different participants in regard of their revision behavior as measured by the six assessment dimensions. It displays the participant's revision on each dimension separately. Hence, the scatterplot below visually displays the distribution of the participants on each assessment dimension as compared to the others:

Figure 7.15 Text Two: Participant-Dimension Relationship on a Scatterplot



7.7.2.3 The Two Texts Combined: The results of both texts were combined to give a joined image of the self-revision that was carried out by the participants in their translation of both texts. The table, in fact, reflects the same tendencies of revision due to the close similarity of the results patterns of both texts. The highest number of interventions was 56 scored by participant 23, whereas the lowest number was 4 scored by participant 6.

Figure 7.16 Texts One and Two Combined participant Interventions

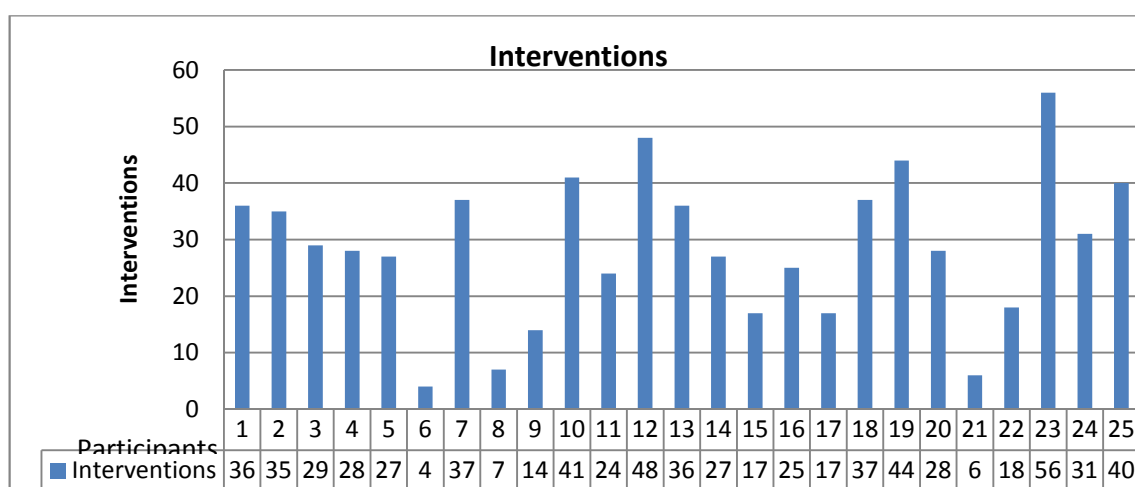


Table 7.12 below illustrates the noticed interventions categorized according to the dimensions of assessment and reflects the patterns assumed by participants' revision.

Table 7.12 Revision Results of Text One and Text Two Combined

par	NInt	Strategy					Purpose		Level			Effect			Freq	Econ
		Alt	Del	Fs	Ins	Ps	C	TR	W	Ph	S	Pos	Neu	neg	100 W	W per Int
1	36	15	12	1	4	5	3	33	25	8	3	28	8	0	8.2	1.4
2	35	18	6	2	4	5	2	33	19	14	2	24	10	1	8	1.85
3	29	11	12	2	0	4	9	20	20	5	4	15	12	2	6.6	1.74
4	28	14	7	0	5	2	9	18	20	7	0	19	7	1	6.1	1.32
5	27	15	8	3	0	1	6	21	19	8	0	6	18	3	6.1	1.24
6	4	1	1	2	0	0	2	2	3	1	0	2	2	0	0.9	1.25
7	37	14	16	5	0	2	13	24	27	10	0	17	18	2	8.4	1.35
8	7	4	2	1	0	0	2	5	5	2	0	4	3	0	1.6	1.25
9	14	8	3	3	0	0	4	10	10	4	0	10	4	0	3.2	1.31
10	41	19	12	4	5	1	8	33	31	10	0	28	13	0	9.3	1.02
11	24	15	5	4	0	0	3	21	18	6	0	14	9	1	5.6	1.37

12	48	21	22	1	1	3	15	33	38	10	0	16	30	2	11	1.1
13	36	19	6	0	5	4	5	31	22	13	1	21	14	1	8.2	1.44
14	27	15	5	2	2	3	5	22	14	13	0	18	9	0	6.1	1.62
15	17	12	4	0	0	1	8	9	11	6	0	14	3	0	3.9	1.29
16	25	11	5	0	7	2	2	23	13	12	0	18	7	0	5.7	1.48
17	17	11	3	0	2	2	2	16	9	8	1	7	11	0	3.9	2.57
18	37	20	8	2	1	6	9	28	25	12	0	11	25	1	8.4	1.56
19	44	24	15	3	0	2	11	33	29	13	2	21	18	5	10	1.54
20	28	17	5	2	3	1	4	24	11	16	1	14	11	3	6.4	1.46
21	6	0	4	1	1	0	4	2	5	1	0	5	1	0	1.4	1.1
22	18	11	2	2	2	1	3	15	11	6	1	12	4	2	4.1	1.83
23	56	30	20	2	2	2	14	42	30	23	3	41	13	2	13	1.74
24	31	17	6	2	4	2	6	25	20	11	0	20	10	1	7.0	1.72
25	40	13	9	2	10	6	9	31	25	12	3	27	12	1	9.1	1.9
x	28.5	14.2	7.9	1.8	2.3	2.	6.3	22.2	18.	9.	0.9	16.5	10.9	1.1	6.5	1.5
sum	712	355	198	46	58	55	158	554	460	231	21	412	272	28		

The revision results are summarized according to the dimensions of revisions for the two tests combined in table 7.13 below.

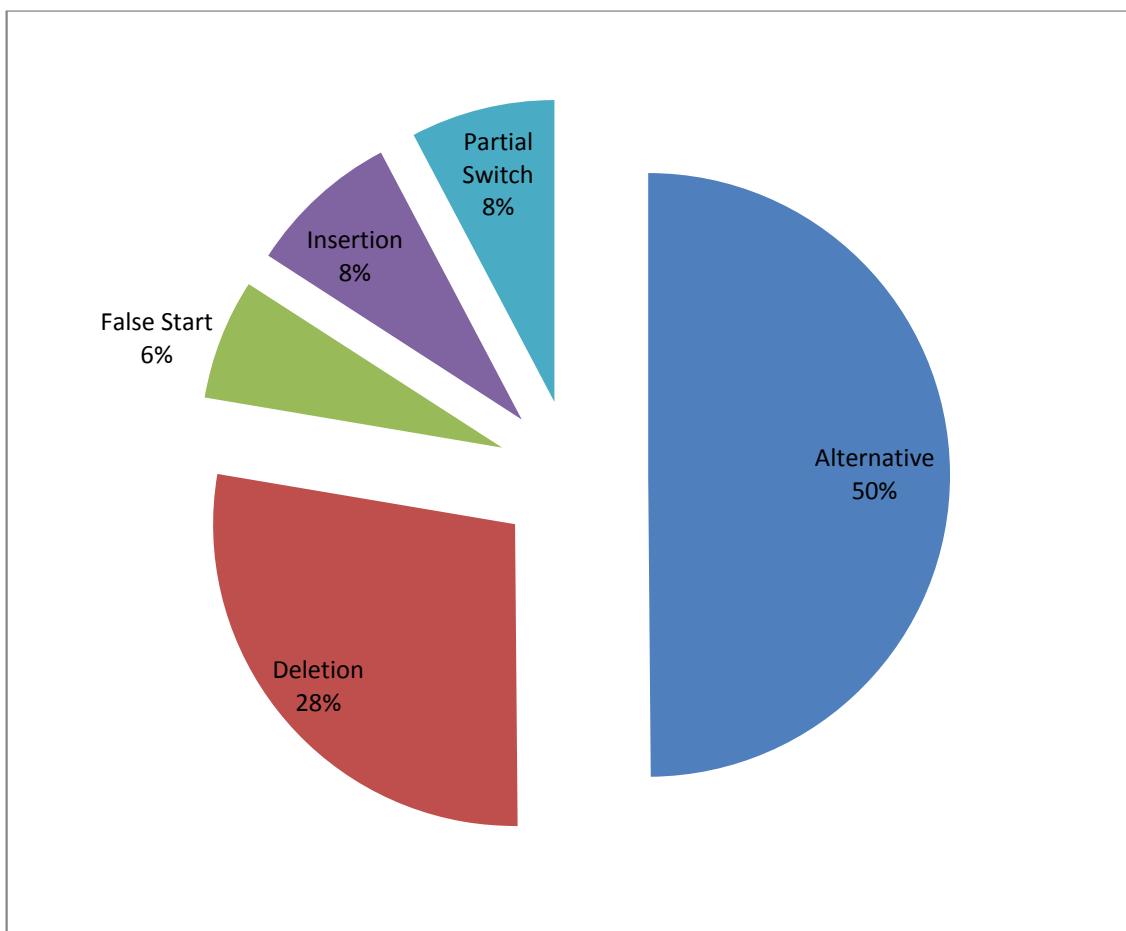
Table 7.13 Both Texts Revisions: The Dimension of Strategy

Par	NInt	Alternative		Deletion		False Start		Insertion		Partial Switch	
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
01	36	15	41.66	11	30.55	1	2.78	4	11.11	5	13.88
02	35	18	51.43	6	17.14	2	5.71	4	11.43	5	14.29
03	29	11	37.93	12	41.38	2	6.90	0	0	4	13.80
04	28	14	50.00	7	25.00	0	0	5	17.86	2	7.14
05	27	15	55.56	8	29.63	3	11.11	0	0	1	3.70
06	4	1	25.00	1	25.00	2	50.00	0	0	0	0
07	37	14	37.84	16	43.24	5	13.51	0	0	2	5.41
08	7	4	57.14	2	28.57	1	14.29	0	0	0	0
09	14	8	57.14	3	21.43	3	21.43	0	0	0	0
10	41	19	46.34	12	29.27	4	9.76	5	12.20	1	2.45
11	24	15	62.50	5	20.83	4	16.67	0	0	0	0
12	48	21	43.75	22	45.83	1	2.08	1	2.08	3	6.25
13	36	19	52.78	6	16.67	0	0	6	16.67	5	13.89
14	27	15	55.56	5	18.52	2	7.41	2	7.41	3	11.11
15	17	12	70.59	4	23.53	0	0	0	0	1	5.88
16	25	11	44.00	5	20.00	0	0	7	28.00	2	8.00
17	17	11	64.70	3	17.65	0	0	3	17.65	0	0
18	37	20	54.05	8	21.62	2	5.41	1	2.70	6	16.22
19	44	24	54.55	15	34.09	3	6.82	0	0	2	4.55
20	28	17	60.71	5	17.86	2	7.14	3	10.71	1	3.57
21	6	0	0	4	66.67	1	16.67	1	16.67	0	0
22	18	11	61.11	2	11.11	2	11.11	2	11.11	1	5.56

23	56	30	53.57	20	35.71	2	3.57	2	3.57	2	3.57
24	31	17	54.84	6	19.35	2	6.45	4	12.90	2	6.45
25	40	13	32.50	9	22.50	2	5.00	10	25.00	6	15.00
mean	28.48	14.2	49.01	7.88	27.33	1.84	8.95	2.4	8.28	2.16	6.43
Total	712	355	49.86	197	27.67	46	6.46	60	8.43	54	7.58

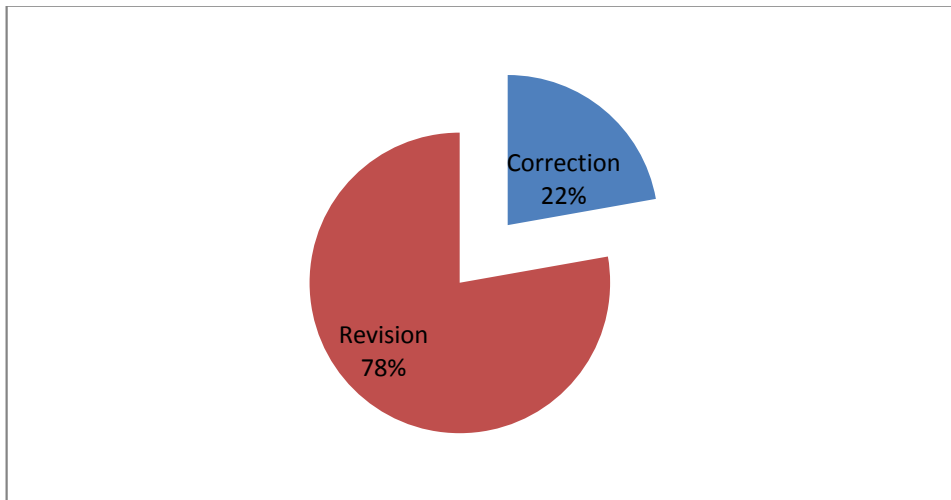
In the dimension of strategy, the 712 noticed interventions are unevenly distributed over the five strategies. The strategy of providing alternative translations takes nearly half the interventions, followed by the strategy of deletion which takes a little more than a quarter of the interventions. The remainder quarter of the interventions is nearly equally distributed on the other three strategies of insertion, partial switch and false start.

Figure 7.17 Both Texts: Distribution of Noticed Interventions across Strategies



When it comes to the dimension of purpose, it is revealed that more than three quarters of the interventions targeted textual revision, whereas the remainder of them targeted correction.

Figure 7.18 Both Texts: Noticed interventions According to Purpose



As for the level the participants worked at in their revision, it was naturally seen that they generally tended to target smaller segments. The level of the word has taken a little less than two thirds, followed by the phrase which has nearly hold the other third of the changes leaving as little as 2.95% of total interventions for the sentence level as shown in the figure below:

Figure 7.19 Combined Texts: Distribution of interventions on Level

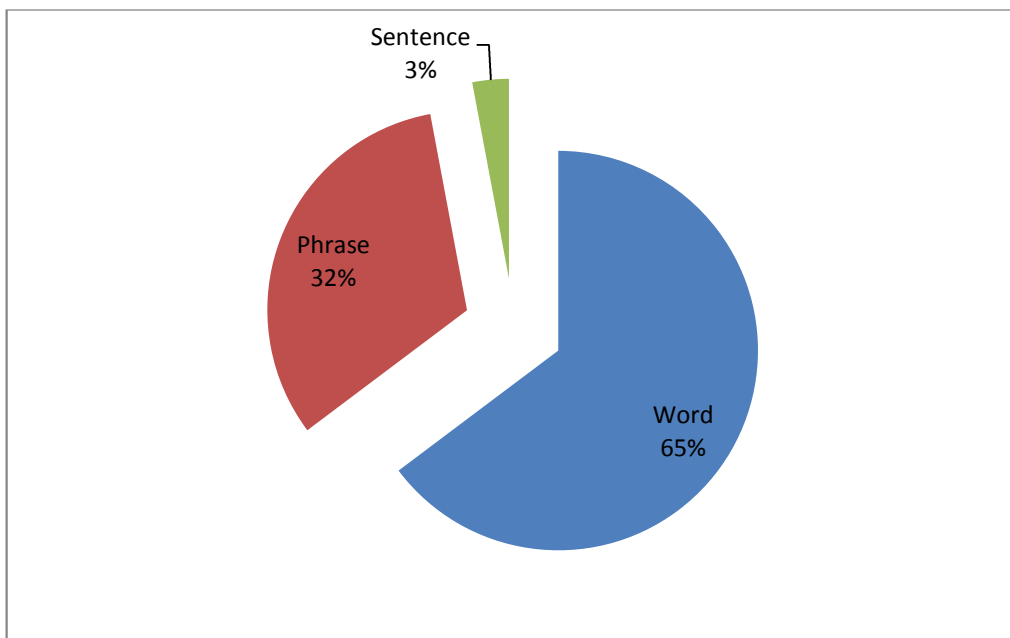


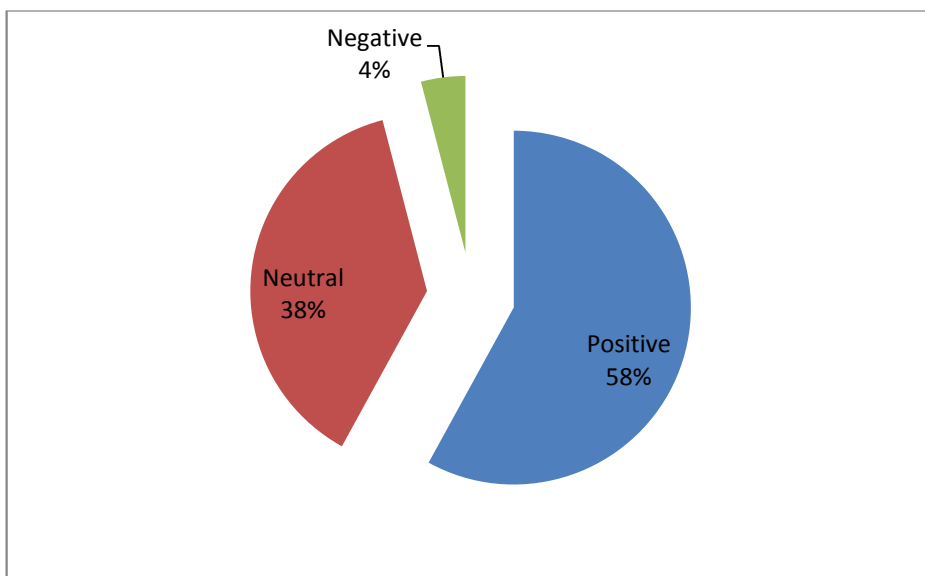
Table 7.14 below illustrates the distribution of the interventions made by participants on the dimensions of purpose and level.

Table 7.14 Both Texts Revision: The Dimensions of Purpose and Level

Par	NInt	Purpose				Level					
		Correction		Textual Revision		Word		Phrase		Sentence	
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
01	36	4	11.11	32	88.89	25	69.44	8	22.22	3	8.33
02	35	2	5.71	33	94.29	19	54.29	14	40.00	2	5.71
03	29	9	31.03	20	68.97	20	68.97	5	17.24	4	13.79
04	28	9	32.14	19	67.86	21	75.00	7	25.00	0	0
05	27	6	22.22	21	77.78	19	70.37	8	29.63	0	0
06	4	2	50.00	2	50.00	3	75.00	1	25.00	0	0
07	37	13	35.14	24	64.86	27	72.97	10	27.03	0	0
08	7	2	28.57	5	71.43	5	71.43	2	28.57	0	0
09	14	4	28.57	10	71.43	10	71.43	4	28.57	0	0
10	41	8	19.51	33	80.49	31	75.61	10	24.39	0	0
11	24	3	12.50	21	87.50	18	75.00	6	25.00	0	0
12	48	15	31.25	33	68.75	38	79.17	10	20.83	0	0
13	36	5	13.89	31	86.11	22	61.11	13	36.11	1	2.78
14	27	5	18.52	22	81.48	14	51.85	13	48.15	0	0
15	17	8	47.06	9	52.94	11	64.71	6	35.29	0	0
16	25	2	8.00	23	92.00	13	52.00	12	48.00	0	0
17	17	1	5.88	16	94.12	9	52.94	7	41.18	1	5.88
18	37	9	24.32	28	75.68	25	67.57	12	32.43	0	0
19	44	11	25.00	33	75.00	29	65.91	13	29.55	2	4.55
20	28	4	14.29	24	85.71	11	39.29	16	57.14	1	3.57
21	6	4	66.67	2	33.33	5	83.33	1	16.67	0	0
22	18	3	16.67	15	83.33	11	61.11	6	33.33	1	5.56
23	56	14	25.00	42	75.00	30	53.57	23	41.07	3	5.36
24	31	6	19.35	25	80.65	20	64.52	11	35.48	0	0
25	40	9	22.50	31	77.50	25	62.50	12	30.00	3	7.50
x	25	6.32	24.60	22.16	75.40	18.44	65.56	9.2	31.92	0.84	2.52
Total	712	158	22.19	554	77.81	461	64.75	230	32.30	21	2.95

The dimension of effect shows that the highest percent of the interventions was positive, which means that the intervention has enhanced the final product. The second high percent of the changes represented neutral interventions which neither enhanced nor harmed the final translation because they were replacements for correct segments by other correct ones and incorrect by other incorrect ones. The negative interventions were very few and could be generally considered negligible except in considerations when they may affect personal profiles of specific translators, which will be explored when individual profiles will be described.

Figure 7.20 Distribution of Interventions on the Dimension of Effect



The results of the dimension of effect are clearly summarized in Table 7.15 below:

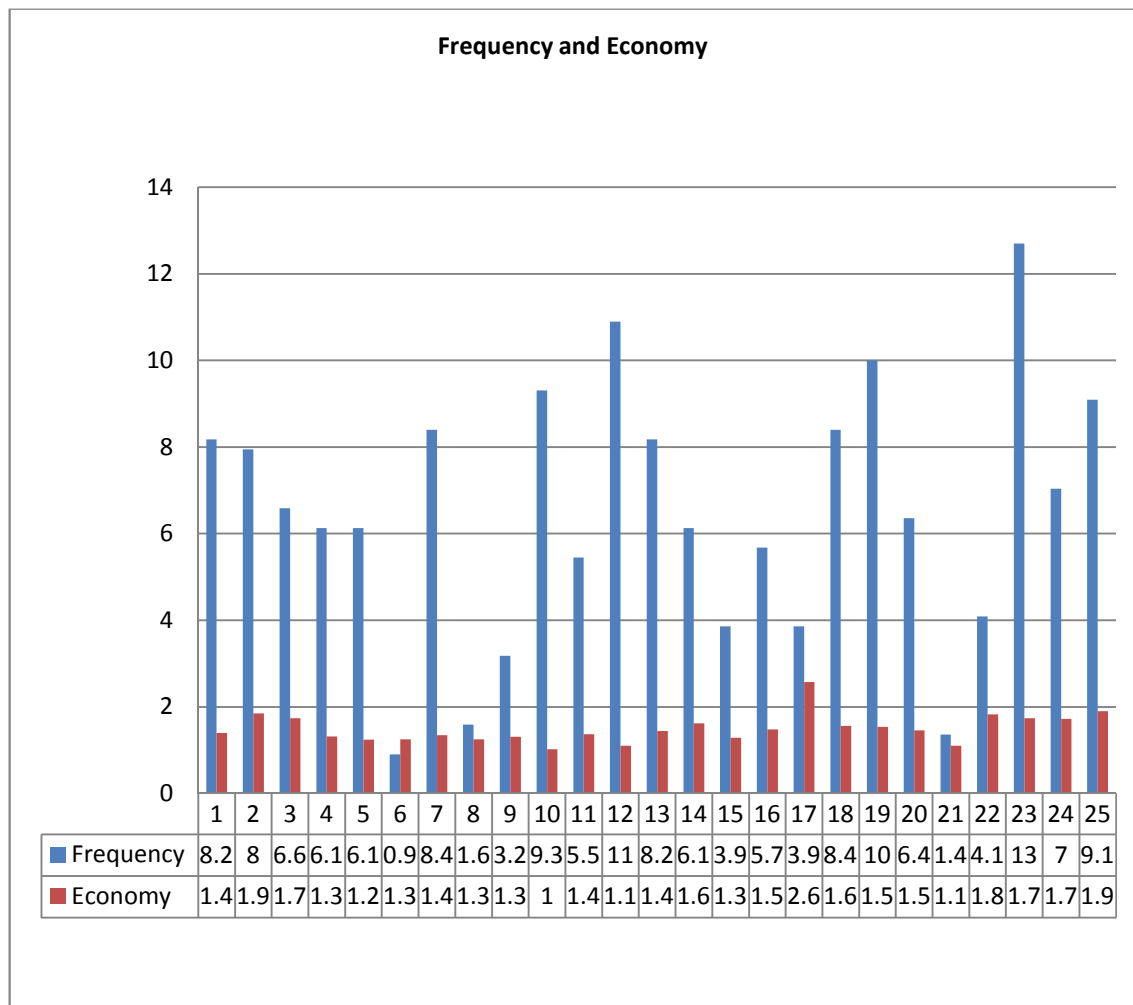
Table 7.15 Both Texts Revision: The Dimension of Effect

Par	NInt	Positive		Neutral		negative	
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
01	36	28	77.788	9	22.22	0	0
02	35	24	68.57	10	28.57	1	2.86
03	29	15	51.72	12	41.38	2	6.90
4	28	19	67.86	8	28.57	1	3.7
05	27	6	22.22	18	66.67	3	11.11
06	4	2	50.00	2	50.00	0	0
7	37	18	50.81	16	43.24	3	5.41
08	7	4	57.14	3	42.86	0	0
09	14	10	71.43	4	28.57	0	0
10	41	28	68.29	13	31.71	0	0
11	24	14	58.33	9	37.50	1	4.17
12	48	16	33.33	30	62.50	2	4.17
13	36	21	58.33	14	38.89	1	2.78
14	27	18	66.67	9	33.33	0	0
15	17	14	82.35	3	17.65	0	0
16	25	18	72.00	7	28.00	0	0
17	17	7	41.18	10	58.82	0	0
18	37	11	29.73	25	67.57	1	2.70
19	44	21	47.73	18	40.91	5	11.36

20	28	14	50.00	11	39.29	3	10.71
21	6	5	83.33	1	16.67	0	0
22	18	12	66.67	4	22.22	2	11.11
23	56	41	73.21	13	23.21	2	3.57
24	31	20	64.52	10	32.26	1	3.23
25	40	27	67.50	12	30	1	2.50
Mean	28.48	16.52	59.23	10.84	37.30	1.16	3.45
Total	712	413	58.01	270	37.92	29	4.07

Finally, the dimensions of frequency and economy are illustrated in the column chart of Figure 7.21 below. It is worth noting that the high indicator of economy refers to poor or negative aspect of economy, whereas the low indicator refers to the positive aspect of economy.

Figure 7.21 Combined Texts: The Dimensions of Frequency and Economy



The statistical analysis shows that there are highly significant correlations at the level of 0.01 (two-tailed hypothesis) between strategy, purpose, level and economy. There are also significant correlations at level 0.05 of a two-tailed hypothesis between frequency, strategy, level, and economy. These high correlations reflect the close relationship among the different variables which implies their suitability to work together as assessment dimensions. Table 7.16 below shows these correlations clearly.

Table 7.16 Both Texts Correlations among Assessment Dimensions

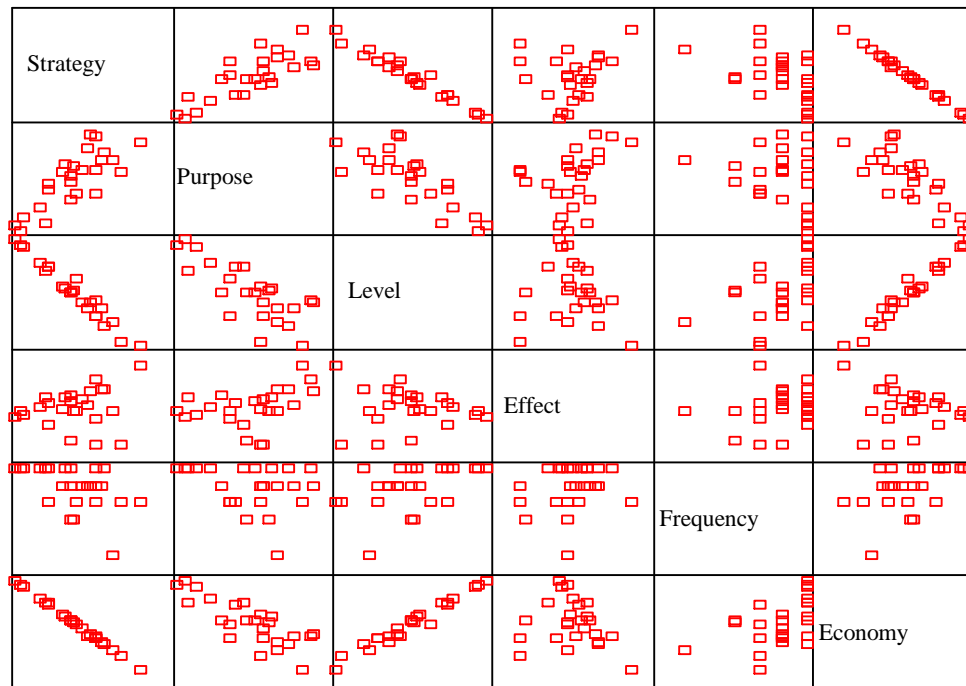
		Correlations					
Dimension		Z score: Strategy	Z score Purpose	Z score: Level	Z score: Effect	Z score Frequency	Z score Economy
Z score: Strategy	Pearson Correlation	1.000	.799**	-.981**	.213	-.482*	-.999**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000	.000	.307	.015	.000
	N	25	25	25	25	25	25
Z score: Purpose	Pearson Correlation	.799**	1.000	-.763**	.355	-.266	-.799**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.	.000	.081	.198	.000
	N	25	25	25	25	25	25
Z score: Level	Pearson Correlation	-.981**	-.763**	1.000	-.134	.457*	.983**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.	.523	.022	.000
	N	25	25	25	25	25	25
Z score: Effect	Pearson Correlation	.213	.355	-.134	1.000	.237	-.212
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.307	.081	.523	.	.255	.310
	N	25	25	25	25	25	25
Z score: Frequency	Pearson Correlation	-.482*	-.266	.457*	.237	1.000	.486*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.015	.198	.022	.255	.	.014
	N	25	25	25	25	25	25
Z score: Economy	Pearson Correlation	-.999**	-.799**	.983**	-.212	.486*	1.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.310	.014	.
	N	25	25	25	25	25	25

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

The scatterplot in Figure 7.22 below gives a picture of the pattern of the scattering of the participants in relation to the different assessment dimensions.

Figure 7.22 Combined Texts: Participant-Dimension Z scores



7.8 Translator Revision Profiling

This section includes a suggested revision evaluative scale which comprises assessments of the various dimensions of the revision process as an element in TC, which includes the following:

1. Number of the Noticed Interventions: As interventions show the translator's attempt to amend the final product, they are considered important to profile this competence in particular; the more interventions the better. Thus, translators whose noticed interventions range to the group average number of interventions or more are awarded one point and those who did lower than average are not awarded.
2. Strategy: There are five identified strategies: alternative renditions, deletions, false starts, insertions, and partial switches. The first two make more than three quarters of the whole interventions and were used by all participants. So, translators who use only these two strategies are awarded 0, while those who used the other three strategies are awarded 1 point for using each.

3. Purpose of intervention: Textual revision is more positively sought than correction. Thus, translators who used the first more than the second as judged by the group average use are to be awarded 2 marks, average or less 1, and those who didn't use it at all 0. Whereas those who used correction more than the group average will be given 0 and those who used it as average or less are awarded 1.
4. Level: The higher the level, the higher the award. So, those who made interventions at the word level more than the group average are given 0, whereas those who worked at average or less than the average of this level are awarded 1. On the other hand, those who worked at the levels of phrase or sentence more than the mean of the group are awarded 1 point for each, and those working at less than the group average are awarded 0.
5. Effect: Participants with average positive interventions or above are awarded 1 mark; less than average are awarded 0. Neutral changes above average are awarded 0 and average or less are awarded 1. Average or above negative interventions are awarded 0; less than average or none are awarded 1.
6. Economy: Participants whose revision economy is more than average are awarded 0 while average or less is awarded 1.
7. Frequency: Participants with average or above average frequency are awarded 1 and those below average are awarded 0.

Table 7.17 Revision Assessment Chart

<i>Aspect</i>	<i>Descriptors</i>	<i>Award</i>
Noticed Interventions	Average or above	1
	Less than average	0
Strategy	Using two or less	0
	Using three	1
	Using four	2
	Using five	3
Purpose: (1) correction	Average or more	1
	Less than average	2
	No use	0
(2) textual revision	Average or More	2

	Less	1
	No use	0
Level: (1)Word (2) Phrase (3)Sentence	less than average	1
	average or more	1
	average or more	1
Effect: (1) Positive	average or more	1
	less than average	0
(2) Neutral	Above average	0
	Average or less	1
(3) Negative	Above average	0
	Less than average	1
Frequency	Average or above	1
	Less than average	0
Economy	More than average	0
	Average or less	1

Consequently, the maximum possible score that can be obtained by a participant for successful revision is 16 marks. Table 7.18 below displays the revision scores obtained by each participant on T1 assessed by applying the suggested measure.

Table 7.18 Text One Revision Assessment Summary

Par.	<i>NInt</i> 1	<i>Strategy</i> 3	<i>Purpose</i> 4	<i>Level</i> 3	<i>Effect</i> 3	<i>Frequency</i> 1	<i>Economy</i> 1	<i>Total</i> 16
1	1	3	4	1	3	1	1	14
2	1	1	4	3	3	1	0	13
3	1	1	2	0	1	1	1	7
4	1	3	2	2	2	1	0	11
5	1	2	2	0	0	1	1	7
6	0	0	2	2	1	0	0	5
7	1	2	4	0	1	1	1	10
8	0	0	3	0	2	0	1	6
9	0	0	3	0	3	0	1	7
10	1	3	2	0	3	1	1	11
11	0	1	4	0	2	0	1	8
12	1	1	3	0	1	1	1	8
13	1	3	4	1	2	1	1	13
14	1	2	4	2	3	1	0	13
15	0	1	2	1	3	0	1	8
16	0	2	4	2	2	0	0	10
17	0	1	4	2	1	0	0	8
18	1	3	4	2	0	1	0	11

19	1	2	2	1	0	1	1	8
20	1	2	4	2	0	1	0	10
21	0	0	2	0	1	0	1	4
22	0	2	3	0	1	0	1	7
23	1	3	3	3	2	1	0	13
24	0	1	3	0	2	0	0	6
25	1	2	4	3	2	1	0	13
Mean	0.6	1.64	3.12	1.08	1.64	0.6	0.56	9.24

The table illustrates that the *mean* score is 9.24 out of 16. The highest score was 14 and the lowest was 5. Table 7.19 below displays the revision scores obtained on T2.

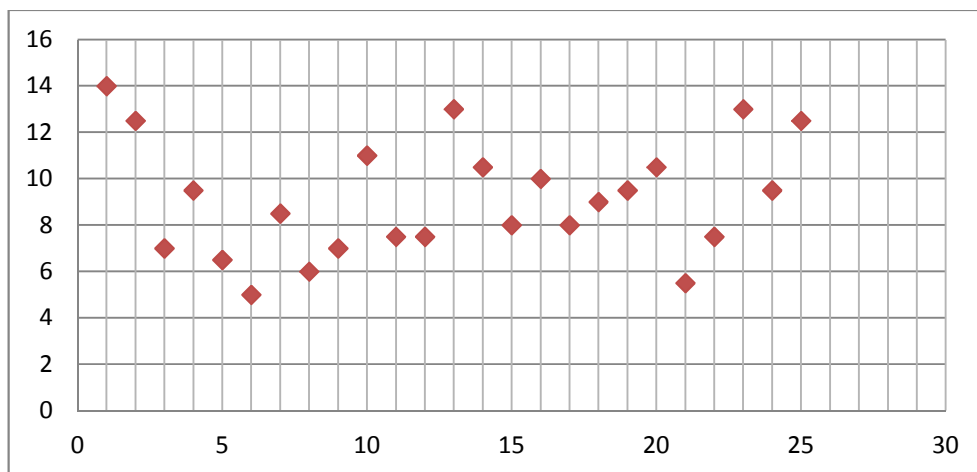
Table 7.19 Text Two Revision Assessment Summary

Par.	<i>NInt</i> 1	<i>Strategy</i> 3	<i>Purpose</i> 4	<i>Level</i> 3	<i>Effect</i> 3	<i>Frequency</i> 1	<i>Economy</i> 1	<i>Total</i> 16
1	1	2	4	2	3	1	1	14
2	1	3	2	3	2	1	0	12
3	0	1	4	2	0	0	0	7
4	0	2	2	0	3	0	1	8
5	0	1	4	0	0	0	1	6
6	0	0	1	0	3	0	1	5
7	1	2	2	0	0	1	1	7
8	0	0	2	2	1	0	1	6
9	0	1	4	0	1	0	1	7
10	1	2	4	0	2	1	1	11
11	0	1	4	0	1	0	1	7
12	1	2	2	0	0	1	1	7
13	1	3	4	2	1	1	1	13
14	0	1	4	2	1	0	0	8
15	0	0	2	2	3	0	1	8
16	0	2	2	2	3	0	1	10
17	0	2	2	3	1	0	0	8
18	1	1	2	0	1	1	1	7
19	1	2	4	3	0	1	0	11
20	0	3	4	2	1	0	1	11
21	0	1	2	0	3	0	1	7
22	0	1	2	3	2	0	0	8
23	1	2	3	3	3	1	0	13
24	1	2	4	2	3	1	0	13
25	1	3	2	1	3	1	1	12
Mean	0.44	1.6	2.88	1.36	1.64	0.44	0.68	9.04

The table shows that the mean score is 9.04, which is surprisingly similar to that of T1 (9.24) with a correspondingly highest score of 14 and a lowest score of 5. The very high correspondence in the *mean*, and the highest and lowest score indicate:

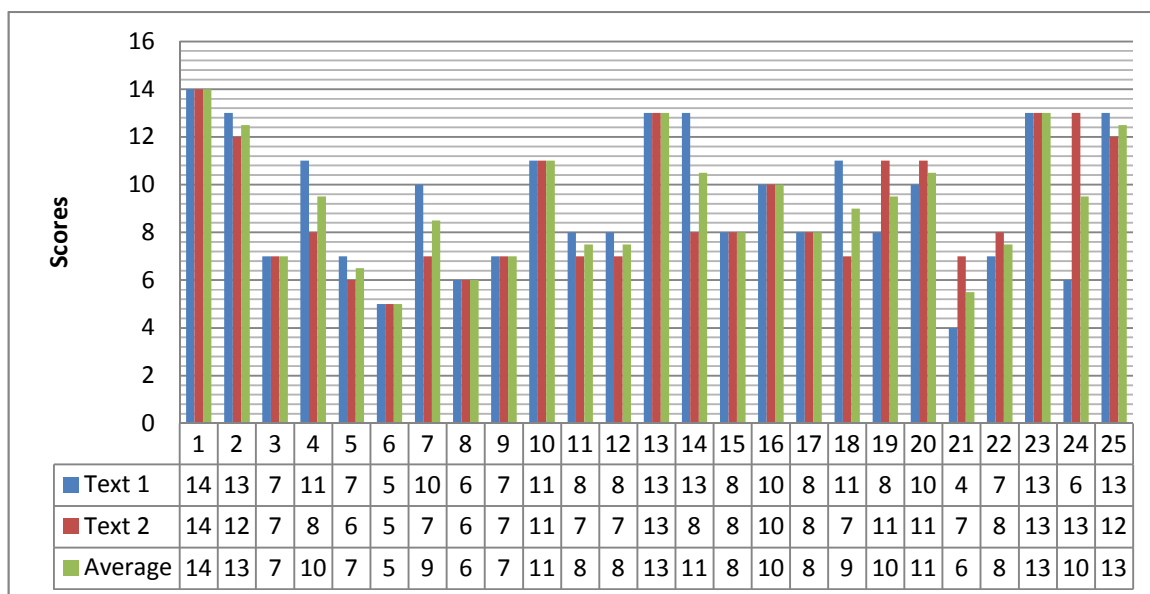
- A high discrimination ability of the measure as displayed by the near correspondence between the mean and the median (9) of the group seen in the scattergram below.
- The consistency of the assessment across the two texts despite affecting factors such as the level of difficulty, timing, stamina and the like.
- The high correlation (0.591) between the two texts is an additional indicator of the reliability of the measure.

Figure 7.23 Both Texts: Measure Discrimination



Amazingly, 11 participants scored exactly the same revision mark on both texts and 7 scored nearly the same scores with only one mark disparity. This means that the discrepancy can be attributed to the remainder 7 participants only. Undoubtedly, this very high correspondence supports the distinct reliability of the measure. Figure 7.24 below visually portrays the results of T1 and T2 revision scores in addition to the average score for each participant.

Figure 7.24 Both Texts Revision Scores



7.9 Conclusion

By way of conclusion, this study of monitoring has realized the following:

- It is theoretically underpinned due to the availability of an adequate range of theoretical and empirical studies that have tackled it adequately. The original study by Campbell suffered from the lack of such studies, as he admits, and that is why it depends on the empirical analysis of the problem.
- The first part of the study, self-assessment, has shown that this technique has low reliability and validity to be used as an element in the assessing of TC. It does not correlate well with the external measures of the tutor as well as with the quality assessment raters. However, it can be an effective motivational device to help trainee translators develop an awareness of their abilities or level of professionalism if used in a guided and moderate way, coupled by urging them to take it seriously. Its reliability is especially questionable in translation because of unique nature of the translation process as far the notion of correctness is concerned, and the possibility of having multiple correct translations (Fanghanel and Voela, 2001, p.47). Subsequently, it cannot be recommended as a measure in the assessment of TC.

- The results of this study confirm the utility of translation revision as a necessary phase in the process which essentially improves the quality of output and indicates the level of TC. Although some translators produce neutral or negative interventions, the general tendency is found to be positive and enhances the quality rather than harms it. This makes it an essential element in the assessment of TC, and prompts a call to teachers and curriculum designers to take it seriously in the teaching of translation and in the preparation of the teaching materials.

Chapter Eight: Conclusion

8.1 Introduction

This chapter attempts to bring together the findings of the research, particularly of the three studies described in the last four chapters which have empirically dealt with textual competence, disposition and monitoring as constituents of TC. The ultimate aim is to discuss the practical insights of using the model in the profiling of TC of individual translators working into their L1 and the potential implications for translation teaching and measurement. Thus, it sets out by discussing how well the findings satisfy the requirements of the model presented by Campbell (1998) through relating them to the context of TS. Next, it sets an attempt to profile translator's competence in comparison with other members of the group and undertakes to correlate it with the quality assessment of their output. Hence, the central question is about the extent to which assessing the three components of textual competence, disposition and monitoring is helpful in characterizing the TC of the student translators and forming their individual profiles. Finally, it looks at the degree of correspondence or disparity between the present results and those of Campbell, and also discusses the limitations of both the study and the model.

8.2 Summary of the Study

The study has investigated TC in the context of translating into L1 by relating it to three almost independent components that theoretically constitute it. The first is **textual competence** which deals with the translator's TL competence and the role it plays in characterising the individual TC of specific translators. The study of this aspect has investigated four features which largely decide the textual competence of a translator. These features are grammatical errors, mistranslations, omissions and lexical transfers. The correlations among these features have shown that they are not strongly related and this suggests that they are separate skills and abilities which develop rather independently. However, it is noticed that they show considerable persistence across the two texts and this finds for the prospect of measuring them reliably, and also on

recognizing the content validity of what is measured. As the four features operate separately and fuse together to make textual competence, the scale which is suggested at the end of Chapter Four tries to weigh the four constituents separately and come out with a separate score for each. The resultant scores are then calculated to make a final score for each participant. The assessment procedure of each constituent is different from the others, reliant on the range of values to be entered for that constituent on a scale. It is assumed in this study that these scores represent a reasonably reliable and objective measure of individual translators' textual competence.

The second component is based on the effect of the individual factor of **disposition**, representing the translator's attitude towards the translation task, on TC. This factor is not related to TL textual competence but rather relates to the personality and psychological build-up of a translator. It is investigated through two perspectives. The first is the degree of the translator's persistence to translate the whole text as reflected by the number of lexical items omitted from the ST. This was judged on the dichotomy of persistence and capitulation. The second perspective is the degree of dissimilarity a translator displays from the standard lexical choices of the group. Thus, the two perspectives have been used to decide the disposition level a translator has in comparison with members of the group. The noticeable variation among the translators in this aspect shows that TC diversity can be attributed to other factors rather than to textual competence.

The third independent component is **monitoring competence** which is taken as a function of the translator to assess his TC and to intervene to repair his final output. This study has first tackled monitoring through the translator's self-assessment (Chapter Six) and tried to explore the variation among the various translators in the awareness of their TC. It is judged through their estimation of that awareness to see whether they overestimate or underestimate their TC in comparison with the external criteria of tutor's evaluation and quality assessment of external raters. The results have shown that self-assessment does not correlate well with both external criteria, and this questions their reliability and validity as an element in the assessment of TC. Subsequently, they were discarded from the general assessment scale. The second element in monitoring (investigated in Chapter Seven) is the pattern of

the noticed interventions which the translators undertake to repair their initial product. The translators were evaluated according to a number of dimensions in this concern including the number of the noticed interventions, strategy adopted, purpose, level, effect, economy and frequency. The performance on these dimensions has been transformed into numerical values by awarding the constructive and desirable performance, which resulted into developing a rationally reliable numerical measure to rank the translators according to their revision performance.

The combination of the three components is used to assess TC of individual translators by using their products to infer the process that underlies it. The model reflects the relative independence among the components which is natural because each component deals with a different facet in the translation process. At the time textual competence concentrates on the TL competence, disposition challenges the personal attributes of the translator other than language competence. On the other hand, monitoring is connected with TL competence and the translator's personal approach to revise his own translation. The effect of each component in the model can be viewed as one of:

(...) three everyday questions that one might ask about a potential translator (...): (a) Can they produce translations in stylistically good (...) [language]? (b) Do they have the right personality for translating? (c) Can they turn out text that needs the minimum of revising? (Campbell, 1998, p.155).

Accordingly, the main issue is whether the model is capable of exposing the differences among translators on solid and reliable bases, or is it another one in the series of the common measures that adopt error detection used in translation assessment? Campbell (ibid, p.157) criticizes the error model of marking student translations because it performs assessment "in relation to some not necessarily explicit or fixed 'ideal' version to which the student version is expected to approximate". In addition, he states that such measures of error detection are not based on an 'explicit learning theory' because they assume that TC can be assessed, without reference to the learning competence or the underlying competence. Avoiding these drawbacks, Campbell justifies the use

of the model he presents on the bases that it has higher reliability and validity than the then widely used error-detection model.

The current study maintains that it has undertaken an innovative attempt to sharpen Campbell's measure in three related considerations. First, it has attempted to transform the behavioural statements that describe the translator's performance on each component into numerical values to make the individual's TC more easily interpretable. Second, numerical values have easily recognizable discrimination ability to rank translators appropriately for pedagogical and professional purposes. Last, in addition to the face validity and precision that numbers can provide, they are more defensible and explainable on the part of teachers and other users who recruit translators to convince students as well as applicants about the wisdom and objectivity of their judgments. As a result, teachers can use the scores to locate their student translators at different points on the developmental pathway, which helps in planning the teaching materials, choosing the methods of teaching and designing remedial work. In summary, one cannot but agree with Campbell (ibid), that the "model does include the means to describe differences between the performance of translators in much more insightful ways than existing methods".

8.3 The Research Questions and Findings

8.3.1 Textual Competence: The first question that was posed concerns the ways in which translators into the L1 vary in their textual competence or in their ability to manipulate the TL stylistically, as reflected in their lexical choice and grammar accuracy and deployment. The results of the investigation have shown that they markedly differ in these matters. Four features which are perceived to collaborate in forming textual competence were adopted to measure this aspect. They include lexical omissions from the ST, lexical mistranslations, grammatical errors and lexical choices. They reflect the match or mismatch between the ST and the TT and reflect how faithfully and accurately the translation conveys the ST. The investigation of the pattern of omissions and the lexical choices were used to decide the range of ability a translator has to build a TT with the minimum loss of meaning that may result from omitting lexical items from the ST (lexical choices and omissions were also used to

decide the dissimilarity among the translators in the disposition study). In addition, mistranslating lexical items and the way they are transferred to the TL reflect the textual competence and the efficacy of the translator in producing a well-built text.

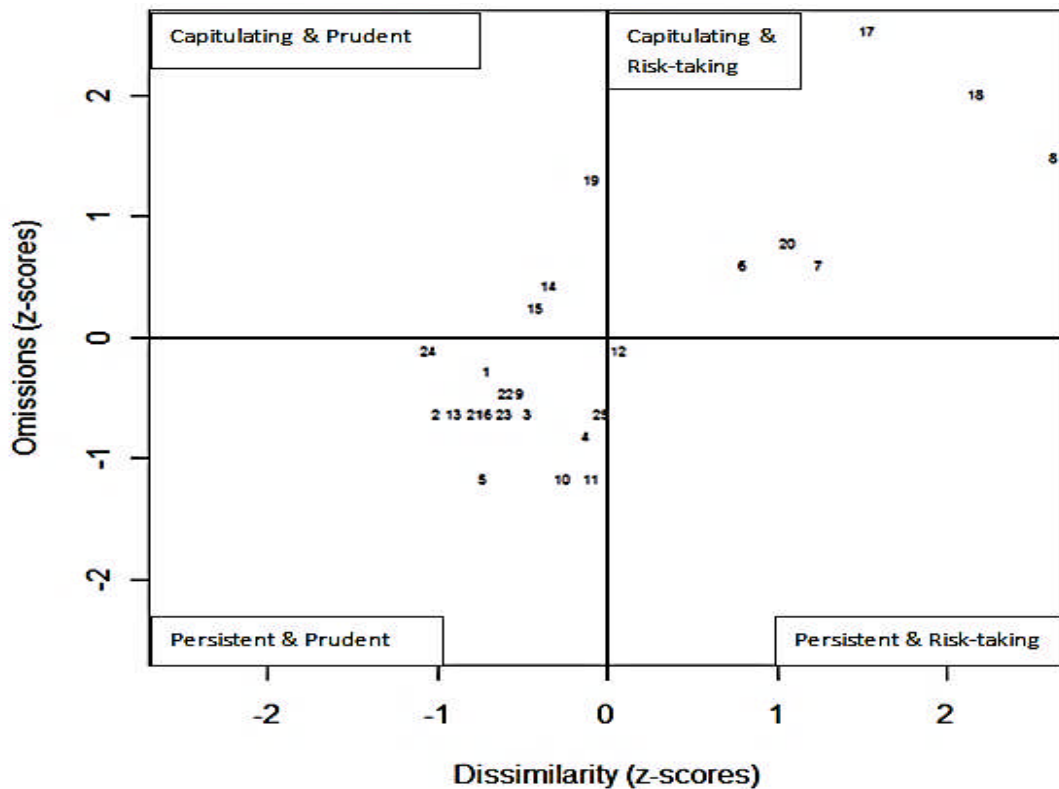
The investigation has revealed that translators significantly vary in respect to these features. As these features collaborate in building up the textual competence of the translator, the present study has endeavoured to build an assessment scale for textual competence which proved to be capable to reveal significant variations among the group. The core indication it provides is about the independence of each category; even though the four categories employed in the assessment are independent and not strongly related, they assume a steady pattern across the two texts. This can be inferred as a state where those constituents are basic in the build-up of textual competence, but at the same time they are separate and develop at different times and rates. This prompts translator training to look at them as distinctive skills whose level and efficacy vary from one translator to another even among members of a homogeneous group like the one that participated in this study. This suggests the necessity of diagnosing them and designing suitable training for specific translators or groups in the form of remedial work, classroom practice, homework assignment or autonomous learning.

The profiling of the different participants' textual competence can be employed to Campbell's classification of textual competence into substandard, pretextual and textual by considering participants who fall far below average as substandard, those who cluster around the average to be pretextual and those who gained the upper level as textual. The scores of each translator are totalled with their scores on disposition and monitoring to arrive at a final score to describe each translator's competence.

8.3.2 Disposition: The second question was about the degree of variation translators into the L1 display in their translation disposition, as it is revealed through lexical choices and lexical omissions from the ST. Disposition is indirectly assessed through investigating the participants' product in the same way Campbell did in the original study. It is measured by the distribution of the translators on four quadrants of a scattergram which describes the translator's disposition traits as they result from the intersection of the z-scores of lexical

omissions and lexical choice dissimilarity. The upper left quadrant of the gram reflects capitulating and prudent translators. The upper right quadrant is the zone of capitulating and risk-taking translators. The lower left quadrant indicates persistence and prudence while the lower right quadrant indicates persistence and risk-taking. Figure 8.1 below shows the distribution of the participants on the disposition scattergram.

Figure 8.1 Distribution of the Participants on the Scattergram



Campbell describes the translators' attitudes towards omissions as a matter of persistence as opposed to capitulation. Another important aspect in his account is the striking similarity of some renditions which forms a norm as opposed to the unusual renditions that are deviant from the norm. This variation has been accounted for with two disparate attitudes: risk-taking and prudence. According to Campbell the two axes of persistence vs. capitulation on the one hand, and risk-taking vs. prudence on the other, are responsible for the disposition profile of any translator. This procedure is adopted in the profiling of the translators' disposition in the present study. The important contribution of the study is that it seeks to ascertain what happens during the actual process of

translation through studying its evidence in the product. The translator who is located nearer to the focal point does not possess a high level of the attributes of his quadrants, unlike translators located nearer to the outer corners and outskirts of the gram, who possess higher levels of the attributes of their quadrants. However, disposition is investigated with reference to Campbell's study where he bypasses control of the TL and probes into the hidden psychological motivations and dispositions behind lexical choices in translation. In principle, it is ascertained by this study that the optimum disposition noticed in this group of participants is a combination of high persistence and prudence, although allowing for the inclination to risk-taking. Finally, the participants were ranked according to their locations on the grid giving priority to persistence over capitulation and prudence over risk-taking.

8.3.3 Monitoring: The third question is about the ways in which translators into the L1 vary in their ability to monitor their own translation as it is manifested in the processes of self-assessment and the self-revision they conduct while or after they finish translating a text. This question is answered by the investigation of the processes of self-assessment and self-revision in Chapter Six and Seven.

8.3.3.1 Self-assessment: Campbell's conclusion, that "Arabic students greatly overestimate their ability [to translate] into their first language" (ibid. p.136), is of great interest in this experiment. Conversely, the results revealed that the participants generally have the tendency to underestimate rather than to overestimate, which runs counter to Campbell's conclusion. The results of the current study can be said to agree with the conclusion of MacIntyre, et al. (1997, pp.265-28) that language learners mostly overestimate or underestimate their proficiency in language, and this behaviour is connected with language proficiency as a decisive factor in translation. Notably, the significant correlation between the participant assessments on both texts indicates the reliability of that assessment despite the difference in the level of text difficulty and its structure. By contrast, the absence of a significant correlation between tutor and participant assessment reflects the lack of validity in the assessment, which means that each of them assesses a different construct. Conversely, if the fact that the participants are native speakers with considerable control on their L1 is taken into account, the results agree with another more general statement by Campbell himself that the ability to self-assess one's translation ability differs:

(...) between language groups but more fundamentally between types of bilingualism, and that poor language competence is linked to overestimation and good language competence to under-estimation (Campbell, 1998, pp.137).

It can be argued that the good language competence the participants have could be the reason behind their general tendency to underestimate. It may also be related to their previous experiences of the way they were assessed by teachers throughout their years of study. However, the correlations between the participant self-assessment results and the raters' quality assessment generally show low to moderate relationships. On the other hand, the correlations between raters' assessments and tutor's assessment show a moderate to strong relationship. This leads to the conclusion that the participants' self-assessments or their awareness of their output are less credible than the general assessment of the tutor and the raters. Thus, even though self-assessments have the function of increasing the self-awareness and confidence of the learners in teaching, they must be used strictly cautiously and narrowly in the evaluation.

8.3.3.2 Self-revision: This aspect is investigated through examining the interventions that were conducted by the participants to improve their product and is assessed according to the procedure discussed in chapter six. The procedure included accounting for the number of noticed interventions, strategies adopted, purpose, level, effect, economy and frequency of revision. The results have revealed a great similarity in the kind and range of intervention between the two texts in general, besides highly correspondent results of specific participants which suggest their revision consistency, supported by the high correlation (0.591) between the two texts. Undoubtedly, this is an indicator of the reliability of the measure. In addition, the measure has shown very high discrimination ability as displayed by the range of variation in the participant results.

8.3.4 Individual Profiling: The central question is about the extent to which assessing the three components of textual competence, disposition and monitoring is helpful in characterizing the TC of the student translators and forming their individual profiles. The answer to this question is definitely

affirmative. The study has foregrounded to the relevance of the components through the theoretical underpinning of each component in the last three chapters, which leaves no doubt that these three components reflect TC fairly systematically. First, it deals with the translator’s bilingual competence through measuring his textual ability to render the ST into a well-built TT through investigating **textual competence**. It also deals with the translator’s **disposition** to carry out the translation task through studying his approach to the task. Last, it investigates the translator’s ability to intervene to amend his output through a process of **self-revision**. In addition, it presents a possible convenient way to assess **TC** in an objective way.

The assessment procedure which is designed for each component is suitable for the assessment of individual translators’ TC in comparison with other members of his group, and also gives an idea about the group as a whole. The behavioral statements which are traditionally used to describe TC (and used in the original study as well) are replaced by numerical values that stand for each statement to make assessment more precise, practical and objective.

8.4 Translator profiles

The translator scores which resulted from applying the evaluative scale of each component in the model are reflective of the TC of individual participants. Since the evaluative scale of each of the three components is different, the score a participant has achieved on each component has been converted out of 33.3 to give equal values to the components, and to make a total score of 100. Thus, the components are treated as equally important in forming TC in this study, as far as profiling is concerned. Subsequently, the results have revealed that the highest score obtained was 86 and the least was 22 with an average score of 60.08. Table 8.1 below shows the TC scores of each participant:

Table 8.1 Participants’ TC scores

Participant	Textual Competence	Disposition	Monitoring	Sum
1	27	16	29	72
2	29	28	27	84
3	27	21	15	63
4	19	29	21	69

5	29	33	15	77
6	15	9	10	34
7	17	8	19	44
8	6	4	12	22
9	25	17	15	57
10	21	32	23	76
11	27	30	17	74
12	23	13	17	53
13	33	26	27	86
14	27	11	23	61
15	23	12	17	52
16	31	24	21	76
17	17	1	17	35
18	8	3	19	30
19	21	5	21	47
20	17	7	23	47
21	31	25	12	68
22	25	18	17	60
23	27	22	27	76
24	29	15	21	65
25	27	20	27	74
Mean	23.24	17.16	19.68	60.08

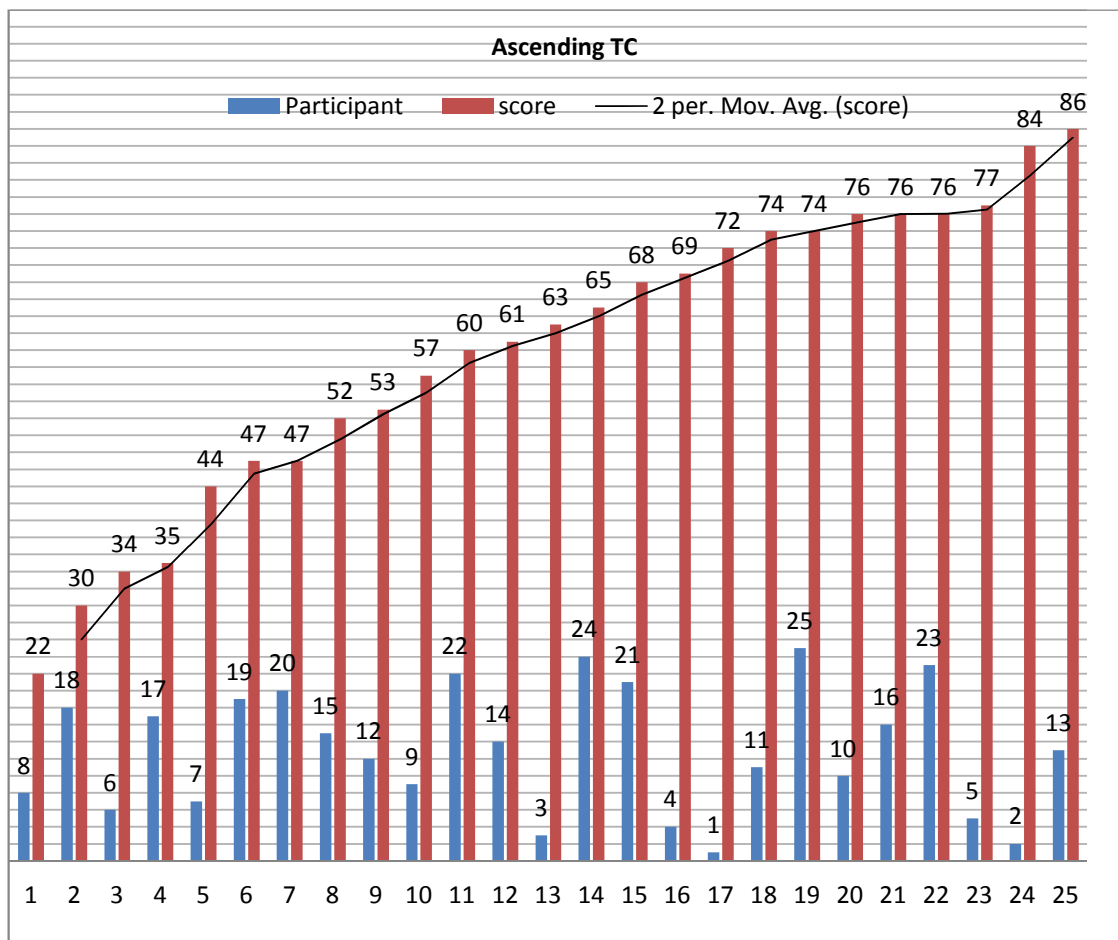
Remarkably, the participants are fairly and evenly spread over the scale as indicated by the strikingly high proximity between the mean (60.08) and the median (63) where the difference is very small (2.9). The balanced distribution indicates the high discrimination ability of the measure as a whole, something unanticipated in a homogeneous group of students admitted to a postgraduate program in translation according to well-established criteria of admission, including their language proficiency. Figure 8.1 below visually illustrates the distribution.

It is plausible at this point to give some examples of how the TC profiling was formulated and what abilities and attributes it reflects. These examples include the highest ranking participant, the middle (closest to group average), the lowest ranking participant and one above the lowest to illustrate how the different attributes collaborate to form a translator's TC profile:

1. Participant 13 has attained the highest TC score (86) in the group. His competence is made up of very high textual competence reflected in very low omissions, low mistranslations, low grammar errors and highly

successful transfers. Comparably, his disposition is ranked high (no. 6) among the group which is both highly persistent and prudent with markedly low omissions coupled with low dissimilarity. Last, his monitoring ability is very high where very frequent interventions are noticeable in his output. He used a high range of strategies, and an overwhelming majority of his interventions aim at textual revisions, still he narrowly used corrections. As for the level of revision, he worked at the three levels of word, phrase and sentence. The effect of his intervention was basically positive with some neutral instances and only one negative intervention. He also displayed high intervention frequency and high economy too. Briefly, he displayed a good combination of positive attributes on the three components and as a result obtained the top score in the group.

Figure 8.2 Participants Ranked in an Ascending Order on TC Scale



2. Participant 14: This participant has achieved a closely average TC score, achieving 61 on the evaluative scale. His textual competence was relatively higher than average. Although his omissions were moderate, his mistranslations and grammar errors were lower than average, with highly successful transfers. Unlike his textual competence, his disposition was lower than average and was located at rank 18 in the group. Both his omissions and dissimilarity counts were moderate, and he was moderately prudent but slightly capitulating. Finally, his monitoring was relatively high with considerably high noticed interventions combined with the use of a wide range of strategies. He had a better tendency towards textual revision than correction, but worked at the levels of word and phrase only, albeit in a balanced way. His interventions were mostly positive with a few neutral ones and a single negative intervention. He displayed high frequency and slightly lower than the favorite economy reflected by the average of the group economy. These attributes rank him as number 14 in his group when scores arranged from highest to lowest.
3. Participant 18 is an example of a translator with a very low TC and imbalance among the components. It was reflected by the poor textual competence resulting from a high number of omissions, mistranslations, grammar errors and strikingly unsuccessful transfers. Similarly, his disposition was very low resulting from an interaction between the high omissions and high dissimilarity. He was grossly both highly capitulating and risk-taking. However, his monitoring was somehow better than his textual competence and disposition. He made a large number of interventions, used a wide range of strategies and the majority of his revisions were textually directed, but his interventions were basically at the word level. Although his interventions were very frequent, they were not very effective because the majority of them were neutral and one of them was negative. Thus, he was able to score 30 only to be ranked one step higher than the weakest participant.
4. Participant 8 reserved the lowest TC rank in the group, scoring (22) only. His textual competence was very poor, made up of high omissions, very high mistranslations and many grammar errors with amazingly

unsuccessful transfers. Comparably, his omissions were very high as well as his dissimilarity. He was very highly capitulating and the highest ever risk-taking translator in the group. Similarly, his monitoring was not successful as he made few interventions, used a narrow range of strategies, and worked at the level of the word and phrase only. Although his interventions were infrequent, they were economic, and textually oriented, but they were not effective as only half of them were positive.

8.5 The Utility and Implications of the Research

The benefits that can be gained from validating the model may extend to various areas of pedagogy and accreditation. Thus, the results are expected to be relevant and useful for the following stakeholders:

- **Curriculum designers:** In the considerations of curriculum design, the model will facilitate the role of the designer as it can improve on the way to consider the components which are used as the building blocks in the design of a translation curriculum. As the model identifies the independent components of TC, it helps in achieving the ultimate aim of the translation curriculum designer in setting up the appropriate materials for training. Each of the components may require a separate set of materials for its development, with the consideration that it can be integrated with the other sets needed for the other components. Basing his work on a definite model, a curriculum designer can have a clearer perspective to follow definite steps to proceed towards his objectives, starting from their statement and ending up with the production and application of the teaching materials. Nevertheless, the encouragement for using the model does not mean a call to ignore the other sources of evaluation and to solely rely on the model. Definitely, test results, teacher observations and feedback from the participants in the teaching-learning process are indispensable in this concern, but they will be better complemented and guided by a model.
- **Educators and teachers:** The different components of TC reflected in the model are likely to develop at different levels, different times and different circumstances. This suggests that the model can facilitate in deciding the place and timing of the intervention in the translation training

properly. In addition, the intervention takes the level of the learners or trainees and their circumstances into account, so, the task of educators and teachers becomes easier and more effective when they have the means to locate their targeted learners at some virtual levels in the learning pathway to decide the suitable intervention for them. In addition, having a model in mind assists in the process of individualizing the teaching-learning process. Autonomous learning and shifting from the teacher-centered to the learner-centered approach is a trend in action. In the teacher-centered approach to translation the output or the product is the focus and the trainee strives to approximate an ideal version (Campbell, 1998, p.165) imposed by his teacher, or what House (1997, p.2) calls 'the optimal translation'. Modelling the process and profiling translator competence assist in shifting towards a learner-centered situation smoothly through individualizing the learning and relocating its responsibility more and more on the learner.

- **Testing and assessment experts:** The model allows for profiling the competence of the student-translators reasonably objectively and, consequently, it can be helpful in the general process of assessment and evaluation in an accurate and reliable way. In addition, profiling the learner's competence can measure more aspects of translation than the quality of output, such as the student's level of achievement and progress towards mastering the translation process. Moreover, the feedback a model provides is so helpful and systematic that it can enable teachers to know exactly when and where to intervene in the choice of the method of teaching, to diagnose the areas of strength and weakness and to focus on the areas of weakness by providing the right remedial work for the learners. Unquestionably, diagnosing the weaknesses and the points of strength can help the learners proceed with confidence towards enhancing their achievement. The feedback that profiling according to a model provides is incremental and longitudinal and it shapes the way the learners learn and not the content of what the teachers teach, by focusing on the underlying competences of translating. This means that, unlike translations marked by the teacher, such profiling is illustrative of the process rather than the product. So, the

information derived from the profiling is supposed to be more systematic, more reliable and based on measures that have a high degree of construct validity because they are well underpinned to an established theory of learning.

- **Translator recruitment and accreditation:** Traditionally, accreditation bodies depend essentially on the results of temporal translation tests to arrive at their decisions behind licensing a translator. Similarly, institutions depend on temporal tests in accepting or rejecting the recruitment of an applicant-translator. However, to take some well-informed decisions, the accreditation bodies as well as the recruiting institutions may complement the results of their tests by the profiling of the translator's competence based on applying this type of translation model. The information that will be acquired from this process and that obtained from other sources such as the different types and versions of translation tests can lead to fairer and wiser judgments. This is due to the fact that tests in general may suffer from problems of validity and reliability to certain degrees that they badly need to be complemented by additional judgments such as those obtained from profiling the TC of the applicant translators. In fact, accreditation bodies and employers are concerned more about predicting the consistency of the translator's performance, which is unlikely to be revealed by the results of a single test. Thus, as the current model can successfully profile the TC in the L1, it is assumed that it can be used safely in complementing the accreditation and recruitment testing.

8.6 Difficulties and limitations of the Study

As a replicate study, the present investigation tried to follow the same scope and procedures of the original. However, it did not strictly abide to them, and there were additions and alterations whenever deemed necessary. This made the findings of the original study conflict with some of those of the current one. The following are some of the difficulties and limitations that were involved in the study:

- Even though the research ethics ensure fidelity and objectivity and can be seen as a blessing in any research, and particularly in empirical research that depends on participant responses and data, they

sometimes turn out to be a curse. For example, despite his overt willingness to cooperate, one of the tutors declined to give his assessment of the participants, which was necessary to correlate with the participant self-assessment (Section 6.5), because his institution ethics did not allow that. This obliged the researcher to look for an alternative external measure for the assessment, and decided to depend on the results of the quality assessment of three raters instead. It was an extra step that could have been avoided with more flexible ethical procedures.

- Another difficulty was in finding a representative number of participants to take part in the study. A retrospective look at the volume of correspondence with the tutors and participants confirms that it is a major achievement to have the current number of participants taking part in the research.
- The time that the participants can offer is not always sufficient to try different procedures to triangulate the results. In the current study think-aloud protocols and individual interviews, for example, were not conducted because it was undesirable and even unthinkable to ask the participants to wait for hours for their turns in an interview, after they have finished a two-hour translation session.
- Certainly, the work on data preparation, the detection of errors, omissions, transfer strategies, dissimilarity choice-network analysis and tabulation was so huge to be done by an individual researcher. It required considerable time, effort, patience, and stamina to complete.
- The original study dealt with monitoring as a practical problem with inadequate theoretical underpinning. It was justifiable because the majority of the theoretical studies about translation monitoring were conducted at a later time. Thus, the findings of studies subsequent to the original one falsified some of its assumptions, as it was seen in the matter of the definite dependability of participant self-assessment and the tendency of competent translators to underestimate their own TC. Franghanel and Voela (2001, p.47) stress that the results of researching this aspect were disappointing and superficial. Luckily, this did not

question the basis and the utility of the replication because the findings of those studies were themselves conflicting as illustrated by Fernandez and Zabalbeascoa (2012, p.463) who find that the best performing students have better awareness in assessing their output. An important assumption that is falsified by the current study is that translators in the L1 (Arabic) do not have problems in grammar and expression as they are native speakers of the TL. The results unexpectedly revealed that they made a relatively large number of grammar and expression errors.

- This study has approached TC as consisting of three components only, unlike the dominant tendency of the multi-componential models (PACTE, for example) which deal with it as a composite of a larger number of components. Although having a limited number of components focused the analysis fairly well, it has omitted some elements of TC, especially the instrumental knowledge component which comprises the use of documentation, tools of translation and communication and so on.

8.7 Areas for Potential Research

There are some possible areas of research that are related to the current study. Most of them were suggested by the original study in the section about the wider applicability of the model (Campbell, 1998, pp.160-162) such as cohesion, stamina and language power. The following areas seem to be most promising for further research:

- Both the original and the current study have overlooked real knowledge gaps as a translation problem on the basis that the texts which have been used in them are not specialized and do not pose such problems. A promising study can try a similar experiment on texts of specialized content and see how knowledge gaps affect TC.
- The current study, as well as the original one, did not allow for the use of dictionaries, reference books and computer aids. It seems interesting to try the same experiment with the use of these aids and see the differences in the translator's performance.

- It is also useful to investigate the relationship between the translator's stamina, or his insistence on producing well written texts despite tiredness, and the varying levels of text difficulty and time constraints.
- This study investigated the TC of student translators only. Yet, a replication study recruiting professional translators may yield interesting results.
- The component of revision can be investigated through using keystroke logging detection in place of handwriting, especially with participants who are skilled in the use of computers. This may produce different results, particularly conditioned by the revision habits as related to typing habits of the participants. It is anticipated that variation is possible because some translators revise mentally before typing the translation more than others who type the initial translations and then revise them.

Finally, the current research has proven that Campbell's model of translating into the L2 can be equally applied with almost comparable effect on translating into the L1. It is effective in exploring the TC and in measuring the variation among a group of translators. The numerical evaluative scales that were added in this study enhance the sharpness and precision of the model so as to be used reliably. Further experiments and applications on different pairs of languages, genres and levels of professionalism are liable to yield more supportive results to confirm the present ones.

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Appendices

Appendix A Documents of the Experiment

A.1 Experiment Texts and Their Expert Translation

T1 (About 220 words)

Participant no. ()

Task I: Please translate the following text into Arabic:

Fixing the Mistake with Young Offenders

There is new unquestionable evidence that state governments are finally understanding what a tragic mistake they made during the 1990s when they began trying ever larger numbers of children as adults instead of sending them to the juvenile justice system.

Prosecutors argued that harsh sentencing would protect the public from violent, youthful predators. But it has since turned out that most young people who spend time in jails and prisons are charged with nonviolent offenses. As many as half are never convicted of anything at all. In addition, research has shown that these young people are vulnerable to battery and rape at the hands of adult inmates and more likely to become violent, lifelong criminals than those who are held in juvenile custody.

A new study by the Campaign for Youth Justice, a Washington advocacy group, shows that state legislatures across the country are getting the message. In the last five years, the authors say, 15 states have passed nearly 30 pieces of legislation aimed at reversing policies that funnel a quarter of a million children into the adult justice system each year.

Task II: *On the scale of ten below, please, estimate your translation quality of the above text (10 being the highest):*

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

Expert Translation: T1

تصحيح الخطأ بشأن المخالفين الصغار

هنالك دليل جديد لا يقبل الشك على أن حكومات الولايات أخذت تدرك أخيراً مدى الخطأ المأساوي الذي ارتكبه خلال عقد التسعينات من القرن الماضي عندما باشرت بمحاكمة أعداد كبيرة من الأطفال لم يسبق لها مثيل، كما لو كانوا كباراً، بدلاً عن إرسالهم إلى جهاز قضاء الأحداث.

لقد إحتج أعضاء الإدعاء العام بأن الأحكام القاسية سوف تحمي الشعب من الشرسين وسط الشباب العنيف. ولكن إتضح، منذ ذلك الحين، أن غالبية الشباب الذين قضوا أوقاتاً في السجون والمعتقلات كانوا متهمين بمخالفات لا تنطوي على عنف ، وأن حوالي نصف عددهم لم يدانوا بأية تهمة على الإطلاق. وأظهر البحث، فضلاً عن ذلك، أن أولئك الشباب كانوا عرضة للضرب والإغتصاب على أيدي رفاق السجن الأكبر منهم سناً، ومن الأرجح أن يتحولوا إلى مجرمين عتاة طيلة أعمارهم مقارنة بأقرانهم الذين يتم إيداعهم في سجن الأحداث.

وتظهر دراسة أعدتها (حملة إنصاف الشباب) وهي جماعة من محامي واشنطن، أن المشرعين الرسميين في عموم البلاد قد فهموا الرسالة. ويذكر الباحثون أن خمس عشرة ولاية أقرت ما يقرب من ثلاثين تشريعاً في السنوات الخمس الماضية، هدفها إبطال السياسات التي تحيل ربع مليون طفل إلى جهاز القضاء الخاص بالكبار في كل عام.

T2 (About 220 words)

Participant no. ()

Task I: Please translate the following text into Arabic:

Immigration: Review of Jail Fingerprint Sharing Program underway

An outside expert has been hired to review the Secure Communities Program. A statistician has been brought in and is working with Department of Homeland Security, which investigates complaints and assists in policy evaluations. Both are said to be looking at data already collected.

Under the Immigration and Customs Enforcement Program, state and local police must check the immigration status of people who have been arrested and booked into local jails by matching fingerprints against federal databases for criminal convictions and deportation orders.

Secure Communities has come under scrutiny over the last two months, after thousands of documents, including internal agency memos, were made public indicating officials were unsure if cities and counties were required to participate, or could opt out.

Concerns were also fuelled by DHS own numbers that indicate more than half of the immigrants deported under the program had minor or no criminal records, even though the program was aimed at dangerous criminals.

Secure Communities was launched in late 2008, and DHS Secretary, Janet Napolitano, is right to seek outside help in crunching the numbers. It would help

bring transparency and could quell critics who talk about concerns regarding racial profiling and pre-textual arrests.

Task II: On the scale of ten below, please, estimate your translation quality of the above text (10 being the highest):

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

Expert Translation: T2

الهجرة: إعادة النظر ببرنامج تداول بصمات الأصابع في السجون تجري حاليا

تم تعيين خبير من الخارج لإعادة النظر في (برنامج الجماعات الآمنة) ، كما تم جلب خبير آخر في الإحصاء يعمل حاليا مع وزارة الأمن الوطني التي تحقق في الشكاوى وتساعد في تقويم السياسات، ويقال أنهما يقومان بتدقيق بيانات جُمعت سلفا.

يتوجب على الشرطة المحلية، بموجب البرنامج التنفيذي للهجرة والكمارك، فحص قضايا الهجرة التي تخص الأشخاص الذين تم إعتقالهم واحتجازهم في السجون المحلية بمطابقة بصمات اصابعهم مع قاعدة البيانات الفيدرالية فيما يخص قضايا الإدانة الجنائية وأوامر الترحيل.

لقد وُضع برنامج الجماعات الآمنة تحت طائلة المساءلة طيلة الشهرين الماضيين بعدما نُشرت آلاف الوثائق على الملأ، بما في ذلك مذكرات الوكالة الداخلية، وأشارت الى أن المسؤولين غير متأكدين مما اذا كان لزاما على المدن والأقاليم المشاركة فيه أم أن المشاركة خيار متروك لها.

وتعززت المخاوف أيضا بسبب الأعداد الخاصة بوزارة الأمن الوطني التي تشير الى ان أكثر من نصف المهاجرين الذين تم ترحيلهم بموجب البرنامج كانت لديهم سجلات جرمية بسيطة أو لم تكن لديهم سجلات جرمية على الإطلاق، على الرغم من أن البرنامج كان يستهدف المجرمين الخطرين.

لقد استُهل العمل ببرنامج الجماعات الآمنة أواخر العام 2008 ، وكانت وزيرة الأمن الوطني جانيت نابوليتانو على حق في بحثها عن مساعدة خارجية لخفض كبير في الأعداد، إذ يساعد ذلك في إضفاء الشفافية وإسكات النقاد الذين يتحدثون عن مخاوف بشأن التوصيفات العنصرية أو الإعتقالات الذرائعية.

Appendix A.2 Invitation and Consent Form

A.2.1 Information Sheet

Information Sheet

1. Research Project Title: **Translating into the First Language: Textual Competence, Disposition and Monitoring as Indicators of Translation Competence.**

2. Invitation: You are being invited to take part in a research project. Before you decide it is important for you to understand why the research is being done and what it will involve. Please take time to read the following information carefully and discuss it with others if you wish. Ask us if there is anything that is not clear or if you would like more information. Take time to decide whether or not you wish to take part. Thank you for reading this.

3. What is the project's purpose?
The project is a PhD study which aims at investigating the key concept (in Translation Studies) of Translation competence.

4. Why have I been chosen?
You are chosen with a group of other 30 participants as advanced student translators who will be recruited for this study because you possess the attributes that are set by the study of being an advanced native speaker of Arabic student translator.

5. Do I have to take part?
It is up to you to decide whether or not to take part. If you do decide to take part you will be given this information sheet to keep (and be asked to sign a consent form) and you can still withdraw at any time without it affecting any benefits that you are entitled to in any way. You do not have to give a reason.

6. What will happen to me if I take part?
You will be involved in the research for two hours divided into two sessions of one hour each. In each session you will be asked to perform two tasks. First, to write the translation of a short text from English into Arabic. Second, to self-assess your translation performance on the text on a scale of ten points. Think aloud protocols' audio recording may accompany your task performance and a retrospective interview may follow in case it will be needed.

7. What do I have to do?
No preparation is required by you and there are no lifestyle restrictions as a result of participating.

8. What are the possible disadvantages and risks of taking part?
There are no anticipated disadvantages or discomforts that may result from participating in the project.

9. What are the possible benefits of taking part?
Whilst there are no immediate benefits for those people participating in the project, it is hoped that this work will add some useful practice to their experience in translation. It is

also possible to get some feedback at a later stage when the research results will be analysed.

10. What happens if the research study stops earlier than expected?
There are no expectations that the research stops earlier than expected.

11. Will my taking part in this project be kept confidential?
Yes. All the information that we collect about you during the course of the research will be kept strictly confidential. You will not be able to be identified in any reports or publications.

12. What information is sought from me and why is it relevant for the research objectives?

The information sought from you will include your age, sex, first language, second language, other languages you speak or write, where you came from, level of education, program of study, and previous experience in translation.

This information is believed to be relevant to the research objectives because it looks at the variation among translators in their competence of translating into their native language which is affected by such factors.

13. What will happen to the results of the research project?
The results of the research project will make a basic constituent of a PhD thesis to be submitted to the School of Modern Languages- University of Leeds.

14. Who is organising and funding the research?
The research is sponsored by the Ministry of Higher Education in Iraq.

15. Contact for further information
Falih Al-Emara
School of Modern Languages and Cultures
University of Leeds.
Email: fsalemara@yahoo.com or mlfsae@leeds.ac.uk
Tel. 07562774553

OR

You may contact my supervisor
Prof. Jeremy Munday
Email: j.munday@leeds.ac.uk
Tel. 37616

Thank you for taking the time to read through the information.

PS. Your activities which will be made during this research will be used only for analysis. No other use will be made of them without your written permission, and no one outside the project will be allowed access to them.

A.2.2 Participant Consent Form

Title of Research Project: Translation into the First Language: Lexical Transfers, Disposition and Monitoring as Indicators of Translation Competence

Name of Researcher: Mr. Falih Al-Emara

Initial the box if you agree with the statement to the left

1 I confirm that I have read and understand the information sheet dated *[insert date]* explaining the above research project and I have had the opportunity to ask questions about the project.

2 I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time without giving any reason and without there being any negative consequences. In addition, should I not wish to answer any particular question or questions, I am free to decline. In case you wish to decline please email the researcher on mlfsae@leeds.ac.uk or call 07562774553.

3 I understand that my responses will be kept strictly confidential. I give permission for members of the research team to have access to my anonymised responses. I understand that my name will not be linked with the research materials, and I will not be identified or identifiable in the report or reports that result from the research.

4 I agree for the data collected from me to be used in future research

5 I agree to take part in the above research project and will inform the principal investigator should my contact details change.

Name of participant
(or legal representative)

Date

Signature

Name of person taking consent
(if different from lead researcher)

Date

Signature

To be signed and dated in presence of the participant

Lead researcher

Date

Signature

To be signed and dated in presence of the participant

Copies:

Once this has been signed by all parties the participant should receive a copy of the signed and dated participant consent form, the letter/pre-written script/information sheet and any other written information provided to the participants. A copy of the signed and dated consent form should be kept with the project's main documents which must be kept in a secure location.

A.3 Background Information Sheet

Dear Participant,

Before you begin the actual translation, please answer the following background questions. Again, all of this information will be anonymous and nobody will know what you write.

Background Information

1. Age _____ ; Gender: **F** [] / **M** []
2. Country of origin _____
3. How long have you studied English in **non-English-speaking** countries?
Number of **years** [] / **months** []
4. If you have lived in an **English-speaking** country for over one month, please indicate the countries you have lived in, the total amount of time in each, and which year it was.
Example: Australia (1 years 3 months: 2002 ~ 2003)
 - a. _____ (years months: ~)
 - b. _____ (years months: ~)
 - c. _____ (years months: ~)
5. a. What is your most recent IELTS overall score? (Date: DD/MM /YY)
...../...../..... (Score:.....)
b. What is your score in each test component?
 - Listening
 - Speaking
 - Reading
 - Writing
6. a. What is your most recent TOEFL overall score?
(Date:...../...../..... Score:.....)
b. What is your score on each of the following test components?
 - Writing.....
 - Listening.....
 - Vocabulary and written expression.....
 - Reading.....
7. Please indicate if you have any other scores in tests for English language proficiency
Test:..... Date:...../...../..... Score:.....
8. Please estimate your English language level (tick as appropriate):
 - Beginning []
 - Intermediate []
 - Advanced []
9. How often have you been practicing translation into Arabic and/or out of it?
a. regularly [] b. occasionally [] c. rarely [] d. never []
10. For how long have you been practicing that (question 8)?
Years [] months []
 - Out of Arabic years [] months []
 - Into Arabic years [] months []

A.4 Retrospective Protocols Checklist

Please choose as appropriate. You may need to tick more than one box.

1. The level of difficulty the participant encountered

Easy	Fair	Difficult	Very difficult	Exceptionally difficult

2. The timing of revision the participant applied

While translating	after translating	Both while & after

3. The translation unit the participant worked on

Word	Sentence	Text

4. The time suitability for the task

less than required	Sufficient	more than required

5. Number of minutes the final revision takes

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15

6. Underline the areas or items of difficulty.

Appendix B Choice Network Analysis

B.1 Text one:

Fr= frequency and V= view

1. Source Item: Across (the country)

Context: state legislatures **across the country** are getting the message.

Fr	Renditions	Transliteration	Gloss	V
7	في (الدولة أو البلاد)	fī (addawla 'aw albilād)	In (state or country)	D
5	Omissions	-----	-----	D
4	عبر (البلاد)	'ibra (albilād)	Across the (country)	S
2	أنحاء، نواحي	'anhā', nawāhī	Parts, places	S
2	على إمتداد الدولة /البلاد	'alā 'imtidād addawla /albilād	Across the state or country	S
1	أرجاء	'arjā'	Areas	S
1	على مُستوى	'alā mustū	At a level	S
1	حول	ḥawla	Around	D
1	أقصى	'aqṣā	Farthest	D
1	مُختلف	mukṭalif	Different	S

2. Source Item: Advocacy

Context: the Campaign for Youth Justice, a Washington **advocacy** group,

Fr .	Renditions	Transliteration	Gloss	V
8	Omissions	-----	-----	D
3	مُحاماة	muḥāmā	Lawyering	S
3	دفاع	difā'	Defense	S
2	مُناصرة	munāṣra	Advocate	S
2	ناشطة	nāṣiṭa	Activist	D
2	داعمة	dā'ima	Supportive	S
1	إستشارية	'istichāryya	Advisory	D
1	شريك	Šarīk	Partner	D
1	قانوني	Qānūnī	Legal	D
1	أتباع	'atbā'	Followers	D
1	حماية	ḥimāya	Protection	S

3. Source Item: Argued

Context: Prosecutors argued that **harsh sentencing** would protect the public ...

Fr	Renditions	Transliteration	Gloss	V
7	قول	qawl	Say, talk	D
6	جدل	jadal	Argument	S
4	نقاش	niqāš	Talk, debate	S
2	إدعاء	'idi'ā'	Claim	D
2	رؤية	ru'ya	Vision	D

1	تَبْرِير	tabrīr	Justification	S
1	زَعْم	za‘m	Allegation	D
1	إِشَارَة	‘išāra	Signal	D
1	تَأْكِيد	ta‘kīd	Confirmation	S

4. Source Item: Authors

Context: In the last five years, the **authors** say ...

Fr	Renditions	Transliteration	Gloss	V
11	كُتَّاب	kuttāb	Writers	S
6	Omissions	-----	-----	D
4	مُؤَلِّفُون	mu‘lifūn	Authors	S
3	بَاحِثُون	bāḥitūn	Researchers	S
1	مَنْ يَكْتُب	man yaktub	Who writes	D

5. Source Item: battery

Context: young people are vulnerable to **battery** and rape

Fr	Renditions	Transliteration	Gloss	V
8	Omissions	-----	-----	D
4	الصَّرْب	aḍḍarb	Beating	S
3	العُنْف	al‘unf	Violence	D
2	الإِسْتِغْلَال	al‘istiḡlāl	Exploitation	D
1	التَّعْنِيف	atta‘nīf	Taunting	D
1	السَّرْقَة	assariqa	Theft	D
1	التَّعْدِي	atta‘adī	Aggression	S
1	الإِهَانَة	al‘ihāna	Insult	D
1	تَكْتِيف	taktīf	Tie sb.	D
1	إِسَاءَة	‘isā‘a	Offense	D
1	تَعْرُض	ta‘aruḍ	Attack	S
1	إِعْتِدَاء	‘i‘tidā‘	Assault	S

6. Source Item: Convicted

Context: As many as half are never **convicted** of anything at all.

Fr	Renditions	Transliteration	Gloss	V
11	إِتْهَام	‘itihām	Charge	S
6	إِدَانَة	‘idāna	Conviction	S
2	Omissions	-----	-----	D
1	إِمْتِنَاع	‘imtinā‘	Refrain	D
1	تُسَجَّلُ عَلَيْهِ قَضِيَة	tusajal ‘alayhi qadiya	A case recorded on him	S
1	إِقْتِرَاف	‘iqtirāf	committing	D
1	إِرْتِكَاب	‘irtikāb	Committing	D
1	يَقْعُونَ فِي الْفَخِّ	yaqa‘ūn fī alfak	They fall in the trap	D
1	حُكْم	ḥukm	rule, sentence	S

7. Source Item: Custody

Context: those who are held in juvenile **custody**.

Fr	Renditions	Transliteration	Gloss	V
6	إصلاحية (إصلاح)	'iṣlāhiyya ('iṣlāḥ)	Rehabilitation prison	S
5	سجن	sijn	Prison	S
2	دار رعاية	dār ri'āya	Care Home	S
2	Omissions	-----	-----	D
1	مصلحة الأحداث	maṣliḥa al'ahdāt	Juvenile Department	S
1	محاكمة جنائية	muḥākama jinā'iyya	Criminal trial	D
1	حضانة	ḥaḍāna	Incubation	S
1	قضاء	qaḍā'	Justice	D
1	كفالة	kafāla	Care	S
1	نظام عدل	niḍām 'adl	Justice System	D
1	مركز تأهيل	markaz ta'hīl	Rehabilitation center	S
1	مركز أحداث	markaz 'ahdāt	Juvenile Center	S
1	وصاية	wiṣāya	Trusteeship	S
1	مركز خاص بالأحداث	markz kāṣ bāl'ahdāt	Special Juvenile center	S

8. Source Item: Ever larger

Context: when they began trying **ever larger** numbers of children as adults ...

Fr	Renditions	Transliteration	Gloss	V
12	أعداد كبيرة	'a dād kabīra	Large numbers	D
4	عدد أكبر	'add 'akbr	Larger number	D
4	Omissions	-----	-----	D
2	أعداد لا سابق لها (غير مسبوقة)	'a dād lā sābiq lahā (ḡayr masbūqa)	Unprecedented numbers	S
1	أعداد متزايدة	'a dād mutzāyda	Increasing numbers	D
1	العديد	al'adīd	Many	D
1	مجموعة كبيرة	majmū'a kabīra	A large group	D

9. Source Item: fixing

Context: [Title] **Fixing** the Mistake with Young Offenders

Fr	Renditions	Transliteration	Gloss	V
8	تصحيح	taṣḥīḥ	Correction	S
5	إصلاح	'iṣlāḥ	Reform, Rehabilitation	S
2	تغيير سلوك	taḡyīr sulūk	Changing behavior	D
2	معالجة	mu'ālja	Treatment	S
2	تصويب	taṣwīb	Correction	S
2	Omissions	-----	-----	D
1	تقويم	Taqwīm	Correction	S
1	حل (مشكلة)	ḥal (maškla)	Solve a (problem)	S
1	تعديل	ta'dīl	Amendment	S
1	تغلب (على الخطأ)	taḡalub ('alā alḡaṭa')	Overcome (the error)	S

10. Source Item: Funnel

Context: policies that **funnel** a quarter of a million children into the adult justice system ...

Fr	Renditions	Transliteration	Gloss	V
7	إرسال	'irsāl	Sending	S
3	زج	zaj	Pushing	S
2	إحالة	'ihāla	Referral	S
2	تحويل	taḥwīl	Referral	S
1	جر	jar	Pulling	S
1	إدخال	'idkāl	Entry	S
1	نقل	naql	Transfer	S
1	إنقاذ	'inqāḍ	Rescue	D
1	وضع	waḍ'	Putting	S
1	إيداع	'iidā'	Depositing	S
1	حض	ḥaḍ	Exhortation	D
1	ذهاب	ḍihāb	Taking away	S
1	ألقاء	'alqā'	Drop, cast	S
1	إحتجاز	'ihtijāz	Detention	S
1	حكم	ḥukm	Sentence, rule	D

11. Source Item: Harsh sentencing

Context: Prosecutors argued that **harsh sentencing** would protect the public ...

Fr	Renditions	Transliteration	Gloss	V
10	أحكام قاسية	'aḥkām qāsyā	Harsh sentences	S
3	عقوبات صارمة	'aḡūbāt ṣārma	Strict penalties	S
3	Omissions	-----	-----	D
2	أحكام صارمة	'aḥkām ṣārma	Strict sentences	S
2	عقاب قاسي	'iqāb qāsī	Harsh punishment	S
1	أحكام مشددة	'aḥkām mašdda	Strict sentences	S
1	قضاء متفاهم	qaḍā' mutfāqm	Corrupt justice	D
1	أحكام شاقّة	'aḥkām šāqa	Daunting sentences	S
1	صرامة الإعتقال	ṣarāma al'itqāl	Detention severity	D
1	أحكام شديدة	'aḥkām šadīda	Severe sentences	S

12. Source Item: has since

Context: But it **has since** turned out that ...

Fr	Renditions	Transliteration	Gloss	V
13	Omissions	-----	-----	D
3	مُنذ ذلك الحين	munḍu ḡalk alhiyin	Since that time	S
3	مُنذ ذلك الوقت	munḍu ḡalk alwaqt	Since that time	S
1	فيما بعد	fiymā ba'd	Later	S
1	حينها	ḥiynahā	Then	D
1	مُنذ ذلك	munḍu ḡalk	Since that	S
1	مع مرور الوقت	ma'a murūr alwaqt	With the passage of time	D
1	مُنذ	munḍu	Since	S
1	مُنذ أن	munḍu 'an	Since that	S

13. Source Item: Juvenile

Context: instead of sending them to the **juvenile** justice system.

Fr	Renditions	Transliteration	Gloss	V
16	الأحداث	al'ahdāt	Juvenile	S
3	الإصلاح	al'iṣlāḥ	Rehabilitation	D
2	جفيل	Jafnīl	Transliteration	D
2	Omissions	-----	-----	D
1	الجناة	aljunā	Offenders	D
1	القاصرين	alqāṣirīn	Minors, juveniles	S

14. Source Item: legislatures

Context: state **legislatures** across the country are getting the message.

Fr	Renditions	Transliteration	Gloss	V
10	المُشرعون	almuṣarī'ūn	Lawmakers	S
3	تشريعات الدولة	tašrī'āt addawla	State legislation	D
2	مُشرعي الحكومة	muṣarī'ī alḥukūma	Government legislators	S
1	القائمين على التشريع	alqā'imīn 'alā alachrī'	In charge of legislation	S
1	القوانين القانونية	alqawānīn alqānūnya	Legal laws	D
1	الذين يسنون القوانين	allaḍīn yasunūn alqawānīn	Who enact laws	S
1	التشريعات	attašrī'āt	Legislation	D
1	المُحكمة	almaḥkama	Court	D
1	القضاة	alquḍā	Judges	D
1	أرباب الشأن في إصدار القانون	'arbāb ašša'n fī 'iṣdār alqānūn	Law enactors	S
1	التشريعات الحكومية	attašrī'āt alḥukūmya	Government legislation	D
1	واضعو التشريعات	wāḍī'ū attašrī'āt	Legislators	S
1	القانونيون	Alqānūnyūn	People of law	D

15. Source Item: Offenders

Context: [Title] **Fixing** the Mistake with Young Offenders

Fr	Renditions	Transliteration	Gloss	V
8	Omissions	-----	-----	D
3	أحداث	'ahdāt	Juvenile	D
3	المُجرمين	almujrimīn	Criminals	S
2	مُخالفين	muḵālifīn	Violators	S
2	جُنّاح	junāḥ	Offenders	S
2	مُذنبين	muḍnbīn	Guilty	S
2	مُتهمين	Mutahmīn	Accused	D
1	مُعْتدين	mu'tadīn	Aggressors	S
1	مُشاغبين	Mušāḡibīn	Hooligans	S
1	مُسيئين	musī'īn	Abusers	S

16. Source Item: passed

Context: 15 states have **passed** nearly 30 pieces of legislation

Fr	Renditions	Transliteration	Gloss	V
6	إصدار	'iṣḍār	Issuing	S
4	تَمْرِير	Tamrīr	Passing	S
3	سَن	san	Enacting	S
2	مُرَاجَعَة	murāja'a	Review	D
2	إقرار	'iqrār	Endorsement	S
1	مُؤَافَقَة	muwāfaqa	Approval	S
1	شَنْ حُكْم	šan ḥukm	Wage a sentence	D
1	تَحْوِيل	taḥwīl	Referral	D
1	تَعَاَضِي	taḡāḍī	Disregard	D
1	تَعَدِي	ta'adī	Trespass	D
1	إِسْتِعَاذَة	'isti'āda	Recovery	D
1	تَحَاوِر	taḥāwir	Discussion	D
1	Omissions	-----	-----	D

17. Source Item: Pieces

Context: 15 states have passed nearly 30 **pieces** of legislation

Fr	Renditions	Transliteration	Gloss	V
9	تَشْرِيْع	tašrī'	Legislation	S
2	قَانُون	qānūn	Law	S
2	حُكْم	ḥukum	Rule	S
2	مَادَة تَشْرِيْعِيَة	māda tašrī'ya	Legislative article	S
1	قَانُون تَشْرِيْعِي	qānūn tašrī'ī	Legislative act	S
1	مَادَة قَانُونِيَة	māda qānūnya	Legal Article	S
1	مُحَامِي	muḥāmī	Lawyer	D
1	قِطْعَة	qiṭ'a	Piece	D
1	مَشْرُوع قَانُون	mašrū' qānūn	Bill	S
1	بَنْد	band	Item	S
1	مَادَة	māda	Article	S
1	قَانُون شَرْعِي	qānūn šar'ī	Law legit	S
1	قَرَار	qarār	Decision	S
1	مَادَة تَشْرِيْعِيَة	māda tašrī'iyā	Legislative article	S

18. Source Item: Prosecutors

Context: **Prosecutors** argued that harsh sentencing would protect the public ...

Fr	Renditions	Transliteration	Gloss	V
4	الْقُضَاة	alquḍā	Judges	D
4	Omissions	-----	-----	D
3	مُدْعُو الْعُمُوم	muda'ū al'umūm	Prosecution	S
2	الإدعاء	al'idi'ā'	Prosecution	S
2	المدعون	almud'ūn	Prosecutors	S
1	مُوظَفُو الْمَحَاكِم	mūḏfū alamḥākīm	The staff of the courts	D
1	الْحُكَّام	alḥukām	Judges	D
1	القانونيون	Alqānūnyūn	People of law	D
1	المُدَافِعُون	almudāf'ūn	Advocates	D

1	المُضطهَدون	almuḍṭahadūn	The oppressed	D
1	المؤيدون	alumu'aydūn	Supporters	D
1	المحامون	almaḥāmūn	Lawyers	D
1	النيابة العامة	alinyāba al'āman	Public Prosecution	S
1	المشرعون	almušari'ūn	Lawmakers	D
1	وكلاء النيابة والعموم	wakalā' annayāba wal'umūm	Public Prosecutors	S

19. Source Item: Reversing

Context: nearly 30 pieces of legislation aimed at **reversing** policies

Fr	Renditions	Transliteration	Gloss	V
7	تغيير	taḡyīr	Change	S
4	مراجعة	murāja'a	Review	D
3	تعديل	ta'dīl	Amendment	S
3	عكس	'ax	Reverse	S
2	Omissions	-----	-----	D
1	إعادة صياغة	'i'ādatu ṣiyāga	Reformulate	D
1	أعادة تأهيل	'a'ādatu ta'hīl	Rehabilitation	D
1	إنقاص	'inqāḍ	Invalidation	S
1	إلغاء	'ilgā'	Cancellation	S
1	إسترجاع	'istirjā'	Recovery	D
1	سحب	saḥb	Withdrawal	S

20. Source Item: State Governments

Context: **state governments** are finally understanding what a tragic mistake they made ...

Fr	Renditions	Transliteration	Gloss	V
10	حُكومات	ḥukūmāt	Governments	D
5	حُكومات الدُول	ḥukūmāt addawal	State Governments	S
3	حُكومات الدَوْلَة	ḥukūmāt addawla	State Governments	S
2	الحُكومة	alḥukūma	Government	D
2	حُكومات الولاية	ḥukūmāt alwilāyāt	State governments	S
1	الدُول	adduwal	States	D
1	الحُكومة المَحَلِيَة	alḥukūma almaḥaliya	The local government	D
1	المُؤَسَّسات الحُكُومِيَة	almu'asasāt alḥukūmiya	Governmental institutions	D

21. Source Item: Tragic

Context: what a **tragic** mistake they made ...

Fr	Renditions	Transliteration	Gloss	V
11	فادِح	fādiḥ	Gross	S
7	مأساوي	ma'sāwī	Tragic	S
2	قاتِل	qātil	Killer	S
2	تراجيدي	tarājīdī	Tragic	S
1	فَطِيْع	faṭī'	Terrible	S
1	كَبِيْر	Kabīr	Large	D
1	Omissions	-----	-----	D

22. Source Item: Trying

Context: they began **trying** ever larger numbers of children as adults

Fr	Renditions	Transliteration	Gloss	V
10	تَعَامَلُ (مُعَامَلَةٌ)	ta'āmul (mu'āmala)	Treated (treatment)	D
8	مُحَاكِمَةٌ	muḥākama	Trial	S
2	إِرْسَالٌ	'irsāl	Sending	D
2	فَرَضَ عُقُوبَاتٍ	farḍ 'uqūbāt	Sanctions	D
1	تَهْيِئَةٌ	tahyi'a	Preparation	D
1	مُحَاوَلَةٌ	muḥāwala	Attempt	D
1	مُقَاذَاةٌ	muqāḍā	Prosecution	S

23. Source Item: Turned out

Context: But it has since **turned out** that ...

Fr	Renditions	Transliteration	Gloss	V
8	إِنصَحَ	'itaḍaḥa	It turned to be	S
7	تَبَيَّنَ	Tabayana	Became obvious	S
2	فِي الْحَقِيقَةِ	fi alḥaqīqa	Actually	D
1	إِشَارَةٌ	'išāra	Signal	D
1	تَبَيَّنَ	ṭabuta	Approved	S
1	لُوحِظَ	lūḥiḍa	Observed	D
1	ظَهَرَ	ḍahara	Appeared	S
1	تَغَيَّرَتِ الْحَقِيقَةُ	taḡayrat alḥaqīqa	The truth changed	D
1	أَصْبَحَ	'aṣbaha	Became	S
1	تَأَكَّدَ	ta'akada	Confirmed	S
1	إِنكشَفَ	'inkašafa	Exposed	S

24. Source Item: Unquestionable

Context: There is new **unquestionable** evidence that

Fr	Renditions	Transliteration	Gloss	V
6	قَاطِعٌ	qāṭa'	Conclusive	S
4	غَيْرُ قَابِلٍ لِلنِّقَاشِ (لِلجَدَلِ)	ḡayru qābilin lalnīqāš (laljadāl)	Is not debatable	S
4	Omissions	-----	-----	D
3	وَاضِحٌ	wāḍiḥ	Clear	S
3	لَا شَكَّ فِيهِ (لَا يَقْبَلُ الشَّكَّ)	lā šaka fayh (lā yaqbl šak)	No doubt (no doubt)	S
1	يُثِيرُ التَّسْأَلَاتِ	yuṭīru attasā'lāt	Raises questions	D
1	سُؤَالٌ مَطْرُوحٌ	su'āl maṭrūḥ	Posed question	D
1	حَتْمِيٌّ	ḥatmī	Inevitable	S
1	لَا يُمَكِّنُ إِنكَارَهُ	lā yumkinu 'inkāruh	Undeniable	S
1	دَامِغٌ	Dāmiḡ	Unbeatable	S

25. Source Item: Youthful Predators

Context: would protect the public from violent, **youthful predators**.

Fr	Renditions	Transliteration	Gloss	V
3	المُجْرِمِينَ الشَّبَابِ	almujrimīn aššabāb	Young	S
2	العُنفِ	al'unaf	The violent	D
2	Omissions	-----	-----	D
1	المُشَاغِبِينَ وَالْمُخَالَفِينَ الصِّغَارِ	almušāgībīn walmuḵālīfīn aššigār	Hooligans and young offenders	S
1	الجُنَّاحِ الصِّغَارِ	aljunāḥ aššigār	Young offenders	S
1	الجُنَّاحِ الْقَاصِرِينَ	aljunāḥ alqāširīn	Offensive minors	S
1	الجُنَّاةِ الْقَاصِرِينَ	aljunā alqāširīn	Criminal minors	S
1	الْمُتَطَفِّلِينَ الْيَافِعِينَ	almutaṭafilīn al'yāfi'īn	Young hackers	D
1	الْمُفْتَرِسِينَ الصِّغَارِ	Almuftarisī n aššigār	Young predators	S
1	مُعْتَصِبِي الشَّبَابِ	muḡtaṣabī aššabāb	Usurpers of youth	D
1	مُوجِهَةَ الْعُنفِ	muwājaha al'unf	The face of violence	D
1	مُنْتَهِكِي الْقَانُونِ الشَّبَابِ	munthkī alqānūn aššabāb	Young lawbreakers	S
1	الشَّبَابِ السَّيِّءِ	aššabāb assay'	Young bad	D
1	طَبِيشُ الْمُرَاهِقِينَ	ṭayšu almurāhiqīn	Teenagers Indiscretion	D
1	طَبِيشُ الشَّبَابِ	ṭayšu aššabāb	Indiscretion of youth	D
1	الشَّبَابِ الشَّرْسِينَ	aššabāb aššarisīn	Fierce Youth	S
1	صِغَارُ السِّنِّ	šigāru assin	The young	D
1	الشَّبَابِ	Aššabāb	Youth	D
1	الشَّبَابِ الْعَنِيفِينَ الْمُعْتَدِينَ	aššabāb al'anīfīn almu'tadīn	Fierce young offenders	S
1	الشَّبَابِ الْمُعْتَدِينَ	aššabāb almu'tadīn	Young offenders	S
1	الْأَعْمَالُ الْعِدَائِيَّةُ الطَّائِسَةُ الَّتِي تَصْدُرُ عَنِ الشَّبَابِ	al'a'mālu al'idā'iya aṭṭā'īša allatī tašduru 'an aššabāb	Youth reckless acts	D

B.2 Text Two

1. Source Item: Brought in

Context: A statistician has been **brought in** and is working with...

Fr.	Renditions	Transliteration	Gloss	V
7	إخضرار	'iḥḍār	Bringing	S
3	جلب	Jalb	Bringing	S
3	تعيين	ta'yīn	Recruiting	S
2	Omissions	-----	-----	D
2	عمل	'amal	Work	D
1	توظيف	tawḍīf	Employment	S
1	إستدعاء	'istid'ā'	Recall	S
1	أصدار	'iṣḍār	Issuance	D
1	إنضمام	'inḍimām	Joining	S
1	إستقطاب	'istiḡṭāb	Polarization	S
1	إستعانة	'isti'āna	Appeal for help	S
1	دعوة للإنضمام	da'watun lali'inḍimām	An invitation to join	S
1	طلب العمل	ṭalab al'amal	Apply for work	S

2. Source item: Concerns

Context: **Concerns** were also fueled by DHS own numbers that indicate...

Fr.	Renditions	Transliteration	Gloss	V
8	مخاوف	maḡāwif	Fears	S
7	قلق	qalaq	Concern	S
3	Omissions	-----	-----	D
2	إهتمام	'ihtimām	Interest	S
1	الأمر	al'amr	The matter	D
1	النار اشتعالاً	annār 'išt'ālan	Fire heats up	D
1	حدة الشك	ḥidatu aššak	Doubt severity	D
1	الطين بلة	aṭṭīn bila	Impair	D
1	مشاكل	Mašākil	Troubles	D

3. Source Item: Counties

Context: officials were unsure if cities and **counties** were required to participate, or could opt out. ...

Fr.	Renditions	Transliteration	Gloss	V
10	الدول	Adduwal	States	D
6	المقاطعات	almuqāṭa'āt	Counties	S
3	Omissions	-----	-----	D
2	القرى	Alqarā	Villages	D
2	البلدان	Albaldān	Countries	D
1	المحافظات	almaḡāfaḡāt	Provinces	S
1	الأقاليم	al'aqālīm	Regions	S

4. Source Item: Crunching

Context: Janet Napolitano, is right to seek outside help in **crunching** the numbers.

Fr.	Renditions	Transliteration	Gloss	V
5	تَقْلِيل	Taqīl	Decreasing	S
4	تَقْلِيص	taqlīṣ	Reducing	S
3	Omissions	-----	-----	D
2	تَخْفِيز	taḵfīḍ	Reduction	S
2	تَحْلِيل	taḥlīl	Analysis	D
1	سَحَق	saḥq	Crushing	S
1	الأزمة الخارجة	al'azamatu alḵārijatu	Emerging crisis	D
1	زيادة	ziyādātu	Increase	D
1	الحد من	alḥad min	Limit	S
1	قَمَع	qam'	Suppression	S
1	نَقَد	naqd	Criticism	D
1	جَمَع	jam'	Collection	D
1	تَحطيم	taḥṭīm	Smashing	S
1	عَد	'ad	Counting	S

5. Source Item: Customs

Context: Under the Immigration and **Customs** Enforcement Program ...

Fr.	Renditions	Transliteration	Gloss	V
9	الجَمَارِك	Aljamārik	Customs	S
8	Omissions	-----	-----	D
2	الجَوَازَات	Aljawāzāt	Passports	D
2	العادات	al'ādāt	Habits	D
1	الضرائب	aḍḍarā'ib	Taxes	D
1	الزبُون	Azzabūn	Customer	D
1	رعاية الأجانب	ri'āyatu al'ajānib	Care for foreigners	D
1	العملاء	al'umalā'	Customers	D

6. Source Item: Department of Homeland Security

Context: working with **Department of Homeland Security**, which investigates complaints ...

Fr	Renditions	Transliteration	Gloss	V
4	قسم الأمن الوطني	qism al'amn alwaṭani	Department of Homeland Security	S
3	وزارة الأمن الداخلي	wazārat al'amn addākīlī	Department of Homeland Security	S
2	قسم الأمن الداخلي	qismu al'amn addākīlī	Department of Homeland Security	S
2	مديرية أمن البلد	mudīrya 'amn albald	Security Directorate of the country	S
1	قسم هوم لاند للأمن	qism hawm lānd lala'amn	Transliteration	D
1	قسم الشؤون الداخلية	qism ašša'ūn addākīliya	Department of Internal Affairs	D
1	قسم أمن البلد	qism 'amn albald	Security department of the country	S
1	قسم أمن وزارة الداخلية	qism 'amn wazārat addākīliya	Department of Ministry of Interior Security	D
1	قسم الأمن	qism al'amn	Security Department	D
1	قسم أمن الدولة	qism 'amn addawla	Department of State Security	S
1	أمن الدولة	'amn addawla	State Security	D

1	قِسْمُ أَمْنِ الْوَطَنِ	qism 'amn alwaṭan	Department of Homeland Security	S
1	وَزَارَةُ الْأَمْنِ الدَّاخِلِي	wazāra al'amn addākīlī	Department of Homeland Security	S
1	وَزَارَةُ الْأَمْنِ الْوَطَنِي	wazāra al'amn alwaṭanī	Department of Homeland Security	S
1	مَكْتَبُ الْأَمْنِ	maktab al'amn	Office of Security	D
1	حَمَايَةُ الْمَنَازِلِ	ḥamāya almanāzil	Homes protection	D
1	مُدِيرِيَّةُ أَمْنِ الْبَلَدِ	mudīrya 'amn albalad	Security Directorate of the country	S
1	وَزَارَةُ الدَّاخِلِيَّةِ	wazārat addākīliya	Ministry of the Interior	S

7. Source item: Deportation

Context: federal databases for criminal convictions and **deportation** orders...

Fr.	Renditions	Transliteration	Gloss	V
14	التَّرْحِيلُ	attarḥīl	Deportation	S
5	Omissions	-----	-----	D
1	الإدانات والهجرة	al'idānāt walhijra	Convictions and immigration	D
1	الإخلاء	al'iklā'	Evacuation	S
1	الإعادة إلى البلد	al'i'āda ilā albalad	Return to the country	S
1	المغادرة	almuḡādra	Departure	D
1	التنفي	annafī	Send to exile	S
1	الإستبعاد	al'istib'ād	Exclusion	S

8. Source Item: DHS

Context: Concerns were also fueled by **DHS** own numbers...

Fr	Renditions	Transliteration	Gloss	V
12	Omissions	-----	-----	D
3	قِسْمُ الْأَمْنِ الْوَطَنِي	qism al'amn alwaṭanī	Department of Homeland Security	S
2	دي أتش اس	day 'ach as	Transliteration	D
1	مُنْتَظِمَةُ الْأَمْنِ الدَّاخِلِي	munaḡama al'amn addākīlī	Organization of Homeland Security	D
1	قِسْمُ أَمْنِ الدَّوْلَةِ	qism 'amn addawla	Department of State Security	S
1	أَعْمَاءُ أَمْنِ الدَّوْلَةِ	'a'qā' 'amn addawla	Members of the State Security	D
1	وَزَارَةُ الْأَمْنِ الدَّاخِلِي	wazāra al'amn addākīlī	Department of Homeland Security	S
1	وَزَارَةُ الْأَمْنِ الْوَطَنِي	wazāra al'amn alwaṭanī	Department of Homeland Security	S
1	مُنْتَظِمَةُ أَمْنِ الْبِلَادِ	munaḡama 'amn albilād	Organization of the country's security	D
1	دَائِرَةُ أَمْنِ الْبِلَادِ	dā'ira 'amn albilād	Office of the country's security	S
1	قِسْمُ الشُّؤُونِ الدَّاخِلِيَّةِ	qism ašša'ūn addākīliya	Department of Internal Affairs	D

9. Source Item: Enforcement

Context: Under the Immigration and Customs **Enforcement** Program ...

Fr.	Renditions	Transliteration	Gloss	V
8	Omissions	-----	-----	D
5	تَطْبِيقُ	taṭbīq	Application	S
4	إِنْفَازُ	'infāḡ	Enforcement	S
2	فَرَضُ	fard	Imposition	S
1	قِيَامُ بِ	qiyām bi	To do sth.	D
1	تَفْعِيلُ	taf'īl	Activation	D
1	تَعْزِيزُ	ta'zīz	Strengthen	D
1	رِعَايَةُ	ri'āya	Care	D
1	المَعْمُولُ بِهَا	alma'mūl bahā	Already applied	D
1	إِجْبَارُ	'ijbār	Coercion	S

10. Source Item: Fuelled

Context: Concerns were also **fuelled** by DHS own numbers that indicate ...

Fr.	Renditions	Transliteration	Gloss	V
11	زيادة	ziyāda	Increase	S
4	إثارة	'iṭāra	Stimulation	S
4	Omissions	-----	-----	D
1	إشعال	'iṣ'āl	Ignition	S
1	تعبير عن	ta'bīr 'an	Expression	D
1	مضاعفة	muḍā'afa	Multiplication	S
1	توجيه	tawjīh	Directing	D
1	فرض	fard	Imposition	D
1	تأجيج	Tājīj	Intensify	S

11. Source item: Hired

Context: An outside expert has been **hired** to review ...

Fr.	Renditions	Transliteration	Gloss	V
8	تعيين	ta'yīn	Employing	S
4	توظيف	tawḍīf	Employment	S
2	تعاقب	ta'āqud	Contract	S
2	إستذعاء	'istid'ā'	Recall	D
2	إستعانة	'isti'āna	Appeal for help	D
2	Omissions	-----	-----	D
1	إستئجار	'isti'jār	Rent	S
1	تشغيل	tašgīl	Operation	S
1	إحضار	'iḥḍār	Bringing	D
1	إستخدام	'istikdām	Use	S
1	تكليف	taklīf	Commissioning	S

12. Source Item: Is right

Context: Janet Napolitano, **is right** to seek outside help ...

Fr.	Renditions	Transliteration	Gloss	V
6	لها الحق	lahā alḥaq	Has the right	S
4	محققة	muḥiqā	Is right	S
4	على حق	'alā ḥaq	Right	S
2	Omissions	-----	-----	D
1	لديه الحق	ladayhi alḥaq	Has the right to	S
1	قالت من حقنا	qālat min ḥaqinā	She said "it is our right"	D
1	مصيبية	muṣībā	Right	S
1	محقا	muḥiqā	Right	S
1	من حق	min ḥaq	Right	S
1	من المفيد	mina almufīd	Useful	D
1	له الحق	lahu alḥaq	Has the right	S
1	ضمن الجيد	ḍimna aljayd	Within the good	D
1	كانت على حق	kānat 'alā ḥaq	She was right	S

13. Source item: memos

Context: thousands of documents, including internal agency **memos**, were made public ...

Fr.	Renditions	Transliteration	Gloss	V
19	مذكرات	muḍakirāt	Memos	S
2	وكالة	Wakāla	deputy	D
1	ذاكرة	ḍākira	Memory	D
1	بيانات	bayānāt	Data	D
1	مُنظمات	munaḍamāt	Organizations	D
1	وثائق	waṭā'iq	Documents	S

14. Source Item: criminal records

Context: immigrants deported under the program had minor or no **criminal records** ...

Fr.	Renditions	Transliteration	Gloss	V
9	سجلات إجرامية	sijallāt 'ijrāmiya	Criminal records	S
2	جُنْح	junaḥ	Misdemeanor	D
2	سجلات جنائية	sijallāt janā'iya	Criminal records	S
2	سوابق	Sawābiq	Past crimes	S
2	جرائم مسجلة	jarā'im musajala	Registered crimes	S
2	جرائم	jarā'im	Crimes	D
1	سجلات إدانة	sijillāt 'idāna	Condemnation records	S
1	قضايا جنائية	qaḍāyā jinā'iya	Criminal cases	D
1	انتهاكات	'intihākāt	Violations	D
1	تسجيلات الجرائم	tasjillāt aljarā'im	Recordings of crimes	S
1	قضايا أمنية	qaḍāyā 'amniya	Security issues	D
1	تُهَم جُرمية	tuham jurmiya	Criminal charges	D

15. Source Item: opt out

Context: officials were unsure if cities and counties were required to participate, or could **opt out**. ...

Fr.	Renditions	Transliteration	Gloss	V
7	Omissions	-----	-----	D
3	(تختار) أو لا	(taktār) 'aw lā	(Opt) or not	S
2	الانسحاب	al'insihāb	Withdrawal	S
2	إستثناء	'istṭnā	Exception	D
1	إختيار	'iḳtyār	Choice	S
1	توقف	Tawaquf	Stop	D
1	إمكانية الخروج	'imkāniya alḳurūj	The possibility of exit	S
1	إنسحاب بشكل إختياري	'insihāb bišakl 'iḳtiyārī	Optional retreat	S
1	المشاركة (أو عدمها)	almušāraka ('aw 'adamihā)	Participation (or not)	S
1	الإستغناء عن	ali'istiḡnā 'an	Dispensed	D
1	الإعتذار	ali'i'tiḍār	Apology	S
1	إقصاء	'iḳšā	Exclusion	D
1	لا تتطلب المشاركة	lā tataṭalab almušāraka	Does not require Participation	D
1	تشارك أم لا	tušārik am lā	Participate or not	S
1	الإمتناع	ali'imtinā	Abstinence	S

16. Source Item: policy evaluations

Context: ... investigates complaints and assists in **policy evaluations**. ...

Fr.	Renditions	Transliteration	Gloss	V
9	تَقْيِمَاتُ السِّيَاسَةِ	taqyīmāt assiyāsa	Policy rating	S
3	سِيَّاسَةُ التَّقْيِيمَاتِ	siyāsa attaqyīmāt	Assessments policy	D
2	تَقْيِيمُ السِّيَاسَاتِ	taqyīm assiyāsāt	Evaluation of policies	S
2	تَقْيِيمُ السِّيَاسَةِ	taqyīm assiyāsa	Policy Assessment	S
1	تَقْيِيمُ تَطْبِيقِ السِّيَاسَاتِ	taqyīm taṭbīq assiyāsāt	Evaluation of the application of policies	S
1	تَقْيِيمَاتُ الشَّرْطَةِ	taqyīmāt aššarṭa	Police evaluations	D
1	تَحْقِيقَاتُ الشَّرْطَةِ	taḥqīqāt aššarṭa	Police investigations	D
1	التَّقْيِيمُ البُولِيسِي	alatqyīm albūlisī	Police rating	D
1	تَقْيِيمُ عَمَلِ الشَّرْطَةِ	taqyīm ‘amal aššurṭa	Evaluation of the work of the police	D
1	تَقْيِيمُ	taqyīm	Evaluation	D
1	تَقْيِيمَاتُ الْقَرَارَاتِ	taqyīmāt alqarārāt	Decisions rating	S
1	التَّقْيِيمُ السِّيَاسِي	attaqyīm assiyāsī	Political evaluation	D
1	Omissions	-----	-----	D

17. Source Item: Pre-textual arrests

Context: concerns regarding racial profiling and **pre-textual arrests**.

Fr.	Renditions	Transliteration	Gloss	V
5	Omissions	-----	-----	D
3	الإِعْتِقَالَاتُ الْمُسَبِّقَةُ	al’i’tiqālāt almusabaqa	Prior arrests	S
2	تَوْقِيفٌ دُونَ سَبَبٍ	tawqīf dawna sabab	Arrest without cause	S
2	القَبْضُ عَلَى الْمُجْرِمِينَ	alqabḍ ‘alā almuǧrimīn	The arrest of criminals	D
1	إِعْتِقَالَاتٌ غَيْرُ مُبَرَّرَةٍ	’i’tiqālāt ḡayr mubarara	Unjustified arrests	S
1	إِلْقَاءُ الْقَبْضِ التَّحْزِيزِي	’ilqā’ alqabḍ attaḥayuzī	Biased arrest	S
1	الإِعْتِقَالَاتُ	al’i’tiqālāt	Arrests	D
1	الإِجْرَاءَاتُ الْأَمْنِيَّةُ	al’ijrā’āt alāmniya	Security measures	D
1	التَّوْقِيفَاتُ الْمُسَبِّقَةُ	attawqīfāt almusabaqa	Prior arrests	S
1	إِعْتِقَالَاتٌ قَبْلَ النَّظَرِ فِي الْمُسْتَنْدَاتِ	’i’tiqālāt qabl annaḍar fī almustanadāt	Arrests before considering Documents	S
1	إِلْصَاقُ التَّهْمِ	’ilṣāq attuham	Imputation	S
1	عَمَلِيَّاتُ الْقَبْضِ غَيْرُ الْمُسْتَنْدَةِ إِلَى أَدْلَةٍ	‘amaliyāt alqabḍ ḡayr almustanida alā ‘adila	Arrests not based on evidence	S
1	الذَّرَائِعُ الْوَهْمِيَّةُ	aḍḍarā’i’ alwahmiya	Groundless pretexts	S
1	إِعْتِقَالَاتٌ دُونَ سَابِقِ إِنذَارٍ	’i’tiqālāt dawna sābiq ‘indār	Arrests without warning	S
1	إِعْتِقَالَاتٌ غَيْرُ مُنَظَّمَةٍ	’i’tiqālāt ḡayr munaḍama	Disorganized arrests	D
1	الإِعْتِقَالُ قَبْلَ الْمَحَاكَمَةِ	al’i’tiqāl qabla almuḥākama	Pre-trial detention	D
1	إِعْتِقَالٌ وَإِحْتِجَازٌ عَلَى أَسَاسٍ عِرْقِي	’i’tiqāl wa’ iḥtijāz ‘alā ‘asās ‘irqī	The arrest and detention on ethnic basis	D

18. Source Item: quell

Context: It would help bring transparency and could **quell** critics...

Fr.	Renditions	Transliteration	Gloss	V
6	omissions	-----	-----	D
3	تَهْدِئَةٌ	tahdi’a	Calming	S
3	إِسْكَاتٌ	’iskāt	Silencing	S

2	تَقْلِيلُ النِّقْدِ	taqlīl annaqd	Reducing criticism	S
2	الرَّدُّ عَلَى	arrad 'alā	Replies	D
1	تَوَقَّفْ	tawaquf	Stop	S
1	سَدُّ أَفْوَاهِ	sad 'afwāh	Dam mouths, Silencing	S
1	تَغْذِيَةٌ	taḡḏiya	Feeding	D
1	قَمْعٌ	qam'	Suppression	S
1	إِنْتِقَادٌ	'intiḡād	Critique	D
1	تُسْكِينٌ وَلَجْمٌ	taskīn walajm	Soothe and restrain	S
1	إِنْهَاءٌ	'inhā'	Ending	S
1	تُسْكِينٌ	taskīn	Alleviation	S
1	تَقْلِيصٌ	taqlīṣ	Reducing	S

19. Source item Racial Profiling

Context: concerns regarding **racial profiling** and pre-textual arrests...

Fr.	Renditions	Transliteration	Gloss	V
5	مَلَفُ العُنْصُرِيَّةِ	malaf al'unṣuriya	Racism file	D
4	Omissions	-----	-----	D
2	الإِهْتِمَامَاتُ العُنْصُرِيَّةِ	al'ihimāmāt al'unṣuriya	Racist Interests	D
2	العُنْصُرِيَّةِ	al'unṣuriya	Racism	D
3	التَّمْيِيزُ العُنْصُرِي	attamyīz al'unṣurī	Racial Discrimination	S
2	عَلَى خَلْفِيَّةِ عُنْصُرِيَّةِ	'alā ḡalfiyatin 'unṣuriya	Against racial background	S
1	تَصْنِيفُ عُنْصُرِي	taṣnīf 'unṣurī	Racial classification	S
1	مَلَفَاتُ التَّفْرِقَةِ	malafāt attafriḡa	discrimination Files	D
1	شَحْنُ العُنْصُرِيَّةِ	ṣahn al'unṣuriya	Racism stimulation	D
1	العِرْقِيَّةِ	al'irḡiya	Ethnic	D
1	الخَرْقُ	alḡarḡ	Breach	D
1	التَّصْنِيفُ العِرْقِي	attaṣnīf al'irḡī	Ethnic categorization	S
1	أَسَاسُ عِرْقِي	'asās 'irḡī	Ethnic basis	S

20. Source Item: Scrutiny

Context: Secure Communities has come under **scrutiny** over the last two months, ...

Fr.	Renditions	Transliteration	Gloss	V
4	Omissions	-----	-----	D
2	الفَحْصُ (الدَّقِيقُ)	alfahṣ (addaqīḡ)	examination	S
2	المُرَاقِبَةُ	almurāḡaba	Surveillance	S
1	ثَارَتْ ثَائِرَتُهُ	ṡārat ṡā'iratahu	Became furious	D
1	ظَرْفٌ عَصِيبٌ	ḡarf 'aṣīb	Rough situation	D
1	النَّظْرُ فِي	annaḡar fī	Consider	S
1	حَيْزُ التَّنْفِيزِ	ḡayiz attanfīḡ	Into force	D
1	تَحْتَ المِجْهَرِ	taḡta almiḡhar	Under the microscope	S
1	إِسْتَفْهَلَ	'istafḡala	Exacerbate	D
1	التَّمْحِيسُ	attamḡīṣ	Scrutiny	S

1	تَحْتِ الْبَحْثِ	taḥta albaḥṭ	Under Search	S
1	حَدِيثِ الشَّارِعِ	ḥadīṭ aššārī	Street talk, public opinion	D
1	إِخْضَاعِ لِلْبُرْنَامِجِ	'iḥḍā' lalburnāmaj	Subjecting to the program	D
1	تَحْتِ الْحِمَايَةِ	taḥta alḥimāya	Under protection	D
1	تَحْتِ مَسْأَلَاتِ	taḥta musā'alāt	Under accountabilities	S
1	تَحْتِ ضَعْفِ	taḥta ḍaḡṭ	Under pressure	D
1	مُرَاجَعَةِ دَقِيقَةٍ	murāja'a daqīqa	Strict review	S
1	تَقْدُّ لَازِعِ	naqd lāḍī'	Sarcasm	D
1	التَّدْوِيرِ	attadwīr	Recycling	D
1	تَعْرَضَ لِلنَّقْدِ	ta'araḍa lalnaqd	Subjected to criticism	D

21. Source Item: Secretary

Context: and DHS **Secretary**, Janet Napolitano, is right to

Fr.	Renditions	Transliteration	Gloss	V
6	سِكْرَتِيرَة	sikritīra	Secretary	D
3	وَزِيرَة	wazīra	Minister, Secretary	S
3	سِكْرَتِير	sikritīr	Secretary	D
2	أَمِينَة	'amīna	Trusty	D
2	Omissions	-----	-----	D
1	السِّكْرَتِيرَة الْعَامَة	assikritīra al'āma	General Secretary	D
1	وَكِيل	Wakīl	Agent, deputy	D
1	أَمِينَة بِيْر	'amīna sir	Secretary	D
1	سِكْرَتَارِيَة	sikratāriya	Secretariat	D
1	رَأْسِيَّة أَمْن الدَّوْلَة	ra'īsa 'amn addawla	Head of the State Security	D
1	رَأْسِيَّة	ra'īsa	Chairperson	D
1	مَسْئُولَة	mas'ūla	Responsible	D
1	مُدِيرَة مُنْظَمَة	mudīra munaḍama	Director of Organization	D
1	الْأَمِين الْعَام	alāmīn al'ām	Secretary-General	D

22. Source item: Secure Communities

Context: An outside expert has been hired to review the **Secure Communities** Program.

Fr.	Renditions	Transliteration	Gloss	V
12	المُجْتَمَعَاتِ الْأَمْنِيَّةِ	almujtama'āt al'āmina	Secure Communities	S
6	حِمَايَةِ الْمُجْتَمَعَاتِ	ḥimāya almujtama'āt	Protection of communities	D
2	أَمْنِ الْمُجْتَمَعَاتِ	'amn almujtama'āt	Security of communities	D
1	المُجْتَمَعَاتِ الْمَحْمِيَّةِ	almujtama'āt almaḥmiya	Protected communities	S
1	أَمَانِ الْمُجْتَمَعَاتِ	'amān almaḥmiya	Safety of societies	D
1	اللَّجْنَةُ الْأَمْنِيَّةُ	allajna al'amniya	Security Committee	D
1	حِمَايَةِ الْمُسْتَهْلِكِ	ḥimāya almustahlik	Consumer protection	D
1	الْجَالِيَّاتِ وَسَلَامَتِهَا	aljāliyyāt wasalāmatuhā	Communities and safety	D

23. Source Item: Sharing

Context: [Title] Immigration: Review of Jail Fingerprint **Sharing** Program underway

Fr	Renditions	Transliteration	Gloss	V
9	Omissions	-----	-----	D
6	تَبَادُل	tabādul	Exchange	S
6	مُشَارَكَة	mušāraka	Participation	S
2	مُشْتَرَك	muštarak	Joint	D
1	تَقَاسُم	taqāsum	Sharing	S
1	مُقَارَنَة	muqāran	Comparison	D

24. Source Item: under (the immigration...)

Context: **Under** the Immigration and Customs Enforcement Program, ...

Fr.	Renditions	Transliteration	Gloss	V
7	بِمُوجِب	bimūjib	In accordance with	S
5	وَفَقَا ل...	wifqā li...	In accordance with	S
3	بِحَسَب	biḥasab	According to ...	S
2	ضِمْنَ	ḍimna	Within	S
1	تَحْتَ إِشْرَاف	taḥta 'iṣrāf	Under the supervision of	D
1	أَفَادَ	'afāda	Uttered	D
1	تَحْتَ	taḥta	Under (below: for place)	D
1	بِنَاءٍ عَلَى	binā'an 'alā	Based on the	S
1	طَبَقًا ل...	ṭibqan li...	According to ...	S
1	Omissions	-----	-----	D
1	بِمُقْتَضَى	bimuqtaḍā	Under the	S
1	تَحْتَ مِظَلَّة	taḥta miḍala	Under the umbrella	S

25. Source Item: underway

Context: [Title] Immigration: Review of Jail Fingerprint Sharing Program **underway**

Fr	Renditions	Transliteration	Gloss	V
21	Omissions	-----	-----	D
1	جَارِي الْعَمَل	jārī al'amal	Work is underway	S
1	قَيِّد الْإِنجَاز	qayd al'injāz	Underway	S
1	قَادِم	qādim	Coming	D
1	قَادِمَة	qādimā	Coming	D

Appendix C

Appendix C.1 Participant Renditions of T1

Item	Participant 1	Participant 2	Participant 3	Participant 4
1. across (the country)	omission	على امتداد الدولة	عبر البلاد	عبر البلاد
2. advocacy	مناصرة	ناشطة	omission	استشارية
3. argued	يجادل	يبرر	ادلى بجدل	جادل
4. authors	omission	الكتاب	الكتاب	المؤلفون
5. battery	omission	التعنيف	السرقه	التعدي
6. convicted	إدانة	لديه تهمة	مدانون	مقتنعين
7. custody	مصلحة الأحداث	omission	سجن خاص بالأحداث	سجن الجنح
8. ever larger	أعداد متزايدة	أعداد كبيرة	عدد اكبر	عدد كبير
9. fixing	إصلاح	تصحيح أوضاع	تقويم	تصحيح
10. funnel	ارسال	تجر	تدج	تدخل
11. harsh sentencing	عقوبات صارمة	أحكام صارمة	أحكام قاسية	أحكام قاسية
12. has since	منذ ذلك الحين	omission	من ذلك الحين	omission
13. juvenile	الأحداث	الأحداث	الأحداث	الجناة
14. legislators	القائمين على تشريع القوانين	المشرعين	تشريعات الدولة	القوانين القانونية
15. offenders	مخالفين	جُنَاح	معتدين	جانحين
16. passed	مررت	وافقت على	قامت بتمرير	مررت
17. pieces	قانون تشريعي	تشريع	تشريع	قانون
18. prosecutors	موظفو المحاكم والادعاء العام	الإدعاء	المدعون	الحكام
19. reversing	مراجعة	تعديل سياسة	تعديل سياسة	مراجعة
20. state governments	حكومات الدول	الحكومات	حكومات الدولة	الدول
21. tragic	مأساوي	فادح	فادح	قاتل
22. trying	محاكمة	محاكمة	تعامل	ارسال
23. turned out	اتضح	توضح	اتضح	اتضح
24. unquestionable	يثير التساؤلات	واضح	قاطع	لاشك فيه
25. youthful predators	المشاعبين والمخافين الصغار	الجناح القاصرين	المتطفلين اليافعين	المفترسين الصغار

Item	Participant 5	Participant 6	Participant 7	Participant 8
1. across (the country)	في الدولة	Omission	في البلاد	في كل الولايات
2. advocacy	مناصرين	شريك	ناشطة	مجموعة قانونية
3. argued	ناقش	يزعم	ناقش	قال
4. authors	الكتاب	المؤلف	الكاتب	omission
5. battery	الاهانة	تكتيف	omission	omission

6. convicted	يتهموا	يسجل عليه قضية	يقترف	يرتكب
7. custody	دار رعاية الأحداث	اصلاحيات	الاصلاح	محاكمة جنائية
8. ever larger	أعداد كبيرة	العديد	عدد كبير	omission
9. fixing	تغيير سلوك	تصحيح	معالجة	معالجة
10. funnel	تحيل	ارسال	يحولون	ارسالهم
11. harsh sentencing	أحكام مشددة	أحكام قاسية	omission	omission
12. has since	فيما بعد	Omission	منذ أن	omission
13. juvenile	الأحداث	الاصلاح	الاصلاح	جفنييل
14. legislators	الذين يسنون القوانين	التشريعات	المشروعون أو المحامون	المحكمة
15. offenders	مخالفين	Omission	omission	المشاغبين
16. passed	إصدار	سن	تحويل	مراجعة
17. pieces	مادة قانونية	تشريع	محامي	قطعة
18. prosecutors	القضاة	القانونيون	المدافعون	المضطهدون
19. reversing	تغيير سياسة	تغيير السياسات	اعادة صياغة	مراجعة
20. state governments	حكومات الدول	الحكومات	الحكومة	الحكومات المحلية
21. tragic	مأساوي	قاتل	omission	مأساوي
22. trying	محاكمة	ارسال	تعاملوا	معاملة
23. turned out	تبين	في الحقيقة	تبين	مشيرين
24. unquestionable	غير قابل للنقاش	لا يمكن الأخذ والرد فيه	غير قابل للشك	سؤال مطروح
25. youthful predators	العنف	مغتصبي (الشباب)	العنف	مواجهة العنف

Item	Participant 9	Participant 10	Participant 11	Participant 12
1. across (the country)	عبر البلاد	أنحاء الدولة	على مستوى الدولة	في البلاد
2. advocacy	Omission	داعمة	محامين	omission
3. argued	ناقش	ناقش	أشار	جادل
4. authors	الباحثون	الكتاب	المؤلفون	الكتاب
5. battery	العنف	الضرب	العنف	omission
6. convicted	تتم ادانته	يقعون في الفخ	لم يدانوا	غير متهم
7. custody	سجن الأحداث	حضانة الأحداث	قضاء الأحداث	الإصلاحية
8. ever larger	عدد أكبر	عدد كبير	أعداد لا سابق لها	omission
9. fixing	حل مشكلة	تصحيح الخطأ	تعديل	omission
10. funnel	ترسل	ينقل	تنفذ	وضع
11. harsh sentencing	العقاب القاسي	القضاء المتفاقم	احكام شاقفة	عقوبات قاسية

12. has since	منذ ذلك الوقت	منذ ذلك الحين	حينها	منذ ذلك
13. juvenile	الأحداث	الأحداث	الأحداث	الإصلاحية
14. legislators	المشرعين	القضاة	أرباب الشأن في إصدار القانون	المشرعين
15. offenders	الأحداث	المسيئين	المجرمين	omission
16. passed	أصدرت	شن حكم	أصدرت	تعاضت
17. pieces	تشريع	حكم	مشروع قانون	بند
18. prosecutors	المؤيدون	المحامون	المدعون	القضاة
19. reversing	تعديل السياسات	إعادة تأهيل	تغيير	عكس
20. state governments	حكومات الولايات	حكومات الدول	الحكومات	الحكومة
21. tragic	تراجيدي	فادح	فادح	فادح
22. trying	معاملة	تُحاكم	تعامل	فرض عقوبات
23. turned out	تبين	أثبتت الدلائل	اتضح	تبين
24. unquestionable	واضح	حتمي	واضحة	قاطع
25. youthful predators	العنف ومتهكي القانون الشباب	العُنف والشباب السيء	طيش المراهقين	المجرمين الشباب

Item	Participant 13	Participant 14	Participant 15	Participant 16
1. across (the country)	البلاد نواحي	على امتداد البلاد	البلاد أقصى	أرجاء البلاد
2. advocacy	مجموعة دفاع	omission	omission	الأتباع
3. argued	قالوا	أكدت	يدعي	ارتأى
4. authors	الباحثون	omission	مؤلف	كتاب
5. battery	الإساءة	omission	الاستغلال	العنف
6. convicted	لم يدانوا	إتهام	إتهام	يتهموا
7. custody	رعاية الأحداث	كفالة الأحداث	دور إصلاح الأحداث	سجن إصلاح القاصرين
8. ever larger	أعداد كبيرة	عدد كبير	مجموعة كبيرة	أعداد كبيرة
9. fixing	omission	إصلاح	تصويب	إصلاح
10. funnel	تزج	تحيل	تزج	أودت بإبداع
11. harsh sentencing	أحكام قاسية	أحكام قاسية	أحكام قاسية	أحكام صارمة
12. has since	omission	omission	omission	omission
13. juvenile	نظام عدالة الأحداث	محكمة الأحداث	دور رعاية الأحداث	القاصرين
14. legislators	المشرعين	التشريعات الحكومية	المشرعين	مشرعي الحكومة
15. offenders	omission	المجرمين	الأحداث	المذنبين قانونيا
16. passed	مررت	سنت	قامت بأصدار	سنت
17. pieces	مادة	تشريع	قانون	مادة خاصة بالتشريع

18. prosecutors	مدعو العموم	النيابة العامة	المشروعون	مدعو العوام
19. reversing	تغيير	تغيير	عكس	تغيير وقلب
20. state governments	حكومات الدولة	الحكومات	المؤسسات الحكومية	حكومات الولايات
21. tragic	فادح	فادح	مأساوي	مأساوي
22. trying	معاملة	حاكمت	معاملة	محاكمة
23. turned out	توضح	تبين	توضح	اتضح
24. unquestionable	دامغ	قاطع	لا يمكن إنكاره	لا مجال فيه للجدل
25. youthful predators	طيش الشباب	الشباب الشرسين	المجرمون الشباب	الجناة القاصرين

Item	Participant 17	Participant 18	Participant 19	Participant 20
1. across (the country)	مختلف الدول	عبر كل البلاد	omission	في الدولة
2. advocacy	omission	Omission	omission	omission
3. argued	جدل	يدعي	يجادل	قال
4. authors	كاتبو	الكاتب	omission	omission
5. battery	omission	التعرض	اعتداءات	omission
6. convicted	omission	Omission	حوكموا بتهم	محكومون
7. custody	نظام العدل	Omission	مراكز تأهيلية	السجون
8. ever larger	أعداد كبيرة	عدد اكبر	عدد كبير	omission
9. fixing	اصلاح	اصلاح	تغيير طريقة التعامل	تصحيح
10. funnel	تحويل	تحض	تذهب	إرسال
11. harsh sentencing	صرامة الاعتقال	Omission	أحكام قاسية	أحكام شديدة
12. has since	omission	منذ	omission	منذ ذلك الوقت
13. juvenile	omission	اجوفنيل	omission	الأحداث
14. legislators	واضعو التشريعات	القانونيين	المشرعين	المشرعين
15. offenders	المذنبين	Omission	المتهمين	المتهمين
16. passed	omission	تعدوا	أقرت	إستعادت
17. pieces	تشريع	الأحكام	تشريع	قوانين شرعية
18. prosecutors	omission	Omission	omission	omission
19. reversing	omission	إنقاض السياسة	الغاء	استرجاع
20. state governments	الحكومات	الحكومات	الحكومات	حكومات الدول
21. tragic	تراجيدي/ فادح	مأساوي	فادح	فادح
22. trying	تهينة	محاولة	عاملوا	يعاملون
23. turned out	لوحظ	Omission	ظهر	تغيرت الحقيقة
24. unquestionable	لا يقبل الشك	Omission	قاطع	omission
25. youthful predators	صغار السن	الشباب	المجرمين الشباب	omission

Item	Participant 21	Participant 22	Participant 23	Participant 24
1. across (the country)	في البلاد	omission	في الدولة	omission
2. advocacy	الدفاع والمحاماة	الحماية	تدافع عن حقوق السجناء	مجموعة للدعم
3. argued	قال	يقول	قال	يرى
4. authors	من يكتب	الكاتب	الكاتب	omission
5. battery	الضرب	الاستغلال	الضرب	الضرب
6. convicted	يواجهون تهماً	يتهمون	ادينوا	اتهموا
7. custody	سجن الأحداث أو الصغار	مركز الأحداث	المؤسسات الإصلاحية	تحت الوصاية
8. ever larger	عدد أكبر	أعداد كبيرة	أعداد هائلة وغير مسبوقة	أعداد كبيرة
9. fixing	تصويب	تصحيح	التغلب على الخطأ	تصحيح
10. funnel	ترسل	ترسل	تلقي	تحتجز
11. harsh sentencing	عقوبات صارمة	أحكام قاسية	عقوبات صارمة	أحكام قاسية
12. has since	Omission	منذ ذلك الوقت	omission	omission
13. juvenile	محكمة الأحداث	عدالة الأحداث	العدل للشباب (الأحداث)	سجن الأحداث
14. legislators.	هيئات التشريع	تشريع الدولة	المشرعين	مشرعي الحكومة
15. offenders	Omission	omission	omission	الجرمين
16. passed	أقرت	تجاوزت	إصدار	أصدرت
17. pieces	مادة تشريعية	تشريع	قرار	تشريع
18. prosecutors	وكلاء النيابة والعموم	القضاة	الإدعاء	الفضاء
19. reversing	عكس	مراجعة	تغيير	سحب
20. state governments	الحكومات	حكومات الدولة	الحكومات	حكومات الدول
21. tragic	فظيع	فادح	كبير	فادح
22. trying	يحاكمون	يحاكمون	مقاضاة	معاملة
23. turned out	تبين	أصبح	أكدت الدراسات	تم الكشف
24. unquestionable	دامغ	omission	قاطع	omission
25. youthful predators	الجناة الذين ينتهكون حرمان الغير ويتصرفون بالعنف	الشباب العنيفين المعتدين	الشباب العنيفين	الأعمال العدائية الطائشة التي تصدر من الشباب

Item	Participant 25
1. across (the country)	حول البلاد
2. advocacy	-المحاميين
3. argued	قال

4. authors	الباحثين
5. battery	Omission
6. convicted	أحكام صادرة بحقهم
7. custody	مراكز خاصة بالأحداث
8. ever larger	Omission
9. fixing	تصحيح
10. funnel	تحكم
11. harsh sentencing	أحكام قاسية
12. has since	مع مرور الوقت
13. juvenile	مراكز الأحداث
14. legislators	المشرعين
15. offenders	الأحداث
16. passed	راجعت
17. pieces	فقرة تشريعية
18. prosecutors	المدعون العامون
19. reversing	يتعلق بالسياسات
20. state governments	الحكومات
21. tragic	مأساوي
22. trying	تُعاقب
23. turned out	تبين
24. unquestionable	قاطع
25. youthful predators	Omission

Appendix C.2 Participant Renditions of T2

Item	Participant 1	Participant 2	Participant 3	Participant 4
1. brought in	توظيف	عُين	عُين	استدعاء
2. concerns	القلق	المخاوف	القلق	المخاوف
3. counties	المقاطعات	المحافظات	المقاطعات	omission
4. criminal records	سجلات إدانة	جنح	سجلات إجرامية	سجلات جنائية
5. Crunching	تخفيض	تقليل	تقليص	سحق
6. Customs	الضرائب	الجمارك	الجوازات	الزبون
7. Department of Homeland Security	قسم الأمن الوطني	الأمن الداخلي	قسم هوم لاند للأمن	وزارة الأمن الداخلي
8. deportation	الإدانات والتهجير	الترحيل	الإخلاء	الترحيل
9. DHS	omission	منظمة الأمن الداخلي	omission	دي أتش أس
10. enforcement	إنفاذ	تطبيق	قيام الدولة ب...	تفعيل
11. fuelled	أثار	أجج	زاد	زادت
12. hired	تم توظيف	عُين	عُين	استئجار
13. is right	omission	لها الحق	لها الحق	محفة
14. memos	مذكرات	مذكرات	مذكرات	وكالة
15. opt out	تختار	omission	الانسحاب	التوقف (الانسحاب)
16. policy evaluations	تقييم السياسات	تقييم تطبيق السياسات	تقييمات الشرطة	تقييمات السياسة
17. pre-textual arrest	إعتقالات غير مبررة	إلقاء القبض التحيزي	الإعتقالات	الإعتقالات المسبقة
18. quell	تهدئة	إسكات	تقليل من النقد	توقف
19. racial profiling	ملف العنصرية	التصنيف العنصري	ملف العنصرية	الملف العنصري
20. scrutiny	الفحص الدقيق	ثارت ثائرتة	omission	ظرف عصيب
21. Secretary	السكرتيرة العامة	وزيرة	سكرتيرة	وكيل
22. Secure Communities	المجتمعات المحمية	المجتمعات الأمانة	المجتمعات الأمانة	المجتمعات الأمن
23. sharing	تبادل	مشاركة	المشترك	تبادل
24. under (... the Immigration...)	وقال..	بحسب النظام	بموجب برنامج	بموجب نظام
25. underway	omission	omission	omission	omission

Item	Participant 5	Participant 6	Participant 7	Participant 8
1. brought in	يعمل	إحضار	جلب العمل	omission

2. concerns	الامر	العديد من الاهتمام	مخاوف	omission
3.counties	المقاطعات	الدول	الأقاليم	الدول
4. criminal records	سوابق	السجلات الإجرامية	الجرائم المسجلة	القضايا الجنائية
5. Crunching	تقليص	omission	عدد الأزمات خارجة	omission
6. Customs	الجمارك	العادات	رعاية الأجانب	omission
7. Department of Homeland Security	وزارة الأمن الداخلي	قسم الشؤون الداخلية	قسم أمن البلد	قسم الأمن بوزارة الداخلية
8. deportation	الترحيل	الترحيل	الإعادة الى البلد	المغادرة
9. DHS	دي أتش أس	omission	omission	omission
10. enforcement	إنفاذ	تعزيز	رعاية	المعمول بها
11. fuelled	أشعل	omission	omission	omission
12.hired	تعاقد	إستدعاء	omission	تعيين
13. is right	لها الحق	لديه الحق	كانت على حق	قالت من حقنا
14. memos	مذكرات	ذاكرة	البيانات	الوكالات
15. opt out	إمكانية الخروج	الإنسحاب بشكل اختياري	أو لا	omission
16. policy evaluations	تقييمات السياسة	سياسة التقييمات	تقييم في السياسة	omission
17. pre-textual arrest	توقيف دون سبب	omission	omission	الإجراءات الأمنية
18. quell	يسد أفواه	omission	omission	omission
19. racial profiling	الإهتومات العنصرية	omission	omission	ملف العنصرية
20. scrutiny	النظر في	omission	المراقبة	حيز التنفيذ
21. Secretary	أمينة سر	سكرتير	الأمينة	سكرتير
22. Secure Communities	أمن المجتمعات	أمان المجتمعات	اللجنة الأمنية	حماية المجتمعات
23. sharing	مشاركة	مشاركة	مشاركة	omission
24. under (... the Immigration...)	بمقتضى برنامج	تحت مظلة	ضمن برنامج	وفقا لقوانين
25. underway	Omission	omission	omission	omission

Item	Participant 9	Participant 10	Participant 11	Participant 12
1. brought in	إصدار	إنضمام	إحضار	استقطاب
2. concerns	إهتومات	النار إستعالا	القلق	حدة الشك
3.counties	المقاطعات	الدول	القرى	الدول
4. criminal records	جرائم	انتهاكات	سوابق	جرم
5. Crunching	تقليل	تقليص	تقليل العدد	زيادة العدد
6. Customs	الجمارك	العادات	الجمارك	omission
7. Department of Homeland Security	قسم الأمن	قسم أمن الدولة	امن الدولة	قسم أمن الوطن

8. deportation	الترحيل	النفي	الترحيل	الترحيل
9. DHS	Omission	قسم أمن الدولة	أعضاء أمن الدولة	دي أتش أس
10. enforcement	Omission	فرض	إنفاذ	فرض
11. fuelled	عبروا عن	زاد	زاد	زاد
12.hired	تعيين	توظيف	إستدعاء	استعانة
13. is right	مصيبة	لها الحق	محقة	محقا
14. memos	مذكرات	المذكرات	مذكرات	مذكرات
15. opt out	أو عدمها	أم لا	الاستغناء عن	أم لا
16. policy evaluations	تحقيقات الشرطة	تقييم السياسة	تقييم السياسة	سياسة التقييم
17. pre-textual arrest	التوقيفات المسبقة	إعتقالات قبل النظر في المستندات	الصاق التهم	عمليات القبض الغير مستندة الى أدلة
18. quell	تقليل	تهديئة	الرد على	الرد على
19. racial profiling	التفرقة العرقية	العنصرية	على خلفية عنصرية	مبنية على العنصرية
20. scrutiny	Omission	وضع تحت المجهر	إستفحل	تحت الفحص
21. Secretary	أمينة	سكرتارية	رئيسة أمن الدولة	omission
22. Secure Communities	حماية المجتمعات	المجتمعات الأمانة	المجتمعات الأمانة	المجتمعات الأمانة
23. sharing	مشاركة	تقاسم	تبادل	تبادل
24. under (... the Immigration...)	بموجب برنامج الهجرة	تحت إشراف	بموجب برنامج	بموجب برنامج
25. underway	Omission	omission	omission	جاري العمل

Item	Participant 13	Participant 14	Participant 15	Participant 16
1. brought in	استعين	تم جلب	تم جلب	الإستعانة ب
2. concerns	قلق	الطين بلة	قلق	مشاعر القلق
3.counties	الدول	المقاطعات	omission	القرى
4. criminal records	سجلات إجرامية	السجلات الجنائية	سجلات إجرامية	سجلات إجرامية
5. Crunching	تحليل	الحد من	تقليص	قمع
6. Customs	الجمارك	omission	الجوازات	الجمارك
7. Department of Homeland Security	وزارة الأمن الداخلي	قسم الأمن الداخلي	omission	وزارة الأمن الوطني
8. deportation	الترحيل	الترحيل	omission	الترحيل
9. DHS	وزارة الأمن الداخلي	omission	omission	وزارة الأمن الوطني
10. enforcement	إنفاذ	omission	omission	omission
11. fuelled	ضاعف	زاد	تثير	أثارت
12.hired	عين	تعيين	توظيف	تشغيل
13. is right	ومن حق	على حق	محقة	على حق

14. memos	مذكرات	مذكرات	مذكرات	مذكرات
15. opt out	الإعتذار	omission	إقصاء	استثناء
16. policy evaluations	تقييم السياسة	التقييم البوليسي	تقييم السياسة	التقييم السياسي
17. pre-textual arrest	الذرائع الوهمية	توقيف دون سبب	إعتقالات دون سابق إنذار	إعتقالات غير منظمة
18. quell	يُسكت	يُغذي	يهديء من روع	قمع
19. racial profiling	التمييز العنصري	omission	ملفات التفرقة	بشحن العنصرية
20. scrutiny	التمحيص	تحت البحث	حديث الشارع	إخضاع للبرنامج
21. Secretary	وزيرة	رئيسة	مسؤولة	وزيرة
22. Secure Communities	المجتمعات الآمنة	حماية المجتمعات	حماية المجتمعات	المجتمعات الآمنة
23. sharing	مقارنة	omission	omission	omission
24. under (the Immigration)	بموجب	وفق	طبقاً ل...	بموجب
25. underway	omission	قيد الإنجاز	omission	omission

Item	Participant 17	Participant 18	Participant 19	Participant 20
1. brought in	omission	أحضروا	إحضار	أحضر
2. concerns	omission	omission	مشاكل	القلق
3. counties	الدول	الدول	omission	الدول
4. criminal records	سجلات الإجرامية	سجلات إجرامية	جرائم في سجلاتهم	تسجيلات الجرائم
5. Crunching	نقد	omission	تقليل	جمع
6. Customs	omission	العملاء	omission	omission
7. Department of Homeland Security	مكتب الأمن	حماية المنازل	قسم الأمن الوطني	مديرية أمن البلد
8. deportation	omission	omission	omission	omission
9. DHS	omission	omission	omission	منظمة أمن البلاد
10. enforcement	omission	omission	omission	الإجبار
11. fuelled	وجه	omission	أثيرت	فرضته
12. hired	الإستعانة ب	أحضروا	إستخدام	كلف
13. is right	omission	لها الحق	من المفيد	على حق
14. memos	مذكرات	المنظمات	وثائق	مذكرات
15. opt out	omission	omission	omission	لا تتطلب المشاركة
16. policy evaluations	omission	تقييم عمل الشرطة	تقييم	سياسة التقييم
17. pre-textual arrest	omission	omission	omission	القبض على المجرمين
18. quell	تنتقد	omission	omission	omission
19. racial profiling	العرقية	إهتمامات تخص العنصرية	العنصرية	omission
20. scrutiny	omission	تحت الحماية	تحت مساءلات	تحت ضغط

21. Secretary	omission	سكرتيرة	سكرتيرة	مديرة منظمة
22. Secure Communities	حماية المجتمعات	حماية المستهلك	حماية المجتمعات	إمن المجتمعات
23. sharing	omission	omission	مشاركة	omission
24. under (... the Immigration...)	وفقا ل...	أفاد	وفق	تحت
25. underway	omission	omission	omission	قادم

Item	Participant 21	Participant 22	Participant 23	Participant 24
1. brought in	طلب العمل	تم إحضار	إحضار	دعوة للإنضمام
2. concerns	المخاوف	مخاوف	مخاوف	مخاوف
3. counties	المقاطعات	الدول	البلدان	الدول
4. criminal records	سجلات إجرامية	سجلات إجرامية	قضايا أمنية	تهم جرمية
5. Crunching	تحطيم	تخفيض	عد	تقليل
6. Customs	الجمارك	omission	الجمارك	omission
7. Department of Homeland Security	قسم امن البلد	دائرة امن البلد	دائرة امن البلد	وزارة الداخلية
8. deportation	الترحيل	الترحيل	الترحيل	الاستبعاد
9. DHS	omission	دائرة أمن البلاد	قسم الأمن الوطني	قسم الأمن الوطني
10. enforcement	تطبيق	omission	تطبيق	تطبيق
11. fuelled	زادت	زاد	زادت	زادت
12. hired	omission	التعاقد مع	تعيين	توظيف
13. is right	محقة	لها الحق	له الحق	على حق
14. memos	مذكرات	مذكرات	مذكرات	مذكرات
15. opt out	الانسحاب	إستثنائها	تشارك أم لا	الإمتناع
16. policy evaluations	تقييم السياسة	تقييم السياسة	تقييمات القرارات	تقييمات السياسات
17. pre-textual arrests	الإعتقال قبل المحاكمة	الإعتقالات المسبقة	القبض على المجرمين	الإعتقالات المسبقة
18. quell	يُسكن ويلجم	يُنهي	يُسكن	تقليص
19. racial profiling	التمييز العنصري	الملفات العنصرية	الخرق	التصنيف العرقي
20. scrutiny	تحت المراقبة	مراجعة دقيقة	نقد لاذع	التدوير
21. Secretary	الأمين العام	سكرتيرة	سكرتير	سكرتيرة
22. Secure Communities	الجاليات وسلامتها	المجتمعات الأمنة	المجتمعات الأمنة	المجتمعات الأمنة
23. sharing	omission	مشاركة	تبادل	omission
24. under (... the Immigration...)	ضمن	بحسب	omission	بناء على
25. underway	omission	قادمة	omission	omission

Item	Participant 25
1. brought in	تعيين
2. concerns	مخاوف
3. counties	البلدان
4. criminal records	جنح
5. Crunching	تحليل
6. Customs	الجمارك
7. Department of Homeland Security	قسم الأمن الوطني
8. deportation	ترحيل
9. DHS	قسم الأمن الوطني
10. enforcement	تطبيق
11. fuelled	زادت
12. hired	تعيين
13. is right	ضمن الجيد
14. memos	مذكرات
15. opt out	omission
16. policy evaluations	تقييمات السياسة
17. pre-textual arrest	إعتقالات وإحتجازات مبنية على (أساس عرقي)
18. quell	تُسكت
19. racial profiling	أساس عرقي
20. scrutiny	تعرض للإنتقادات
21. Secretary	سكرتيرة
22. Secure Communities	المجتمعات الأمنة
23. sharing	تبادل
24. under (... the Immigration...)	بحسب
25. underway	omission