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MINNA KUMPULAINEN

LEARNING TRANSLATION

An empirical study into the acquisition of interlingual text production skills

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ABSTRACT

This study looks into the acquisition of translation competence (TC) during BA-level translator training. The study focuses on skills needed to work between two languages. These skills characterize specifically translation-related linguistic competence, which does not develop in parallel to learning two languages. It is assumed that each student possesses some level of interlingual skills upon entering BA studies. By the end of BA studies, these skills are expected to have improved to the advanced level in which students can produce a norm-abiding target language text on the basis of a source text written in another language.

This study contributes to studies of TC, in which competence has traditionally been defined as consisting of various sub-competences possessed by an expert translator. In these studies, translation as a linguistic skill has been little discussed; therefore, they do not provide theoretical tools that could be operationalised for the purpose of this study. The theoretical aim of this study is to model TC from a learner's point of view so that the hierarchical roles of different subskills in translation and in the process of learning translation become more explicit. The situation-based TC model suggested in this study brings the specifically translation-related linguistic skills to the fore, regarding interlingual text production skills as the core competence in translation. Other skills and knowledge contribute to text production and are in many translation situations indispensable for the production of a functional translation, but they do not define the core of TC. Knowledge of translation, and knowledge and recognition of one's own knowledge, however, always influence the manner in which interlingual text production skills materialize in a translation situation.

The empirical data of the study consists of seven translation students' translations from English into Finnish along with screen recordings of the translation processes. The data also include translation commentaries and questionnaires about translation-related knowledge and about personal background. The data was collected at the beginning of BA studies and during the third and the final year. The data is analysed in two stages. The first data analysis yields information on what skills are actually involved in interlingual text production, thus complementing the model outlined in the theoretical section. In other words, the skill elements of interlingual text produc-

tion emerge from the data, and especially from translation solutions that are, in some way or another, inaccurate. Classification of inaccurate solutions results in a set of interlingual text production skills in three main categories: skills needed for full comprehension of the source text, for building the linguistic relation between the source and the target text, and for producing a target language text in a translation situation.

The second data analysis is a longitudinal study, looking into changes taking place in students' skills. Comparison of each student's first year and third year translation solutions and processes shows the development. The analysis of questionnaire data sheds light on changes in students' knowledge about translation. In this study, the skill to recognize one's own skills and knowledge comes down to the question of how realistically students can evaluate their own skills. An answer to this question is sought from students' translation commentaries and personal background questions in which they report on perceived difficulties in the tasks and evaluate their own skill levels. In this way, questionnaires and translation commentaries complement the textual analysis, contributing to the description of students' TC.

The results of the longitudinal study show differences in students' interlingual text production skills at the beginning of BA studies. The most notable differences can be detected in the skills to build the linguistic relation between the source and the target text without source text influence resulting in an inaccurate target language expression. By the end of BA studies, the occurrence of these differences is reduced. Although some source text influence can still be observed in most students' translations, primarily on the level of word choices, source text influence resulting in ambiguous target language expressions is non-existent. In some students' translations, the inaccurate target language expressions in the beginning cannot be explained by source text influence but rather seems to imply an insufficiency of target language text production skills in a translation situation. As far as these skills are concerned, the change between the beginning and end of BA studies is less clear. At the end, most skill insufficiencies seem to be related to language polishing and fine-tuning.

In the first year data, successful translation solutions are most often the result of strong deviation from the source text. Students do not manage to benefit from those source text features that would have resulted in a norm-abiding target text without structural changes. In the third year data, balancing between deviation and staying close to some source text features more often results in a successful translation.

Concerning knowledge of translation, students seem to consider translation mostly as a dynamic, communicative activity from early on. This understanding is strengthened towards the end of BA studies. Little change seems to have taken place in students' skills to recognize and evaluate their own skills: typically, students are unconfident and uncertain of their own skills both at the beginning and end of BA studies.

The results also point to identifiable stages in the acquisition of translation skills, such as the stage of word-for-word translation, the stage of strong deviation from the source text, the stage of excessive self-criticism, and the stage of imbalance between theoretical knowledge and practical skills. Students are at a different stage at the beginning of translator training, and possibly do not go through all stages in the path towards translation skills. For a translation teacher, recognition of the various stages is essential when giving individual feedback to the students. Students, in turn, can

process feedback in relation to the general patterns and challenges in the acquisition of translation skills. For the contents of translator training in Finland, two points can be raised on the basis of this study: the importance of contrastive, language-pair-specific training on one hand and the importance of training in Finnish, the students' mother tongue, on the other.

Keywords: translation competence, interlingual skills, core competence, skill acquisition, translator training

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Kääntämistä oppimassa – empiirinen tutkimus kieltenvälisten tekstintuottamistaitojen karttumisesta
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ABSTRAKTI

Tämä tutkimus tarkastelee kääntämistaidon karttumista alempaan korkeakoulututkintoon tähtäävissä kääntämisen opinnoissa. Tutkimus keskittyy taitoihin, joita tarvitaan, kun toimitaan kahden kielen välissä. Nämä kieltenväliset taidot ovat nimenomaan kääntämiseen liittyvää kielellistä kompetenssia, joka ei kehity automaattisesti kahden kielen oppimisen oheistuotteena. Tutkimuksen lähtökohtana on, että jokaisella kääntäjäopiskelijalla on jonkinlainen kielten välissä toimimisen taito opintojen alussa. Kääntämisen opintojen myötä taidon odotetaan kehittyvän niin, että opintojen loppuvaiheessa opiskelija osaa tuottaa kohdekielen normien mukaista tekstiä vieraskielisen lähtötekstin pohjalta.

Tutkimus linkittyy käännöskompetenssitutkimukseen, jossa kompetenssin on perinteisesti katsottu muodostuvan niistä osataidoista, joita asiantuntijakääntäjällä on työkalupakissaan. Näissä tutkimuksissa kääntäminen kielellisenä taitona on jäänyt vähälle huomiolle, eikä niitä siksi pysty operationalisoimaan tämän tutkimuksen tarkoitukseen. Tämän tutkimuksen teoreettinen tavoite onkin mallintaa kääntämiskompetenssi kääntämisen oppijan näkökulmasta niin, että eri osataitojen rooli kääntämisessä ja sen oppimisessa tulisi esiin. Tutkimuksessa hahmottelemani tilanneperusteinen kääntämiskompetenssimalli nostaa kääntämisen kielelliset taidot keskiöön: kieltenväliset tekstintuottamistaidot muodostavat kääntämiskompetenssin ytimen. Muut tiedot ja taidot palvelevat kohdekielisen tekstin tuottamista ja ovat monessa käännöstilanteessa välttämättömiä tarkoituksenmukaisen käännöksen syntymiseksi, mutta ne eivät määrittele puhdasta kääntämiskompetenssia. Kääntämistä koskeva tieto ja omien tietojen ja taitojen tunnistaminen vaikuttavat aina siihen, millaisena kieltenvälinen tekstintuottamistaito näyttäytyy käännöstilanteessa.

Tutkimuksen empiirinen aineisto koostuu seitsemän kääntäjäopiskelijan käännöksistä englannista suomeen, käännösprosessitallenteista ja käännöskommenteista sekä kääntämistietoa ja henkilökohtaisia taustatietoja kartoittavista kyselylomakkeista. Aineisto on kerätty heti opintojen alkuvaiheessa ja kolmannen opintovuoden aikana. Aineiston analyysi on kaksivaiheinen. Ensimmäinen analyysi tuottaa tietoa siitä, mitä kieltenvälinen tekstintuottamistaito käytännön tasolla tarkoittaa, ja sen tulokset täydentävät teoriaosassa hahmoteltua kompetenssimallia. Kieltenvälisen tekstintuot-

tamistaidon elementit nousevat siis aineistosta, ja erityisesti sellaisista ratkaisuista, jotka ovat jollakin tavoin puutteellisia. Epätarkkojen ratkaisujen luokittelun avulla interlingvaalinen tekstintuottamistaito näyttäytyy hienojakoisempina taitoelementteinä, jotka liittyvät lähdetekstin ymmärtämiseen, lähde- ja kohdetekstin välisen kielellisen suhteen rakentumiseen ja kohdekielisen tekstin tuottamiseen käännöstilanteessa.

Aineiston toinen analyysi on pitkittäistutkimus siitä, miten opiskelijoiden taidot kehittyvät opintojen aikana. Vertaamalla kunkin opiskelijan käännösratkaisuja ja -prosesseja ensimmäisen ja kolmannen vuoden käännöstehtävissä saadaan kuva heidän interlingvaalisesta tekstintuottamistaidostaan ja sen kehittymisestä. Kyselylomakeaineiston analyysilla kartoitetaan, missä määrin opiskelijoiden kääntämistietous muuttuu opintojen aikana ja mahdollisesti selittää käännösratkaisuja. Taito tunnistaa omia tietoja ja taitoja puolestaan tiivistyy tässä tutkimuksessa kysymykseksi siitä, kuinka realistisesti opiskelijat arvioivat omia taitojaan. Pohdin kysymystä tarkastelemalla opiskelijoiden käännöskommentteja ja taustatietoja, eli heidän omia arvioitaan tehtävässä vaikeiksi koetuista asioista, omasta suorituksestaan ja kielitaidostaan yleensä. Kyselylomakkeet ja käännöskommentit siis täydentävät tekstuaalista analyysia ja kuvaa opiskelijan kääntämiskompetenssista.

Pitkittäistutkimuksen tulokset viittaavat siihen, että opiskelijoiden kieltenvälisissä tekstintuottamistaidoissa on selviä eroja opintojen alussa. Eniten eroja on taidoissa rakentaa lähde- ja kohdetekstin välinen suhde niin, ettei lähdetekstin vaikutus johda epätarkkaan suomenkieliseen ilmaisuun. Opintojen loppuvaiheessa erot ovat tasoittuneet. Lähes kaikkien tuotoksissa lähdetekstin vaikutus näkyy kuitenkin vielä jonkin verran lähinnä sananvalintojen tasolla, mutta esimerkiksi merkityksen hämärtymiseen johtavaa lähdetekstin vaikutusta ei loppuvaiheessa enää ole. Osalla kohdetekstin epätarkkuudet alkuvaiheessa eivät selity lähdetekstin piirteillä vaan liittyvät useimmiten kohdekielisen tekstin tuottamistaitoihin käännöstilanteessa. Näiden taitojen kohdalla muutos alku- ja loppuvaiheen välillä ei ole yhtä selvä. Loppuvaiheessa sekä lähdetekstin vaikutuksesta johtuvat että muut kielelliset epätarkkuudet tuntuvat liittyvän enimmäkseen kieliasun hiomiseen ja hienosäätöön.

Ensimmäisen vuoden aineistossa onnistuneet käännösratkaisut ovat useimmiten sellaisia, joissa irtaudutaan selvästi lähdetekstin muotista. Alussa opiskelijat eivät juurikaan hyödynnä sellaisia lähdetekstin piirteitä, joiden kääntäminen suomeksi onnistuisi myös ilman (huomattavia) rakenteellisia muutoksia. Loppuvaiheessa tasapainoilu lähdetekstistä irtautuvan ja lähdetekstin rakennetta seurailevan kääntämisen välillä tuottaa useammin onnistuneen ratkaisun.

Opiskelijat vaikuttavat mieltävän kääntämisen enimmäkseen dynaamiseksi, kommunikatiiviseksi toiminnaksi alusta alkaen. Tämä käsitys selkeytyy opintojen loppuvaiheeseen mennessä. Omien taitojen tunnistamisessa ei näytä tapahtuvan suurta muutosta: opiskelijat ovat tyypillisesti epävarmoja omista taidoistaan niin alku- kuin loppuvaiheessakin.

Tulosten perusteella kääntämisen oppimisessa on tunnistettavissa erilaisia vaiheita, esimerkiksi sanasanaisen kääntämisen vaihe, vahvan irtautumisen vaihe, ylikriittisyyden vaihe ja kääntämistietouden ja käytännön taitojen epäsuhdan vaihe. Kaikki opiskelijat eivät ole samassa vaiheessa opintojensa alussa, eivätkä kaikki käy välttämättä kaikkia vaiheita läpi samassa järjestyksessä. Vaiheiden tiedostaminen on

opettajalle tärkeää henkilökohtaisen palautteen annossa. Opiskelijaa se taas voi auttaa suhteuttamaan palautetta kääntämisen oppimisen yleisiin haasteisiin. Suomalaisen kääntämiskoulutuksen sisällön näkökulmasta tutkimuksesta nousee esiin kaksi asiaa: kontrastiivisen, kieliparikohtaisen opetuksen merkitys sekä suomen kielen opetuksen merkitys osana koulutusta.

Avainsanat: kääntämiskompetenssi, kieltenväliset taidot, ydinkompetenssi, taitojen karttuminen, kääntäjänkoulutus

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This dissertation proves the wisdom of the proverb never say never. I never intended to become a teacher; yet I have been teaching in a university for thirteen years. I never intended to embark upon such a large-scale project as a PhD thesis; I never believed I would have the patience and perseverance for it. Yet I did, and here we are.

I would not have survived this project alone. Numerous people were involved in it, giving advice, support, encouragement, and strength in various ways. I would like to express my sincerest gratitude to all who have made this happen. Thank you, my two supervisors – and also my long-time colleagues – professor Riitta Jääskeläinen and university lecturer Eppu Penttilä, for your time, dedication, guidance, and constructive feedback. I am also grateful to the two pre-examiners, professor emerita Juliane House and professor Hanna Risku, for providing valuable insights and ideas to improve and complement this thesis. Their vast knowledge in translation studies was a great benefit to my work, also giving me ideas for further research. I'd also like to thank professor Kaisa Koskinen for providing an extra pair of eyes to read through the manuscript, and helping me to organize my argumentation in a more understandable manner.

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his ever-lasting support and down-to-earth attitude to life. And last but certainly not the least, I want to thank you, Pekka, as a colleague for your invaluable advice and comforting words during this project, but first and foremost, as my life partner and soulmate for never doubting me and always being there for me. You are far, yet always so close.

I dedicate this work to my mum, who always encouraged me to study, since she herself never had the opportunity to do so. I wish you were here.

Joensuu, 18th October 2016

Minna Kumpulainen

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ABBREVIATIONS AND SYMBOLS

SL	source language
TL	target language
ST	source text
TT	target text
TC	translation competence
ATC	acquisition of translation competence
TPR	translation process research
TAP	think-aloud protocol
SLA	second language acquisition

1 Introduction

This study deals with the skills needed to produce a target text (TT) on the basis of a source text (ST) written in another language. The set of these skills is considered to define translation competence (TC). The focus in this study is on the translation-specific linguistic skills, which differ from bilingual competence as follows:

> …bilingual competence is the ability to mediate linguistically *in* two cultures, while translation competence is the ability to mediate linguistically **between** two cultures. (Chesterman 1998: 39)

When translating, one does not work with one language at a time, but with two languages at the same time, operating **between** them. As far as linguistic skills are concerned, learning to operate between the languages marks the shift from a bilingual language-user to a (professional) translator. It is also one of the major learning aims for students entering translator training. The early training focuses on enhancing these skills, the basic assumption being that the stronger they are, the more solid the base on which to build other elements of TC.

This study sets out to specify some basic linguistic skills involved in translation and to describe the acquisition of these skills during BA studies in translation. The study initiated from my personal desire as a translator trainer to comprehend the students' learning needs upon entering BA studies and the acquisition of skills during them. After a few years' teaching experience I was painfully aware of differences in students' translation-related linguistic skills and knowledge at the beginning: the starting points seemed to show great variety, some students having trouble in the translation of simple texts, while others seemed to produce linguistically acceptable translations from early on. Obviously, then, even a text without major cultural clashes, specialised terminology or poetic or otherwise abstract content can pose a challenge for translation. I wanted to find out on one hand, which aspects in the interlingual operation are generally challenging, and on the other hand, where the individual differences lie. To do that, a new approach to the modelling of TC was needed, since existing models pay little attention to the linguistic aspects of TC.

To specify basic linguistic skills involved in translation and to look into the acquisition of the skills, product and process data from a group of seven BA students was gathered at the beginning and end of their BA studies. The data was analysed as a mirror of interlingual text production skills, and the analysis focuses on ST chunks involving an obligatory shift in translation due to differences between the two working languages. Auxiliary data – translation commentaries and questionnaires about translation – was also collected at both ends of BA studies to shed more light on students' TC levels. The students participating in the study were majoring in English language and translation at the University of Eastern Finland, and the language pair involved in the study is English-Finnish.

1.1 PLACEMENT WITHIN TRANSLATION STUDIES

This study contributes to the field of translation process research (TPR), a sub-field of translation studies that takes the mental processes in translation as the object of study, concentrating on the skills, knowledge and strategies needed to carry out this process, or alternatively, focusing on the processes in which these skills, knowledge and strategies are acquired (Beeby et al. 2000: ix). One of the main goals in process studies is to yield information that can, in some way or another, be applied to translator training (Jääskeläinen 2011: 123). Pym (2009: 136) divides process studies striving for such a goal into two main categories; namely 1) comparisons between professional and novice translators that characterize features of expertise and thus, point to learning objectives, and 2) studies into the development of TC. This study belongs to the latter category.

To date, empirical studies into the acquisition of translation competence (ATC) are few in number, and to my knowledge, none so far has focused on the development of the linguistic aspects of TC in particular. The lack of research can be explained by the fact that longitudinal studies focusing on the acquisition of TC of the same individuals over a period of time are labour-intensive and time-consuming (Göpferich 2009: 11–12). The few research groups that have nevertheless taken the challenge are PACTE[1] at the Universitat Autònoma de Barcelona (e.g. 2000, 2009) and the TransComp project at the University of Graz (e.g. Göpferich 2009, 2010, 2011). Both projects focus on the development of what they consider to be the specifically translation-specific subcompetences in their overall TC models (see Göpferich e.g. 2011, PACTE 2000, 2014). These models, discussed in more detail in Section 2.3, have been compiled by the research groups themselves specifically to be used as the theoretical framework for studying ATC. The models, however, are not applicable in the present study since they do not provide tools to approach the specifically translation-related linguistic skills.

In this study, TC is modelled 'bottom-up' rather than 'top-down'. In other words, the study does not specify the TC of an expert (or professional) translator but allows the concept of TC to be linked with all kinds of translation, from the most rudimentary type of mediation between languages to the professional translation practice. In the model, translator's linguistic skills play a key role. Hence, this study contributes to the earlier studies into ATC, providing a new framework for the studies focusing on translator's linguistic skills in particular. Moreover, the study yields information on both the general interlingual challenges as well as the individual differences between students, opening a window on the specific learning needs both on the group as well as on the individual level.

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[1] PACTE is an acronym for Procés d'Adquició de la Competència Traductora i Avaluaci ó. The current members of the group are Amparo Hurtado Albir, Allison Beeby, Olivia Fox, Anabel Galán, Gabriele Grauwinkel, Anna Kuznik, Gisela Massana-Roselló, Wilhelm Neunzig, Christian Olalla-Soler, Patricia Rodríguez-Inés, Lupe Romero, and Stefanie Wimmer. (http://grupsderecerca.uab.cat/pacte/en)

1.2 THEORETICAL UNDERPINNINGS

While the existing TC models emphasize that translation is more than a linguistic procedure, listing various subcompetences needed for translation and considering language skills as one element among others, the model designed for the purpose of the present study regards translators' linguistic skills as the basis of TC. Translation, then, is, considered to be a specific type of linguistic activity **in essence.** This view is in line with House (2013: 47) who suggests that

> Translation is above all an activity involving language and its cognitive basis. A preoccupation with external social, cultural, personal, historical etc. factors impinging on translation 'from the outside' (cf. Tymoczko 2007) seems therefore to miss the point about the **essence of translation**.

The new modelling of TC is a synthesis of theoretical approaches to TC emerging in Translation Studies since the late 1970s. Placing linguistic skills at the core of TC could be claimed to be moving backwards: the very first approaches to TC defined it as comprising SL (receptive) competence, TL (productive) competence and a transfer competence (e.g. Wilss 1976: 120). After all, it has been emphasized in Translation Studies for ages that translation is much more than a language-related matter; the multicomponent models of TC such as those of Göpferich and PACTE make this explicit. My intention is not to claim to the contrary. However, it is hard to deny that translation is a text production activity and as such **always** requires linguistic skills. The challenges involved in translation may stem from cultural differences, ignorance of the subject field, inability to search for information, different expectations of the target group or the like, but the end result is always a text (written or spoken) in a different language than the ST. The more complex and specialized a text, the more extra-linguistic knowledge is required from a translator to produce a text, but what is needed with the simplest of texts is the ability to produce a text that is based on a text in another language; a set of a specific type of linguistic skills. In this sense, the linguistic approach to TC is still valid.

In the new model, bilingual skills as such are considered more as a self-evident precondition rather than a subcompetence in translation. The model builds on the notions of **transfer skills** and **transfer competence** (e.g. Neubert 1994: 412, Pym 2013: 490, Malmkjaer 2009: 132), **interlingual competence** (Toury 1984: 189) and **interlingual proficiency potential** (Malmkjaer 2008: 303), all of which refer to the specifically translation-related linguistic skills that are needed to work between the languages. Hence, the model is built around specifically translational linguistic skills and as such can be regarded as an attempt to respond to Pym's call to "define a concept that might define translating and nothing but translating" (Pym 2003: 490). In this study, these skills are referred to as **interlingual text production skills**. Naturally, a translator needs various types of extra-linguistic skills and knowledge as well, as is emphasized in multicomponent models, but in the present approach, all these other skills and knowledge **serve the purpose of interlingual text production**. The need for these skills is situation-bound, whereas some degree of interlingual text production skills is needed in all translation.

The degree of interlingual text production skills and the amount of extra-linguistic knowledge and skills needed to serve text production **vary from one translation situation to another**. In the bottom-up approach, then, TC is not a given but is defined according to the demands set by the translation situation. Such a view has been discussed earlier, for example, by Neubert and Shreve (1992: 5) and Shreve (1997). The idea that a translator may have a specific level of competence, for example a lay competence, has also been brought up e.g. by Risku (1998), Toury (2012: 288) and Cnyrim et al. (2013). These views approach TC from the acquisition point of view, making the levelled nature of TC explicit and implying that the acquisition of TC is not really about learning to translate but rather, learning to handle an ever widening scope of translation situations. The definition of TC in this study comes down to the following: **TC is the ability to produce a TT on the basis of text in a different language so that the produced TT meets the demands of the situation.** In the simplest situations little else than the most rudimentary interlingual text production skills are expected in order for the communicative purpose to be filled; in this sense, all bilinguals can translate, as Brian Harris (1977) suggest in his discussion of **natural translation**. At the other end of the continuum, that of professional translation, there are considerably more criteria for success. With regard to interlingual text production skills, the advanced level is typically expected in most scenarios. This means that a TT is expected to be a norm-abiding TL text, devoid of interference.

With regard to the cognitive nature of knowledge underlying TC and its acquisition, this study considers all channels of knowledge enhancement as equally essential. In other words, knowledge arising from experience and that gained from books and lectures during training and self-studies are regarded as equally essential. Therefore, Bereiter's (2002) knowledge typology is adopted as the cognitive knowledge base in the model designed for the study. Bereiter's typology defines six types of knowledge, emphasizing that competence arises from the interplay of all six types. The typology acknowledges the role of tacit knowledge[2] in the making of competence. Bereiter's typology is strongly rooted in the constructivist idea of learning, which views learning as the result of mental construction; it takes place when "new information is built into and added onto individual's current structure of knowledge, understanding and skills" (Pritchard 2013: 18). Constructivism emphasizes individual ways of constructing knowledge, hence offering an explanation as to **why** student translation performance seems so different at the beginning of training and develops individually: each student possesses a unique set of knowledge at different points of training since their experiences of the world and language are unique.

[2] The concept of tacit knowledge stems from Polanyi (1966: 4) who argued that "we know more than we can tell" and that this knowledge underlies a wide range of skills from tool use to application of the scientific method.

1.3 TC IN BA-LEVEL TRANSLATOR TRAINING

The present study is conducted within the BA-level translator training at the University of Eastern Finland. Students participating in the study major in English language and translation, which contains 1) monolingual courses both in English (on culture, linguistics) and 2) Finnish (descriptive grammar, modern Finnish usage, writing), 3) basics of translation theory as well as 4) practical translation courses from English into Finnish and vice versa. Moreover, 5) residence in an Anglophone country is compulsory within BA studies. As a general language-related goal of BA studies[3], a student is to "know the structures of English (…) and be able to use this knowledge to produce texts. In addition, s/he knows the main features of the Finnish language." Quite surprisingly, the ability to work between languages is not explicitly stated as a learning goal. It can be detected between the lines, though, in learning goals such as "a student is to be able to plan and produce texts that conform to the translation brief and linguistic conventions both in Finnish and in English". In addition, the learning aims defined for the basic studies of Finnish language and translation – a compulsory part of BA translator training for all Finnish native speakers – make a more explicit reference to the interlingual text production skills as a learning goal: "A student can analyse the structure of Finnish and compare it to that of foreign languages". A student can also "observe different nuances" and "explore texts from the language correctness point of view". Hence, linguistic aspects of TC are foregrounded at the beginning of translator training at the UEF. This is not to say that BA-level translator training is all about dealing with purely interlingual problems and differences; it is emphasized from the start that translation is much more than a linguistic activity. Rather, this is to emphasize the specific nature of translation as an **interlingual** activity: one of the central goals of the early translator training is to make students realise that being able to translate is different from being good at English and speaking Finnish as a mother tongue.

Pym (2009) notes with regard to translator training that "we train people not just to translate, **which they can already do**, but to translate *well*, perhaps for a specific purpose, market or technological environment." This is the approach taken in this study, too. Students who enter a translator training programme can already deal with many translation situations. They all certainly have the competence to deal with the simplest everyday translation situations, and some students may show relatively advanced skills at the initial stage of their training. This is not only my personal observation; the starting points of the students are reported to have shown great variety, some having trouble in translation of simple texts while others seeming to possess features of experts (Tirkkonen-Condit 2005, Hansen 2002, Göpferich 2010: 30). The goal of training, then, is to expand the spectrum of situations in which students can produce translations that meet the communicative needs of a situation. During BA studies students are exposed to a wide variety of translation situations entailing **in-**

[3] According to the curriculum for Foreign Languages and Translation Studies 2011–2014 as well as 2014–2017 at the University of Eastern Finland.

terlingual challenges in particular, since this is expected to develop their interlingual text production skills to the advanced level; at the end of BA studies students can produce translations that are accurate both with regard to content and to TL norms. Gradually, students are also exposed to translation situations in which more and more extra-linguistic, task-specific knowledge is needed. BA studies do include some introductory courses on special field translation, too, thus going beyond interlingual issues. However, BA studies do not prepare a student to fully deal with complex extra-linguistic translation challenges; that is the goal of MA studies. For this reason, this study focuses on the development of interlingual aspects only.

1.4 METHODS

This study is longitudinal by nature: a group of seven students is observed from the beginning of their BA studies towards the end of them. As the focus is on the acquisition of interlingual text production skills, students translate a text that contains mainly interlingual challenges at both ends of their BA studies. Translation processes are recorded using a screen recording software. An advanced level of interlingual text production skills is expected for both translation tasks, i.e. the produced TT is to be a norm-abiding TL text and accurate in content in order to meet the expectations required by the situation. The final product data is delimited to the ST chunks that call for an **obligatory shift** in translation, i.e. ST chunks that cannot be transferred into Finnish by literal translation because of the structural differences between the two languages. Translation of these ST chunks is assumed to reveal more about students' interlingual text production skills than translation of ST chunks that can be translated literally. Obligatory shifts are typical translation challenges in a situation in which the TT is expected to be a norm-abiding TL text and devoid of interference.

The analysis has two stages with two different goals. **The first analysis specifies the interlingual skills needed in this specific translation situation,** hence complementing the TC model outlined in the theoretical section. In the first analysis, the final product data (introduced in section 5.4) as well as process data are approached as a mirror of skills; it is assumed that the way students handle interlingual differences in translation can point to different types of interlingual text production skills. A qualitative analysis of the product data yields categories of (in) accuracy, each of which points to a specific type of skill(s) needed in interlingual text production. It was assumed that in the first year data in particular, inaccuracies in translations would point to the absence of various types of skills, thus bringing forth those skill elements that are relevant from the training point of view. The process data, that is, interim solutions leading to the final TT chunks is analysed for the **level of ST motivation**, since the level of ST motivation in TT production sheds light on the way students seem to place themselves between the two languages they are working with. Different patterns emerging from this analysis are then discussed in terms of skills they seem to point to. The skill elements arising from the first analysis provide the point of interest for the second analysis, which focuses on ATC on an **individual** level.

In **the second-stage of data analysis, each student's individual performance both at the beginning and end of BA studies is analysed for the specified skill elements**. In the second-stage, too, both product and process data are looked at. The change taking place between the 1st and the 3rd year performance points to the development of specific skills. The second analysis, then, forms the longitudinal part of the study. It puts the new model with the skill specification to its first test. On one hand, the model is expected to bring out differences in students' interlingual text production skills, and on the other hand, it is assumed to indicate the elements that are generally challenging. The second analysis also involves the analysis of the questionnaire data in order to catch a glimpse of students' knowledge of translation and regulative knowledge, both of which influence performance and may explain some tendencies in interlingual text production.

1.5 STRUCTURE OF THE REPORT

The second chapter of this report introduces TPR as a field of translation studies (2.1). The chapter summarizes the main findings of studies into translation expertise (2.2), which in turn lay the foundation for the TC models that have been used as the framework to study ATC. Empirical studies into ATC and the TC models designed within these projects will be discussed against the goals and aims of the present study in sections 2.3 and 2.4.

Chapter 3, in turn, lays the theoretical foundation for the new TC model that is designed for the purpose of studying the acquisition of interlingual skills in translation. This foundation is composed of several scholars' approaches to translation, to (A)TC, and to the acquisition of knowledge in general. The approaches presented in Chapter 3 complement each other, hence forming a solid foundation for the new model which is introduced in detail in Chapter 4. Subsection 4.2 discusses the way the new model suits the training context, whereas Subsection 4.3 illustrates the way the model can be operationalized for research purposes, introducing the indicators of TC in the translation situation of the present study. Since the analysis of TC in this specific situation focuses on the ST chunks involving an obligatory shift in translation, the concept of an obligatory shift is also discussed and defined in this subsection.

Chapter 5 introduces the empirical study design, introducing the participants, stages of data elicitation and the complete set of data. It also gives a full account of the principles according to which the product data from the beginning and the end of BA studies was delimited. The final product data is given in full in subsections 5.4.1 and 5.4.2. The rest of Chapter 5 is devoted to the method of analysis: first, to the analysis of the final product and process data as a mirror of skills involved in interlingual text production, and second, to the individual analyses depicting each student's skills.

Chapter 6 summarises the findings of the first analysis. It introduces the categories of (in)accuracy arising from the data and discusses each category as a mirror of a specific interlingual text production skill. These skills complement the situation-based TC model by specifying (some of the) skills needed for advanced-level interlingual text production. Chapter 7, then, presents the findings of the longitudinal study in

which each student's performance was analysed individually for the specified skills, at both ends of BA studies. This analysis brings both the differences as well as the shared features in the development of skills to the fore. In the concluding Chapter 8 the findings of the study are revisited from the pedagogical perspective. Hypotheses arising from the findings for further studies are pointed out and their pedagogical implications are discussed. Factors potentially influencing the findings are also brought up in critical reflection, and suggestions are made for further studies.

2 *Process studies into translation competence acquisition*

Translation competence is a central concept in translator training. Its definition and components have been discussed in translation studies for decades. Empirical studies to define TC have been carried out in the field of translation process research in particular. This subsection focuses closely on those studies. I will first provide a brief introduction to TPR in general, and then move on to studies into TC. These studies can be split into roughly two types: those shedding light on differences between novice and expert translators and those focusing on modelling TC and its acquisition process. The first will be discussed only briefly since the processing differences between expert and novice translators as such are not the focal point of this study. Nevertheless, these studies are relevant in the sense that their results have been utilized in the design of TC models which, in turn, have been used as theoretical frameworks in studies into ATC.

Empirical studies into TC and its acquisition are introduced in more detail, since they form the branch of TPR that the present study contributes to. The theoretical frameworks used to define TC are presented and findings relating to the acquisition of TC will be discussed. The discussion here pinpoints the differences between earlier studies into the ATC and the present one, hence explaining how the latter contributes to this line of studies.

2.1 INTRODUCTION TO TRANSLATION PROCESS RESEARCH

Systematic empirical research into translation process emerged in the mid-1980s, growing out of the need to understand the nature of the cognitive processes involved in translating, i.e. what goes on in the translator's mind during the translation process (Englund-Dimitrova 2010: 406-407). Such an understanding was considered crucial to understanding of translation as a whole, since the final product, the translated text, gives only partial and possibly misleading information about the translation process, hiding both successful strategies and problems (Bernardini 2001: 241). According to Jääskeläinen (2010: 213), the first studies described the processes of language students who were not studying translation (Gerloff 1986, Krings 1986, Lörscher 1991a); then the focus shifted to the processes of translation students (Tirkkonen-Condit 1989; Jääskeläinen 1987) and finally to those of professional translators (Gerloff 1988, Krings 1988, Séguinot 1989; Jääskeläinen 1990). As Jääskeläinen (2011: 123) states, studying the process contributes to building better theories and models of translation as well as to developing translator training. Another goal has emerged along with the adoption of

eye tracking method into TPR; that of contributing to the development of translation technological tools to be used by practising translators (e.g. Göpferich 2008: 3).

The challenge of TPR lies in the fact that none of the cognitive processes in translation are directly observable. Neither external observation of translators nor analysis of translation products or processes can answer the question of what really goes on in the translator's mind while working; we do not have a direct access to the human mind (Alvstad et al. 2011: 1, Hansen 2013: 92–93). The aim of process researchers is to depict translators' behaviour during translation as thoroughly as possible in order to be able to form hypotheses and arguments about cognitive processes taking place in translators' minds: the more detailed the description of translator behaviour, the more solid assumptions can be made about the translator's cognition. To this end, various data elicitation methods have been applied to shed light on different aspects of the process. Some of these methods have been imported from other disciplines (Alvstad et. al 2011: 1; Hansen 2013: 89–92.)[4]

The methods of **thinking-aloud** (used e.g. by Jääskeläinen 1999) and (verbal or written) **retrospection** (e.g. Alvstad. et al. 2011: 2, Gile 2004) yield information on translator's problem recognition, solving, and decision making – provided that a translator indeed puts these processes into words. Thinking-aloud is arguably the only method allowing a direct – albeit limited – access to what goes on in the translator's mind. Thinking-aloud data can, for example, be helpful in distinguishing comprehension-related translation problems from transfer-related and production-oriented translation problems since the translator's articulation can reveal the nature of the problem s/he is experiencing (Angelone 2010: 23). Keyboard logging, e.g. TransLog (Jakobsen and Schou 1999), and screen recording, in turn, shed light on translation as a text production process, showing how target text (TT) comes about with all revisions and pauses occurring in the process. Screen recording also captures all on-line information search activities carried out by the translator. Eye-tracking captures the process by following the translator's gaze throughout the translation, with the help of which the researcher can see, for example, how translator's attention is distributed between reading and writing in the process (e.g. Dragsted 2010). García (2016) introduces a neuroscientific toolkit for translation studies; positron emission tomography (PET), functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI) and electromagnetic techniques can potentially provide information about the neural systems in which translation and interpreting processes are embedded. In TPR, different methods are used in a variety of combinations and triangulation (Hansen 2013: 89) to gain a more profound understanding of what happens in the process.

The act of translation is a complex cognitive process, involving not only the comprehension of the ST and the production of the TT in another language but also transfer, or shift, between those two languages (Englund Dimitrova 2010: 406–407). Due to this complexity, TPR also relies on various theoretical approaches, e.g. linguistics, research on bilingualism and second language acquisition, and cognitive psychology, especially theories on expert knowledge and expertise (Englund- Dimitrova 2010: 406–407).

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[4] On data elicitation methods see also Krings (2005)

In Figure 1, the field of TPR is depicted in terms of topics and interests covered in studies. The division into the areas of interest purports to mirror the wide scope of process studies today; individual studies may cover more than one area of interest[5]. The wide area of research interests also mirrors the different levels of the concept 'translation process': as pointed out by Muñoz Martin (2010), 'translation process' may pertain, first, to the mental states and operations at play during the act of translating; second, to the subtasks that are executed during the mental act of translating (such as reading, typing); or third, to translation as a situated activity, a socio-cognitive process including everything and every agent involved in the process from the moment the commissioner and the translator are first in contact to the moment the addressee receives the final translation product (e.g. Risku 2014).

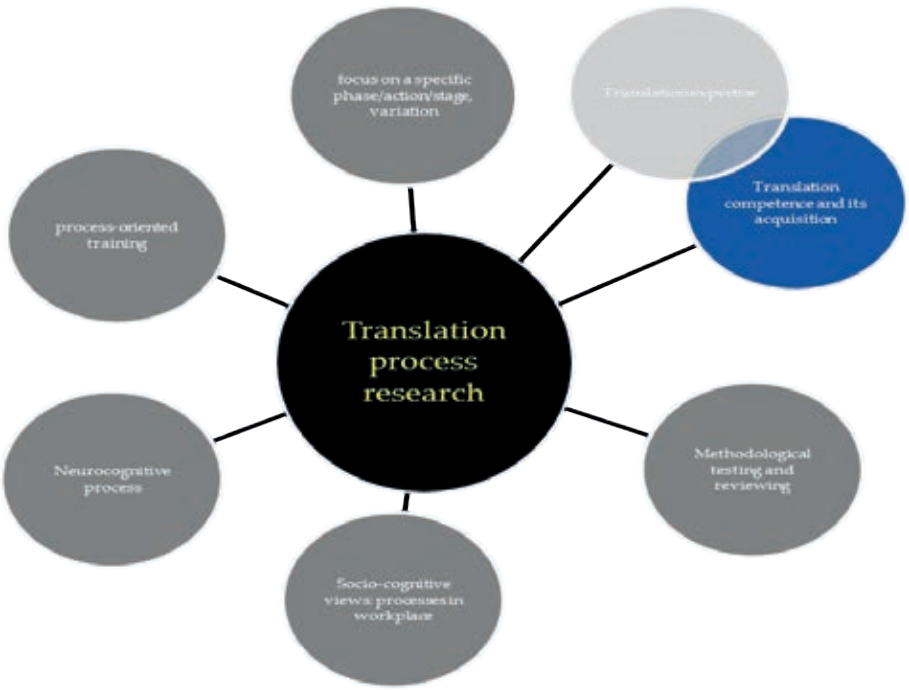

Figure 1. Topics and interests in the field of translation process research.

In TPR, the process can be approached in terms of phases: initial orientation phase, drafting phase and revision phase (Krings 1986, Jääskeläinen 1999, Jakobsen 2003); in terms of observable actions (such as reading, writing, revising, searching for information) or in terms of unobservable cognitive stages: comprehension, transfer of meaning from ST to TT and TT formulation. It can also be approached as an essentially

[5] A thorough summary of books and journals containing translation process publications between 2006–2013 is given by Muñoz Martin (2014: 52–53). A recent overview of process studies, its current state and its methods is provided, for example, by Göpferich (2008), Jääskeläinen (2011a), Hansen (2013) Saldanha and O'Brien (2013: 109–149) and Jakobsen (2014: 65–88).

problem-solving and/or decision-making process, split into assumedly unproblematic, fluent processing and more effortful, challenging sequences (e.g. Livberg and Mees 2002, Angelone 2010).

Some process studies focus on establishing the **characteristics of one specific phase**, stage, or action in the translation process (e.g. Jakobsen 2002 on drafting, Alves and Vale 2011 drafting and revision, Shih 2003, 2006; Künzli 2007; Malkiel 2009; Massey at al. 2013 on revision, Massey and Ehrensberger-Dow 2011a: 193–211 on information search). Others aim to find out **how different circumstances or variables affect the process** or some specific parts of it (e.g. on the influence of translation memory tools on translation process Alves and Liparini Campos 2009, O'Brien 2006, 2008; Mellinger and Shreve 2015). For the goal of establishing how professionals' process differs from the novices', one variable in these studies has been the amount of experience of study participants; these will be discussed in more detail further below. In recent years, some process researchers have focused on methodological issues, reviewing, testing and aiming to validate the methods used in TPR and the common problem indicators adopted into process analyses, such as pauses (e.g. Bernardini 2001, Jakobsen 2003, Sun 2011, Jääskeläinen 2000, 2011, Englund-Dimitrova and Tiselius 2009, 2014, Ehrensberger-Dow and Künzli 2010, O'Brien 2009, Hvelplund 2014, Alves, Pagano and DaSilva 2009; Timarova, Dragsted and Hansen 2011, Kumpulainen 2015).

A new area of process research is to look at **translator working environments and conditions** in their workplaces and to study the influence of these elements on translator cognitive processing (Ehrensberger-Dow & Hunziker Heeb 2015). More and more studies within TPR are actually carried out in translators' workplaces, in natural settings, by observing translators working on authentic translation tasks. Such extended TPR has been carried out by e.g. Risku and Windhager (2013) and Risku (2014), who have observed processes in both large translation agencies as well as of translators working as freelancers, highlighting the situated, embedded and extended aspects of cognition: it is not only translator's cognition that is at play in the production of a translation but various agents contribute to the process. Another recent development is **neuroimaging studies**, which strive to shed light on the neurological underpinnings of translation by measuring brain activity during translation (for an overview of studies looking into the brain activation patterns during different translation tasks, see García 2013, 2016).[6]

A number of recent studies within process research aim directly at serving **process-oriented translation pedagogy**, for example by adapting the methods used in research in a pedagogical setting (e.g. Dam-Jensen and Heine 2009, Massey and Ehrensberger-Dow 2011b, Kujamäki 2010, Angelone 2013a, b; Shreve, Angelone and Lacruz 2014). These studies advocate process-orientation as a teaching method of translation. TPR into **translation expertise** and **translation competence and its acquisition** also contribute to translation pedagogy, but from a different perspective; these aim to increase our understanding of what exactly makes a translator. What should we teach to our students to turn them into professionals? As Pym (2009:

[6] For the usefulness and ecological validity of neuroimaging studies as evidence of neurological patterns of translation, see House (2012: 51–53, or 2015: 118–119).

136) notes, there are two main procedures for applying empirical work to translator training. These are 1) studies into differences between professional and novice translators characterizing features of expertise, which serve as learning objectives (e.g. Tirkkonen-Condit 1989, Lörscher 1991b, Jääskeläinen and Tirkkonen-Condit 1991, Jääskeläinen 1999, Jakobsen 2002, Englund Dimitrova 2005, Dragsted 2005, 2010, Angelone 2010, Göpferich 2010, Jensen 2011, Ehrensberger-Dow and Massey 2013), and 2) studies into the development of TC that yield information on how TC is acquired (e.g. PACTE 2000, 2002, 2005, 2009, 2014; Göpferich 2008, 2011). The procedures are overlapping but the goals are different; in effect, the first has contributed to theoretical frameworks underpinning the second.

In the following, an overview is provided of TPR into expertise since the results of such studies have been utilized in the design of TC models which, in turn, have been used as theoretical frameworks in studies into ATC. The present study obviously identifies with developmental studies; therefore, they will be accounted for in more detail, and similarities and differences between the earlier studies and the present one will be pointed out by way of explaining the contribution of the latter to the field.

2.2 FEATURES OF EXPERTISE

The empirical search for the features that distinguish translation experts and professionals from novices provides valuable information for the design of translator training: by paying attention to the differences between novice and professional translators' processing patterns, information can be gained about what translation students should be made aware of during their training (Jääskeläinen et al. 2011). These studies open a window into **general tendencie***s* in ATC; what is typically mastered by experts and not by novices. This information is also used in the design of TC models (Göpferich 2009: 12).

Sections 2.2.1 and 2.2.2 will provide an introduction to the differences between novices and experts that are directly observable from different types of data. The latter section will focus on differences in linguistic (interlingual) processing during translation, offering some hypotheses and points of comparison for the present study. In section 2.2.3 the issue of a translator's metacognition will be brought to the fore and the novice-experts differences that can be observed indirectly will be discussed, with the emphasis on the notion of **monitoring,** regarded as the fundamental characteristic of expertise (Siren and Hakkarainen 2002, Hansen 2003).

2.2.1 Extra-linguistic aspects of translation expertise

Different studies have focused on different aspects of translation process, noting differences between novices and experts for example in planning, problem awareness, manner of problem-solving, use of translation aids and information search, time use, distribution of attention, allocation of time and effort, segmentation, knowledge about translation and general approach to the task.

Experts are found to **plan** the translation process more carefully than novices: they tend to formulate an overall ('global') strategy which they follow throughout the

translation when dealing with micro-level decisions (Jääskeläinen 1993, Englund-Dimitrova 2005). Advanced translators show more **awareness of translation problems** (Gerloff 1988, Jääskeläinen 1999), nevertheless showing **automatized processing** of some complex tasks (Jääskeläinen and Tirkkonen-Condit 1991). Many studies have suggested that the growing TC does not decrease the amount of problems that become the object of conscious decision-making in translation, but the problems are different in quality (Gerloff 1988: 54 ff.; Krings 1988; Jääskeläinen and Tirkkonen-Condit 1991). Angelone (2010: 33–34) suspects that experts can diagnose problems more accurately than novices, who may recognize the existence of a problem, but are not quite sure what exactly it is. Furthermore, experts focus on the problems that seem to have the greatest bearing on the outcome, such as headings, titles, pivotal terms, names and acronyms that are often repeated in the text instead of wasting time in irrelevant details (Tirkkonen-Condit 2005: 3-4; Ehrensberger-Dow and Massey 2013: 118–119). Furthermore, more experienced translators are found to use top-down processing and refer more to the translation purpose (Fraser 1996; Künzli 2004, Séguinot 1989, Tirkkonen-Condit 1992).

With regard to the **aids used for problem-solving**, experts seem to rely on the contextual information or other internal sources, whereas novices tend to resort to text-external translation aids for information (Tirkkonen-Condit 2005: 3–4, Massey and Ehrensberger-Dow 2014). Experts use similar tactics also to cope with the time pressure in translation while novices often resort to omission, borrowing and transcoding as coping tactics (Jarvella et al. 2002). When professionals resort to external aids, they do it mainly to solve text production problems, whereas students need them to solve comprehension problems (Gerloff 1988, Jääskeläinen 1989). In a study conducted by Massey and Ehrensberger-Dow (2011a: 198) students were found to be more inclined to use multilingual resources for both linguistic and extra-linguistic problems than their instructors; however, freelance professional translators showed no clear preference of monolingual resources over multilingual ones. Massey and Ehrensberger-Dow (2011a: 198) state that instructors seem more aware of the appropriateness and reliability of resources for specific problem types, referring to this as "problem-adequate resource choice" in a later study (Massey and Ehrensberger-Dow 2014).

Experts' and novices' **problem-solving patterns** are also found to be different. According to Angelone (2010: 33–34), experts exhibit uninterrupted problem-solving pattern whereas novices' problem-solving tends to be disrupted with a lot of jumping back and forth between problem sequences. Göpferich (2010) reports of similar behaviour. In Enriquez Raido's study (2013: 133), a controlled and focused progression through various online tasks during the translation process was also linked with higher translation quality. However, Tirkkonen-Condit (2000) concluded that translators (representing high-quality professional performance) often postpone final decisions, offering several tentative solutions before the final decision, thus demonstrating ability to tolerate ambiguity.

Various differences between experts and students have also been reported with regard to the **text production process**. Dragsted (2004, 2005) found that experts and novices show different **segmentation** patterns, i.e. experts process a larger amount of words at a time for translation than novices. The same trend was also found by

Lörscher (1991b), Tirkkonen-Condit (1992) and Angelone (2010). However, Dragsted (2005) reported that a single word segment was the most frequent segment type in both novices' and experts' processes in an experiment in which a more difficult source text was used.

The time needed to translate has also been discussed in terms of expertise. Experts are found to produce texts faster than novices (Göpferich 2010, Jakobsen 2002: 203, Englund-Dimitrova 2005: 230, Quinci 2015: 187). However, novices are found to be faster than more advanced trainees (Bayer-Hohenwarter 2010: 105, Quinci 2015: 187). This seems to be in accordance with Jääskeläinen's (1999: 242) developmental hypothesis: beginners are fast because they do not recognize the problems whereas third-semester students take longer because of increasing problem-sensitivity. Such a 'translation does not get easier' -phenomenon has also been reported, for example, by Gerloff (1988), Jääskeläinen (1990), and Siren and Hakkarainen (2002). At the expert stage, in turn, a lot of problem-solving has become automated, which may explain the shorter translation time of experts (e.g. Shreve 1997: 132, Jääskeläinen 1999: 242–243, Chesterman 2000: 79).

There are also differences in the **allocation of time and effort** to different phases, stages or actions in the translation process. Experts are found to spend proportionally more time looking at the target text than at the source text (Jakobsen and Jensen 2008); the proportion of target-text evaluation seems to grow with the growth of expertise (Tirkkonen-Condit 2005: 3–4). Jarvella et al. (2002) also report that experts spent relatively more time in revision than non-professionals (i.e. novices as far as translation is concerned) or young professionals (having some translation experience). However, in the allocation of time between initial orientation, drafting, and revision phases there seems to be no single pattern that characterizes expertise as such (Englund-Dimitrova 2005: 230). Although some studies point to a longer initial orientation phase of professionals in comparison to students (Jakobsen 2002), other findings suggest the opposite. For example, in Dragsted and Carl's (2013: 150) study all systematic initial planners were students.

Differences appear also in **the nature of different process phases,** although different studies have yielded somewhat contradictory results in this aspect as well. More experienced translators are found to make fewer changes when reviewing (despite the longer revision time), which implies that their solutions in the drafting phase are more durable than the novices' (Jensen and Jakobsen 2000, Jakobsen 2002, Englund Dimitrova 2005). However, experts are also found to produce more interim solutions, and to revise more, and to monitor the interim solutions more critically (Gerloff 1988, Jääskeläinen 1999). There may be several explanations for the contradictory findings. For example, in Dragsted and Carl's (2013: 150) study, professionals carried out more end-revision, but this may be explained by the effect of research design; it is possible that students simply had to skip the end revision due to the time limit in the study.

With regard to **cognitive tasks involved in translation**, experienced professional translators seem to be better able to divide their attention in parallel on ST reading (comprehension) and TT production, while students alternate between reading the ST and writing the TT (Carl and Kay 2011). Dragsted (2010: 58), too, concludes that professionals' performance is characterized by overlapping comprehension and pro-

duction processes whereas students tend to focus their attention on one task at a time, i.e. either comprehension or production.

Differences have also been reported in experts' and novices' **knowledge about translation, attitudes and general approach to the task**. More experienced translators are reported to display more realism, confidence and critical attitudes in their decision-making, and they are also more prone to admit if they feel uncertain about something in the ST, while beginners may be reluctant to show their uncertainty, thinking that a translator has to know everything (Künzli 2004). Experts also have the courage to "take an upper hand in relation to the source text" and improve the text for the translation, meaning that the source text (in non-fiction) is not sacred to them (Tirkkonen-Condit 2005: 3-4). They[7] also express more principles and personal theories (Tirkkonen-Condit 1989, 1997, Jääskeläinen 1999), and seem more aware of what they do and the strategies they use, i.e. show a higher level of metalinguistic awareness (Ehrensberger-Dow and Perrin 2009: 284).

All of the above features of the process are extra-linguistic; they depict differences in the manner by which translation emerges and in the individual mind-sets of novice and expert translators, hence providing results on which to build competence models that portray the desired outcome of translator training. However, they do not touch upon the differences in the linguistic (interlingual) processing. This is in the focus of the present study, in which translation is approached as an interlingual text production process and the interest lies in the acquisition of interlingual text production skills. In the following, earlier findings on specifically translation-related linguistic expertise will be brought to the fore.

2.2.2 Linguistic aspects of translation expertise

What might intuitively strike one as an obvious difference between experts' and novices' translation processes is the extent to which the ST 'shows' in the TT. This phenomenon is commonly known as interference, which in translation may show either as the L1 influence on L2 production or as the L2 influence on L1 production (e.g. Presas 2000: 26). As Presas (2000: 26) points out, the latter is perhaps one of the most studied phenomena in Translation Studies. In TPR into expertise, the phenomenon has been approached via the concepts of **literal vs. non-literal translation.** These two concepts have been in the focus of studies into linguistic aspects of expertise in translation (Englund-Dimitrova 2005: 53). Literal, or 'sign-oriented', translation has been hypothesized to characterize non-professional translators while non-literal, or 'sense-oriented', translation would be typical for professionals (Lörscher 1991: 276). Englund-Dimitrova (2005: 56) finds this assumption perhaps too strict, and for example Künzli's (2004) study yields evidence to the contrary. In his study, students appeared more courageous than professionals to deviate from the ST. The same conclusion is made by Quinci (2015: 193–194), who found that when translating non-specialized newspaper articles, students were in fact prone to change the ST structure

[7] It is to be noted that in some early TPR, 'professionals' in the studies were in fact for example 5th year translation students, which compromises the results as representive of typical professional or expert translation process (see Shreve and Angelone 2010: 5, Jääskeläinen 2010: 2014).

whereas experts tended to minimise the number of changes to the syntactic structure of the ST and focus their cognitive resources on few key changes. In these studies, the experts' behaviour seems to be in accordance with the **minimax principle** introduced to Translation Studies by Levy (1967), i.e. they seem to strive for maximum outcome with minimum effort.

However, experts are found to be more creative in producing **acceptable** translations when deviation from the ST is **necessary** due to interlingual differences. Bayer-Hohenwarter (2010) found that producing acceptable solutions **where a word-for-word solution does not suffice** does not seem to pose a problem for experts: they were found to use more creativity in such translation solutions than novices, i.e. they produced acceptable translations more fluently and (seemingly) effortlessly than students. Vandepitte and Hartsuiker (2011), in a study to clarify whether cross-linguistic differences are problems to translation students and therefore need attention in training, look into the issue of **crosslinguistic differences** in metonymic language use as potential process problems in translation. Not surprisingly, interlingual differences in metonymic language use were found to represent a challenge in students' processing.

Englund-Dimitrova (2005) uses the concept of **literal translation** in the analysis of experts' and students' revision patterns, approaching revision from the product perspective and paying attention to linguistic changes occurring as a result of revision. With regard to the linguistic nature of changes in the TT, Englund-Dimitrova (2005: 113–115) divided revision carried out by the participants in her study into different categories: syntactic, morphological, lexical, content, orthography, and other. This classification system was built on a comparison between what was first written down and what it was then changed into, i.e. the comparison of different versions of TT (ibid. 113). This classification, then, does not take a stand on the (possibly) changing relation between the ST and the TT. Syntactic revisions were further classified as construction changes and changes in the word order, and construction changes further into three subcategories – this time on the basis of ST–TT comparison: 1) changes that make the TT more dissimilar than the ST, 2) changes that make the TT more similar than the ST, and 3) changes by which the relation does not change; neither TT is modelled upon the ST.

In Englund-Dimitrova's study (2005), lexical and syntactic revisions constitute 70% of all revisions in the writing phase, lexical revisions being dominant in students' and syntactic in professionals' processes. The majority of syntactic revisions make the TT more dissimilar in relation to the ST. This tendency is pronounced in the group of professionals. In other words, literal translation was adopted by students and professionals alike as a typical first step in the drafting process, to be changed later into a less similar structure. Most did this revision immediately before moving on with the ST. Literal translations were changed into less literal ones by students and professionals alike, but the latter group was more systematic in this respect (ibid. 146). In the post-writing phase, too, lexical and syntactic revisions are the most frequent, the first constituting a larger proportion (ibid. 120). Quite a large number of syntactic revisions in the post-writing phase removed literal translation, but it was no longer a predominant type of syntactic revision; almost half of the syntactic changes fell into

the subcategory of 'other structure changes', i.e. neither TT version was modelled upon the ST (Englund-Dimitrova 2005: 120–121).

The difference between novices and professionals in dealing with literal translation does not show only **whether** they abandon the literal translations but also **how** – by what linguistic means – they abandon it and **why** and **when** in the process this happens (Englund-Dimitrova 2005: 233–234). In the think-aloud data, professionals' verbalizations of the reasons behind revision were more varied and specified than those of students (ibid. 124–125), especially during the writing phase. However, students' verbalizations in the post-writing phase resembles those of professionals in the writing phase, which suggests that the factors taken into account by professionals in the writing phase are focused on by the students later on in the process (ibid. 129–130).

Englund-Dimitrova's study corroborates the **literal translation hypothesis,** i.e. the view according to which translators move from more to less literal rendering of the ST in their search for TTs (e.g. Toury 1995, Tirkkonen-Condit 2005, Chesterman 2011). According to this hypothesis, then, interference, i.e. the influence of ST on the TT production, is not a distinctive feature of novices' translation process in particular (Presas 2000: 25) but typical in all translation – as suggested by Toury's law of interference (1995: 276). The literal translation hypothesis is also tested e.g. by Pavlović and Antunović (2015) with professional translators. They investigated the different solutions of the same ST item in terms of distance dynamics, i.e. how close or distant each solution was from the source item. Their finding sheds light on the generalizability of the literal translation hypothesis: 40.8% of all self-revisions involved a change from a more literal towards a freer rendering of the ST ('T-moves') whereas 34.33% involved a change from a freer to a more literal rendering ('S-moves') and 24.99% were neutral revisions. According to these results, then, a move from more to less literal rendering of a ST is indeed common in the translation process, but cannot be labelled as a default processing pattern. It must be pointed out, however, that the results of studies testing the literal translation hypothesis are strongly affected by how literal translation is defined. Pavlović and Antunović (2015: 102) adopted a broad definition and considered solutions that "are obviously source-inspired" as literal translations. The more different the two languages are from each other, the more challenging it is to define a literal translation. As Englund-Dimitrova (2005: 51–52) notes, a given translation may be generally free, but contain elements that are literal; and a generally literal translation may contain elements that are not literal. Even a small TT chunk may be literal with regard to some linguistic aspect and non-literal with regard to another aspect.

Tirkkonen-Condit (2005) suggests that "literal translation is a default rendering procedure in translation and goes on until it is interrupted by a **monitor** that alerts about a problem in the outcome" (Tirkkonen-Condit 2005: 407–408). This **monitor model** of a translation process suggested by Tirkkonen-Condit (ibid.) is based on Ivir's (1981: 58) hypothesis according to which

> a translator begins his search for translation equivalence from formal correspondence, and it is only when the identical-meaning formal correspondent is either not available or not able to ensure equivalence that he resorts to formal correspondents with not quite identical meanings or to structural and semantic shifts that destroy formal correspondence altogether.

Tirkkonen-Condit (2005) and Tirkkonen-Condit et al. (2008) provide further empirical evidence for the hypothesis and the monitor model, showing that professional – or expert – translators do indeed use literal translation as a drafting strategy and then monitor the translation when the TL norms so requires. Asadi and Séguinot (2005: 538) made a similar finding: in their study, the majority of professional translators first produced TT that followed the ST closely, then moving the completed TT around to create a more idiomatic TT. According to Tirkkonen-Condit et al. (2008: 4–5), literal translation takes place at all levels of linguistic structure in the professional process: lexical, morpho-syntactic, syntactic, and textual. Moreover, the number of literal translation revisions does not seem to correlate with the quality of the final product: processes involving plenty of literal translation revision frequently result in excellent or good quality (ibid. 5).

The above-mentioned studies focus on translation as interlingual text production, showing that interlingual differences are indeed a challenge for a translator, and not only in the novice stage; while they are definitely difficult to process at the early stages of TC acquisition, their processing is not automatic for experts either. However, professionals seem to recognize when a literal translation goes against the TL norms and revise it accordingly, whereas students more often lack this stage in the process, retaining the literal translation. Hence, the distinctive feature between novices and experts in translation is not the skill to avoid literal translation as such, but to **monitor** their TT when need be. Apart from studies into literal translation and the monitor model, few researchers have focused on the linguistic processing of translators, i.e. the **specific nature of a translator's linguistic expertise**. In this sense, the studies described above and the present one share a goal: they set out to find out how a translator deals with challenges of translation as an interlingual text production process. They also serve to emphasize the need to pay attention to translation as an interlingual text production process in particular. The specific goal of the present study is to look into the set of **skills** that is needed in interlingual text production and how these skills develop during training.

Although linguistic monitoring is in the focus of this study, monitoring as a concept is not related to interlingual processing only; it is a component of metacognition needed in all problem-solving in translation (Angelone and Shreve 2011: 110). Monitoring is considered as the key feature of translation expertise, and will be discussed as a more encompassing concept in the following section.

2.2.3 Metacognitive aspects of translation expertise: monitoring

As pointed out by Angelone (2010: 24), metacognitive approaches to translation process are few in number, perhaps due to the criticism towards the methodology commonly used to capture metacognitive activity, i.e. verbal reports such as think-aloud protocols. Opponents of this method feel that having translators think aloud while translating may distract and change the process (e.g. Toury 1995: 235), while proponents believe that think-aloud protocols are reliable in documenting the cognitive process as long as the verbalization is concurrent with conscious task performance, citing findings of Ericsson and Simon (1984). In any case, verbal data opens access to translators' minds unlike any other method of data elicitation and can reveal, for example, what kind of a problem a translator is experiencing in the process, as will be explained below.

Metacognition can be defined as "the conscious, volitional, strategic control over complex cognitive tasks" (Shreve 2009), including translation. **Monitoring**[8] in translation, in turn, can be defined as "the metacognitive ability of translators to self-reflect on the nature and course of a problem-solving sequence, provide themselves with feedback on progress toward a solution, and evaluate any solution generated" (Angelone 2010: 19). It has been suggested that "highly developed monitoring skills are the determining factor of translation expertise" (Sirén and Hakkarainen 2002, Shreve 2006). As in the case of any aspect of metacognition, its working can be observed indirectly rather than directly. Some researchers have made assumptions on the metacognitive abilities underlying translation expertise, linking monitoring activities with a successful problem-solving process. On the basis of think-aloud data, Tirkkonen-Condit (2000), for example, found that professional translators tend to deliberately generate, audit, and evaluate tentative solutions in the target text context in the search for a suitable solution, hence showing the ability to reflect on, plan for, and exercise deliberate and strategic control over a problem-solving sequence, i.e. monitoring (Angelone 2010: 19).

Angelone (2010), in turn, divides a translator's problem-solving process into three subprocesses: 1) problem recognition, 2) solution proposal, and 3) solution evaluation. The final stage, evaluation, is characterized expressly by monitoring (Angelone and Shreve 2011: 111). Often solution evaluation addresses already-generated target text but it can also be synchronous with target text generation (Angelone 2010: 20), i.e. the monitoring can take place parallel to the solution proposal (which may show up as, for example, immediate or slightly delayed revision in the process data). When comparing problem-solving processes of an expert, two students of translation and a bilingual, Angelone (2010: 32–33) and Angelone and Shreve (2011: 122) noted a difference in the monitoring (solution evaluation) behaviour: students appeared to evaluate their TTs more, yet arrived at successful TTs less often, i.e. made more errors. The professional, in turn, appeared to put more effort in problem recognition, showing a more controlled problem-solving process as a whole: the problem is recognized, a solution proposed and evaluated successfully. Hence, the professional appears to engage in **evaluative monitoring** whereas students engaged in **excessive evaluation.** The latter, Angelone and Shreve (2011: 123) argue, may be explained by faulty problem recognition, which leads to indecision and doubt in the evaluation. Evaluative monitoring, then, is strategic control over the progress of a problem-solving sequence (Angelone 2010: 19), i.e. effective processing and solving of a problem at hand. The concept will be discussed further in terms of skills needed for interlingual text production in Chapter 6 of this report.

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[8] Monitor(ing) is a widely discussed concept also in SLA research. Krashen (1982: 15–16) introduced the monitor hypothesis, referring to a process in which a learner monitors the language that goes in and out with the help of his or her explicit knowledge about language. The monitor helps to catch errors and avoid them, but also limits the learner by making him or her hesitant. Although the premise for the working of this monitor has been subject to criticism in SLA research (e.g. Gregg 1984), the concept itself bears resemblance to the monitor discussed in translation studies; the tasks the monitors assumedly perform are similar. The (neuro)cognitive functioning of the various monitors is, however, unclear.

In summary, by comparison of professionals and non-professionals, novices and experts, a considerable number of process-oriented translation studies have aimed at establishing the characteristics of translation expertise, which in turn has contributed to the theoretical notions of what constitutes translation competence. These notions, in turn, have been incorporated into TC models used as frameworks in the earlier empirical endeavours to study translation competence acquisition. In the following subsection these studies and the TC models used as their framework will be discussed and compared with the aims of the present study.

2.3 EMPIRICAL STUDIES INTO THE ATC

Empirical longitudinal studies into ATC are needed since, as Göpferich (e.g. 2011: 58) points out, studies comparing novices and experts leave us in the dark with regard to how competence develops in its continuity. To date, the number of such studies is low as they tend to be labour-intensive and time-consuming (Göpferich 2009: 11–12). However, during the past decade some studies have been conducted to improve the situation. Perhaps the most influential of these is the ongoing large-scale project carried out by PACTE; influential in the sense that PACTE's TC model has been adopted as a framework in several other studies into ATC. Another large-scale research project into ATC, TransComp, was carried out at the University of Graz (e.g. Göpferich 2009, 2010, Göpferich et al. 2011) in 2009–2012. In this project, a new TC model was designed, but it was largely based on that of PACTE's.

A third large-scale project into the development of TC was the CTP project (Capturing translation processes, e.g. Massey and Ehrensberger-Dow 2011a, 2011b) at the Zurich University of Applied Sciences during 2009–2012. In CTP, data was collected from translators at different stages of their career, thus making the comparison between beginners, advanced students and professionals possible, but the individuals representing those groups did not remain the same throughout the project; hence, the project was not longitudinal and did not describe individual learning processes but general tendencies of TC acquisition. The key research question driving the project concerned the development of TC and identifying indicators in the translation process that seem to be related to competence level. In general, it was found that professionals oriented themselves more quickly to translation tasks, produced titles sooner, were faster at target text production, researched less, revised more, and paused more than beginners and advanced students (Ehrensberger-Dow 2013: 4). Hence, CTP provided vital information on what translators really do and how they do it at various points of their career, but did not touch upon the question of hierarchical relations of subcompetences from the acquisition point of view. Rather, it seemed to validate the assumptions on which multicomponent models such as PACTE's and Göpferich's (see below) are based on (Massey and Ehrensberger-Dow 2014: 159).

In the following subsections I will introduce the projects of PACTE and TransComp in more detail.

2.3.1 PACTE's research into ATC

The PACTE research group was formed in 1997 to investigate ATC in written translation (PACTE 2003: 43). First, they introduced a tentative TC model drawing on earlier empirical studies into translation (expertise) (PACTE 2003: 47), which was to be modified on the basis of empirical testing. The current PACTE TC model is hence based on the observable behaviour (via the PROXY user monitoring programme that records and monitors the translation process in real time) as well as cognitive procedures (accessed indirectly via questionnaires and retrospective and guided think-aloud protocols) of expert translators (PACTE 2003). The model is validated by an empirical study into TC of expert translators and language teachers who have no experience or training in translation (PACTE 2011: 318). In the validation, translation process and products of experts were compared with that of teachers with regard to the following variables: knowledge about translation; efficacy of the translation process; decision-making; translation project; and identification and solution of translation problems (PACTE 2011: 320). The PACTE model, then, is a description of knowledge an expert translator should possess, designed on the basis of empirical testing and also supported by earlier studies into translation expertise. From the acquisition perspective, it functions as a set of learning objectives, the end point of the acquisition process.

According to PACTE, TC is "the underlying system of **knowledge** needed to translate" (2003: 58). The notion of knowledge in PACTE's TC model refers to the widely used dichotomy between **declarative and procedural knowledge** (Anderson 1983), coming from the field of cognitive psychology. Declarative knowledge is defined as knowledge of facts or knowing **that**, whereas procedural knowledge is knowing **how** (Anderson 1976). While declarative knowledge is descriptive and can be expressed in words as well as is use-independent, embodying concepts, principles, ideas, schemas and theories, procedural knowledge, such as how to use a computer text editor, is prescriptive and use-specific, consisting of associations between goals, situations, and actions (Chi & Ohlsson 2005). According to Anderson (1983), these two types of knowledge and their interaction form the basis of human cognition: procedural knowledge complements declarative knowledge that is contained in the long-term memory (Anderson 1983: 215). According to Anderson (ibid.), it is production that provides the connection between declarative knowledge and behaviour, i.e. productions constitute the procedural knowledge. Furthermore, the acquisition of productions, i.e. the acquisition of procedural knowledge, does not take place in a similar manner than the acquisition of facts. Rather, procedural learning occurs only in executing a skill due to its context-specificity. This is one of the reasons why procedural learning is a much more gradual process than declarative learning (ibid.).

PACTE (2003: 58–60, 2009: 208–209) defines TC as a) an expert knowledge, b) predominantly procedural, c) comprising different inter-related and hierarchic sub-competences and d) including a strategic component that is of particular importance. TC consists of five sub-competences and of certain psycho-physiological components as shown in Figure 2 below.

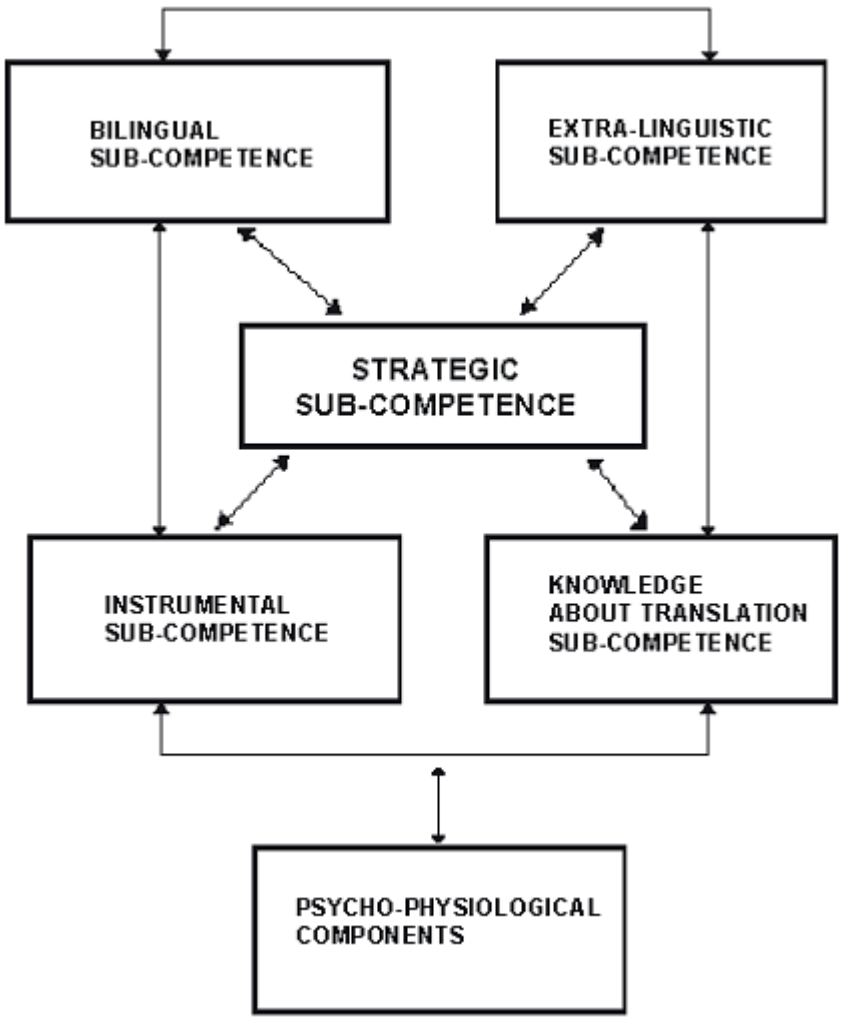

Figure 2. PACTE group's translation competence model (2003: 60)

Strategic subcompetence[9] is placed in the middle since it is regarded as the definitive sub-competence for translators. It is a procedural knowledge to guarantee that the translation process is efficient and problems that arise are solved. According to PACTE (2003: 59), its functions are to "plan the process and carry out the translation project with the most adequate method; to evaluate the process and the partial results obtained in relation to the final purpose; to activate the different sub-competences and

[9] The term strategic competence comes from the field of SLA, where it is defined as consisting of communication strategies that compensate for breakdowns in communication due to performance variables or to insufficient competence; it can be deemed essential to all communication (Canale and Swain 1980: 30; Bachman 1990: 99). In Bachman's and Palmer's model of Communicative Language Ability, strategic competence is a central component of all language use (Bachman and Palmer 1996: 63), and it is defined as a set of metacognitive components operating in a goal setting, assessment and planning (Bachman and Palmer 1996: 76), i.e. in a similar manner than it is defined within studies into TC.

compensate for deficiencies in them and finally, to identify translation problems and apply procedures to solve them". As implied by Figure 2, strategic competence is linked with all other sub-competences, functioning as a kind of adhesive that binds the bits and pieces of translation competence together. To link strategic subcompetence with the discussion into translation expertise, it seems to me that this subcompetence ensures the monitoring in translation; it can be conceptualized as a complex set of monitoring skills. It is probably due to the importance PACTE sets on strategic competence that TC as a whole is considered as "predominantly procedural" knowledge.

The linguistic aspects of TC come down to **bilingual sub-competence** in the PACTE model. It is defined as "predominantly procedural knowledge needed to communicate in two languages", including pragmatic, socio-linguistic, textual, grammatical and lexical knowledge in the two languages. In addition, bilingual competence as a translator's sub-competence includes the specific feature of interference control, the ability to keep languages apart when alternating between them.

Extra-linguistic sub-competence is defined as "predominantly declarative knowledge, both implicit and explicit, about the world in general and about special areas". PACTE divides this into three knowledge categories: first, cultural knowledge of both the source and target cultures, second, encyclopaedic knowledge about the world in general and third, subject knowledge in special areas.

The subcompetence that is rarely made explicit in earlier accounts of TC is theoretical knowledge about translation per se. In PACTE's model the theoretical component is introduced as **knowledge about translation sub-competence**, which is a twofold competence: on one hand, it has to do with declarative knowledge about how translation functions (types of translation units, processes required, strategies and techniques, problem types etc.), and on the other hand, it comprises (declarative?) knowledge related to the professional translation practice (different types of translation briefs, clients, audiences etc., i.e. knowledge about the translation market). As Göpferich (2009: 19) notes, these two comprise different types of knowledge – the first dealing with the knowledge of translation process on the textual level and the other relating to the function of the market. The two are also clearly linked in the sense that knowing the brief and the target audience influences the translation process on the textual level in the choice of strategies.

Instrumental sub-competence is defined as "predominantly procedural knowledge". It is related to the use of communication technologies applied to translation such as dictionaries of all kinds, encyclopaedias, grammars, style books, parallel texts, electronic corpora, search engines, etc.

In addition to the knowledge and skills, PACTE mentions some relevant cognitive and attitudinal aspects that are relevant for translators (2003: 59). These are called components rather than sub-competences and include e.g. memory, perception and attention and intellectual curiosity, perseverance, rigour, critical spirit, self-confidence, motivation, etc.; all highly relevant for translators but not either declarative nor procedural types of skills or knowledge but rather personal characteristics that influence one's work.

The model introduced above provides the theoretical framework for PACTE's research into ATC (PACTE 2014: 88). The acquisition of TC involves the development of

the different subcompetences and, "the development of the integrative competence to fall back on the individual competences and to prioritize them depending on the respective assignment and communicative situation" (PACTE 2000, 2014).

The tentative model for ATC process was designed already in 1998 (PACTE 2000: 14) and is given below in Figure 3.

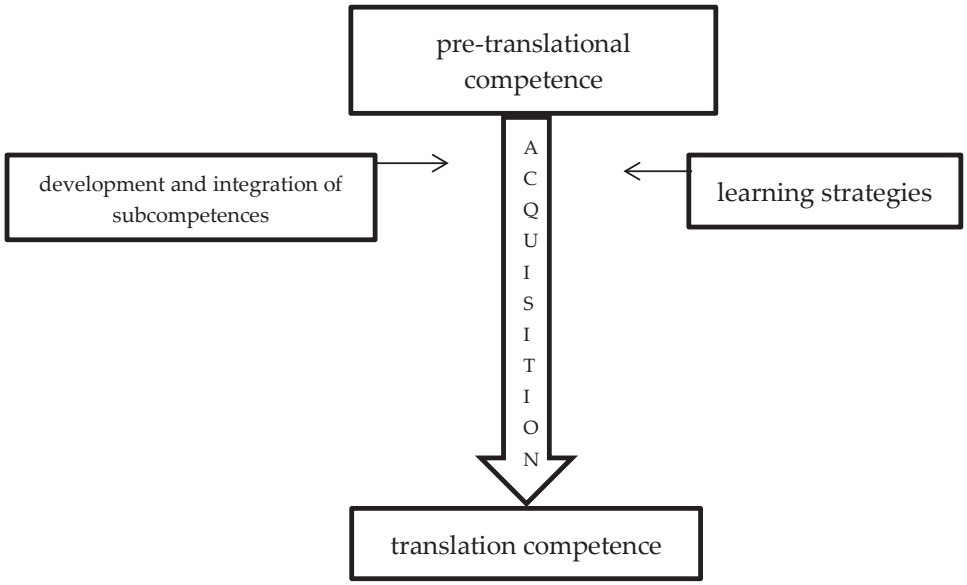

Figure 3. The PACTE group's translation competence acquisition model (PACTE 2000: 14).

According to PACTE (2003: 49–50), TC evolves from novice knowledge (pre-translation competence) to expert knowledge (translation competence) so that "both declarative and procedural types of knowledge are integrated, developed and restructured" in the process; the development of procedural knowledge, i.e. of strategic subcompetence, is of particular importance. In ATC, "the subcompetences are inter-related and compensate each other, and do not develop in parallel" (ibid.). Moreover, they are organized hierarchically. The learning context influences the acquisition process, as does the teaching methodology used by translation teachers.

Despite the fact that TC is divided into six subcompetences in the TC model, PACTE argues that only **strategic competence**, **instrumental competence** and **knowledge of translation** are specific to translation, justifying this by stating that "all bilinguals possess knowledge of two languages and may also possess extra-linguistic knowledge" (PACTE 2011: 320). This observation is based on their empirical studies comparing foreign-language teachers and translators; the greatest differences in their performance was observed with regard to these three subcompetences. With regard to strategic competence, for example, PACTE (2011) reports that while both novices (i.e. teachers in PACTEs task) and experts may nurture a similar concept of translation, it is reflected in the actual translation solutions only in the performance of experts. Therefore, it is these three subcompetences on which their ATC research focuses on. The acquisition

of strategic competence is regarded as particularly important for the overall translation competence, and its development is studied by looking at multiple variables: efficacy of the translation process, decision-making, identification and solution of translation problems, and the translation project (i.e. mental representation of expectations of what the translation of a given text should be like) (PACTE 2005: 612—13; 2014: 94—95).

The basic assumption in PACTE's ATC research design, then, is first, that the elements that are observable in the end state are observable **throughout the acquisition process**, and second, that the elements that lie in the centre of translation expertise also form the **base of TC** and are therefore the elements worth investigating when studying ATC, including the early stages of training. PACTE defines the novice stage of TC – the pre-translation stage in their ATC model – as "the stage when the subcompetences have been acquired, at least partially, but they do not interact with each other" (PACTE 2000: 103), suggesting that ATC is about strengthening existing subcompetences and integrating them in the process. Kelly (2005, 2012) points out that from the developmental point of view, visualising TC as separate "boxes" of subcompetences that are interlinked by arrows is a simplified representation, since various subcompetences are not acquired one by one but in a complex, dynamic process, echoing Toury's (1995: 238) earlier criticism regarding TC models that mirror the ideal end situation and are therefore, from the didactic point of view, insufficient without a complementary model of actual learning processes. Although the notions of hierarchy and inter-relatedness of subcompetences are emphasized in the PACTE model, they seem to refer to the dominant role of strategic subcompetence in TC rather than the way in which subcompetences build up. The hierarchical relations **in terms of acquisition** are not focused on in the model. Such a static view seems ill-suited for the purpose of the present study. The very notion of 'pre-translational competence' is difficult to apply when translation is defined as any linguistic mediation between languages rather than only professional practice.

PACTE's research into ATC is ongoing. Their original intention to carry out a longitudinal study with the same participants was changed into a simulation of a longitudinal study due to practical and technical problems (2014: 96). In the end, the data for ATC study has been collected simultaneously from the first-year, second-year, third-year and fourth-year students as well as recent graduates, 130 participants altogether. The first results of TC acquisition were introduced in 2014 (PACTE 2014: 101–108). In that specific study, the focus is on the development of 'knowledge of translation subcompetence', which is measured with the help of a set of questions indicating either a dynamic (i.e. textual, interpretative, communicative and functional) concept of translation or a static (i.e. linguistic and literal) concept of translation (PACTE 2014: 98). According to the results, the change from a static to a dynamic declarative knowledge of translation is characteristic of the ATC.

In addition, various PhD projects are carried out within the PACTE project. Olalla-Soler (2015), for example, focuses on the acquisition of cultural competence (a part of extra-linguistic competence in the PACTE model). No results are available from his study yet. Castillo (2015), in turn, looks at TC acquisition and translation acceptability. His preliminary results include the notion that the biggest increase in the acceptability of translation solutions is between the 1st and the 2nd year BA students.

2.3.2 TransComp

The TransComp project investigated the development of TC of 12 BA students of translation at the University of Graz over a period of three years (2008–2011) and compared their translation products and processes to those of 10 professional translators. To my knowledge, the project is the only large-scale longitudinal study into ATC, looking at the same individuals over a longer period of time. The project yielded information both on the individual development of students as well as differences between students and experts. A new TC model was designed as the framework of the ATC study, based on Hönig's model (1991: 1995) of an ideal translation process, PACTE's model (2002, 2005) and the researchers' own experiences in translation didactics (Göpferich 2011: 59–60). The model is presented in Figure 4 below, followed by an introduction and discussion of the project in relation to the present study.

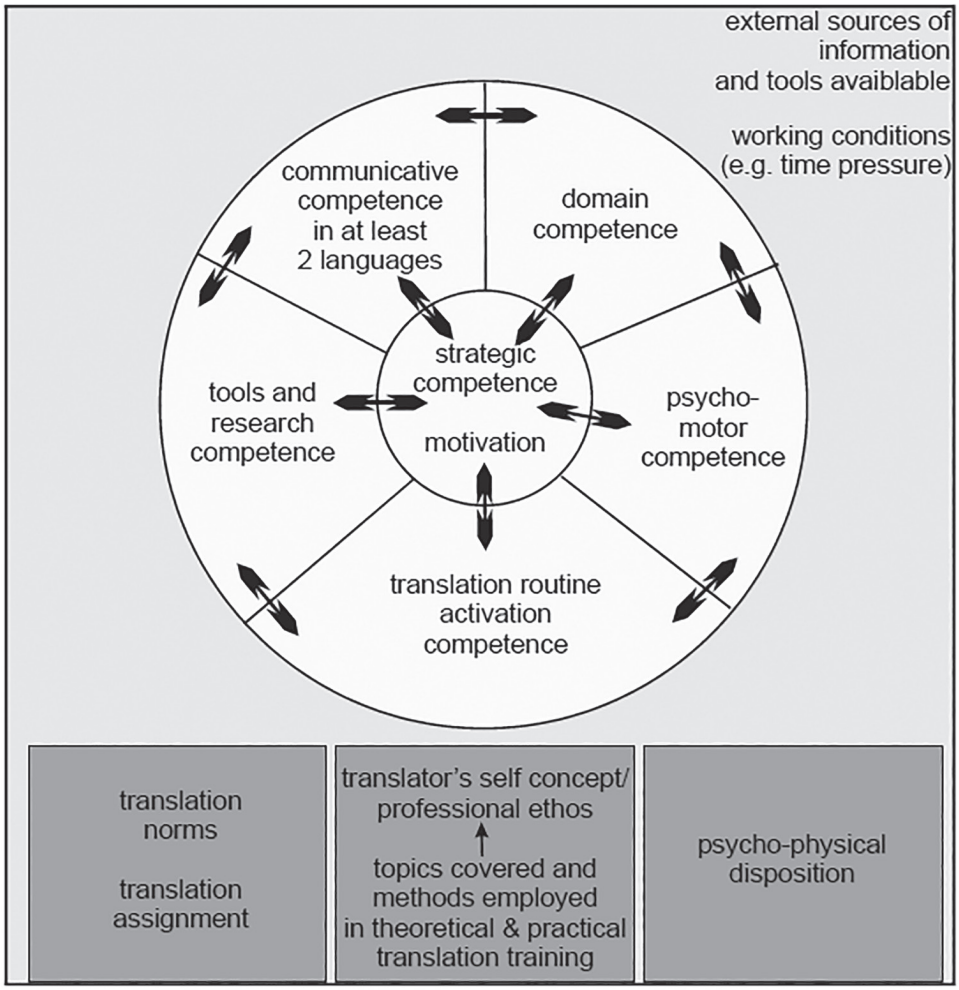

Figure 4. Göpferich's TC model for the study of ATC in the TransComp project (Göpferich 2009: 20–21)

The basis of Göpferich's model lies on three factors, which determine the employment of subcompetences depicted in Figure 4 above. These are first, the translation brief, second, translation norms and the translator's self-concept, and third, the translator's psycho-physical disposition (intelligence, ambition, self-confidence, etc.). The translator's self-concept is influenced by the topics covered and methods employed in translator training (Göpferich 2009: 22); self-concept refers to the way a translator sees his/her role and the role of translation in society.

Strategic competence plays a key role also in Göpferich's model. Göpferich (2009: 22) defines it as "a meta-cognitive competence that sets priorities and defines hierarchies between the individual sub-competences, leads to the development of macro-strategy in the sense of Hönig (1995), and ideally subjects all decisions to this macro-strategy." Motivation is linked with strategic competence, since "how strictly translators adhere to this macro-strategy depends on their strategic competence and their situation-specific motivation" (Göpferich 2009: 22)

Göpferich's **communicative competence**[10] in two languages corresponds to PACTE's bilingual competence (Göpferich 2009: 22–23). Communicative competence in the SL is needed for ST reception whereas communicative competence in the TL determines the quality of the TT. However, TL receptive competence is also needed for monitoring processes in which ST and TT units are compared.

Göpferich's **domain competence** is defined as general and domain-specific knowledge that is necessary to understand the ST and formulate the TT. It also involves "the sensitivity to recognize when additional knowledge is needed from external sources of information to fill one's knowledge gaps" (Göpferich 2009: 21). In PACTE's account, this sensitivity seems to be conceptualized as one of the workings of strategic competence, as it works to compensate for the deficiencies in different subcompetences (PACTE 2003: 59).

Translation routine activation competence comprises "the knowledge and the abilities to recall and apply certain language-pair specific standard transfer operations frequently leading to accepTable target-language equivalents" (Göpferich 2009: 19, 22). This competence has no explicit parallel in PACTE's model. This competence seems to touch upon the interlingual aspects of translation, although one might want to refrain from calling this interlingual skill 'routine', since the strategies to deal with interlingual differences are very much dependent on the cotext and therefore subject to variation even when working with the same type of interlingual difference.

Göpferich's **tools and research competence** (2009: 21) corresponds to PACTE's instrumental subcompetence, and refers to "the ability to use translation-specific conventional and electronic tools", from dictionaries to various terminology and translation management systems as well as machine translation systems. The final element, **psycho-motor competence**, refers to "the psychomotor abilities required for reading

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[10] The concept of communicative competence comes from linguistics and is defined as the competence to **use language in addition to knowing its rules** (Hymes 1972). It challenged the Chomskyan distinction into 'competence' and 'performance.' The former is defined as the linguistic knowledge of the idealized native speaker, an innate biological function of the mind that allows individuals to generate the infinite set of grammatical sentences that constitutes their language, and the latter is the actual use of language in concrete situations (Chomsky 1965).

and writing with electronic tools". The more developed these competences are, the less cognitive capacity is required for them, leaving more cognitive capacities for other cognitive tasks (Göpferich 2009: 21).

This model forms the framework for ATC within the TransComp project. The research design is similar to those of PACTE; TransComp, too, focuses on the sub-competences that are specific to translation only, defining those three to be **strategic competence, routine activation competence** and **tools and research competence** (Göpferich 2009: 29). These three are considered as the sub-competences in which TC differs from the competence of bilinguals with no specific training in translation. TC in this context refers to a TC of highly competent (i.e. expert) translators, as in PACTE's model (Göpferich 2013: 66).

The TransComp project yielded interesting results. As reported by Göpferich (2013: 68–70), the students who took part in the project seemed to show no progress in terms of the development of strategic behaviour from the first to their fourth semester. The first measure of strategic behaviour, the degree to which the participants proceeded in a goal-oriented manner as opposed to mere guessing, did not show any development, and non-strategic steps dominated their problem-solving processes. In addition, contrary to expectations, the total number of translation problems as well as the number of production problems and combined (comprehension and production) problems did not decrease from the first to the fourth semester.

In TransComp, the ability to produce creative shifts was considered to be one aspect of translational competence (Bayer-Hohenwarter 2011: 668). Creative shifts, i.e., abstracting, modifying or concretising source text ideas in the target text, in turn, measure the ability to depart from the ST structure (Bayer-Hohenwarter 2011: 663). The initial assumption was that translators, in their search for a skopos[11]-adequate translation, may, and sometimes even must, depart from cognitively less effortful literal translations that only involve re-coding the ST structure word-by-word and resort to more effortful strategies that involve conceptualising the ST meaning beyond what is visible through the ST wording. The creativity/routine profiles in Bayer-Hohenwarter (2012, 211) show that the students' average creativity values hardly change from their first to their fourth semesters.

What could be observed in TransComp over the time span from the students' first semester (novices) to their fourth semester was an increase in their L2 competence, which is reflected in a decrease of comprehension problems. All in all, however, students showed little improvement with regard to the variables focused on in the study. The reason for the apparent stagnation of the observed variables may lie in the fact that the students at the University of Graz participating in the study had been provided only theoretical knowledge on translation during the first four semesters and there has been no occasion to proceduralise the declarative knowledge by practice (Göpferich 2013: 73). Thus the students may have become more aware of the problems (through theory lectures) and the quality of the problems they recognize may have

[11] Referring to the skopos theory of translation, according to which "to translate means to produce a text in a target setting for a target purpose and target addressees in target circumstances" (Vermeer 1987: 29).

changed during the semesters (in accordance with the developmental hypothesis), but problem-solving competence lags behind (due to the lack of practice).

Thus, Göpferich hypothesizes (ibid. 73) that the students' TC as a whole had not stagnated over the years but rather, there may have been a change in the allocation of their cognitive resources that does not yet show in the production output and "**could not therefore be measured using the instruments we applied"** (my emphasis). Further, as Göpferich (ibid.) says, the findings with regard to comprehension problems suggest that the apparent stagnation in the development of TC may be accompanied by a development of language competence, implying that "the acquisition of competences always has to be seen against the background of other competences whose development may accompany the process". She concludes that a more complex strategic subcompetence does not develop until less complex subcompetencies, such as receptive competence in L2 and production competence in L1 have reached a certain threshold value. Thus, the results of TransComp seem to underline the need to look into the hierarchical nature of TC and the importance of establishing the foundation of TC from **the developmental perspective** rather than on the basis of what distinguishes translators from other professionals in communication. However, rather than looking for a certain threshold competence in SL or TL, I would look for a threshold competence in the ability to work **between** languages.

2.4 IN SUMMARY: THE PRESENT STUDY VS. EARLIER LONGITUDINAL STUDIES INTO ATC

The underlying reason for PACTE's and Göpferich's TC models not being applicable for my purposes is their being strongly rooted in the expertise paradigm. These TC models represent the highest level of TC, i.e. translation expertise, and the key question underlying the ATC studies concerns the way students improve with regard to the competences an expert possesses. This approach to ATC is visualized in Figure 5 below.

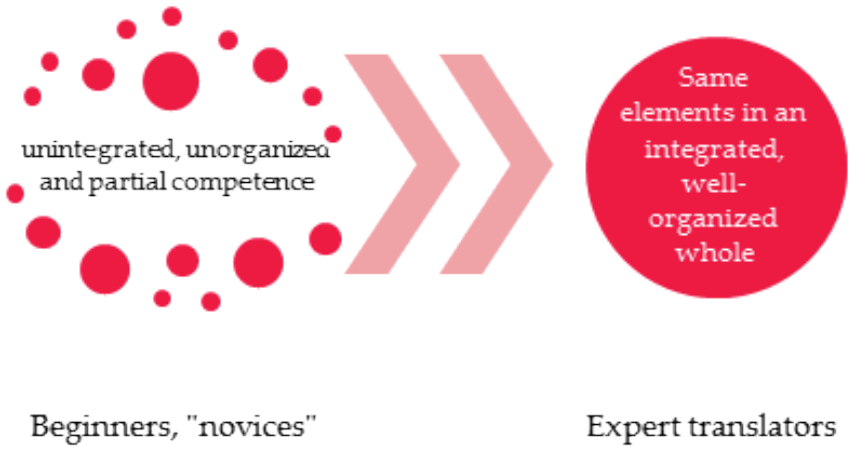

Figure 5. The top-down approach to the ATC.

These ATC studies, then, approach TC from the top level, taking expert subcompetences – strategic competence in particular – as points of interest to be studied with translators with different amount of experience. As suggested by Göpferich above, these expert subcompetences may prove unsuitable for a study of students. Some ten years earlier, Presas (2000: 19) made a similar remark, arguing that "it may well be that not enough attention has been paid to the root of the problems they [novices] experience, nor to the bases of translation competence", and suggesting some features in novices' problem-solving strategies may actually stem from their bilingualism (Presas 2000: 19). The focus on translation as a problem-solving process and an expert profession hides other aspects of translation that may be more relevant in the early stages of acquisition.

The present study approaches translation and TC from the opposite direction: from the grassroot level. It is postulated that any mediation between two different languages is translation, and that each mediation situation requires different skills and knowledge from the mediator in order to be successful; a different kind of competence. While the expert TC models appear to relate TC to professional translation only, the present study sees the concept as pluralistic, determined by the situation and a relevant concept also in less professional translation situations. In a way, this study is an attempt to bring the concept of TC into the nonprofessional translation paradigm[12], too. The acquisition of TC, in turn, is about expanding the scope of translation situations in which one can produce a successful translation. In the grassroot approach, translation is essentially an interlingual operation, also in situations that involve other than linguistic problem-solving. In the simplest situations, a rudimentary ability to work between two languages is sufficient for a successful translation. On the other hand, a complex translation is also an interlingual operation, no matter how much strategic planning and problem-solving it might involve. Therefore, the **interlingual ability** is the variable that can be studied in all translation situations, with participants with different amounts of experience. In this sense, it forms the core of TC. The key question underlying the present study concerns the way students improve with regard to this core of TC. The approach to ATC in this study is visualised in Figure 6 below.

[12] In this paradigm, activities such as crowdsourcing, fansubbing, volunteer translation, child language brokering and informal interpreting as well as interpreting in conflict zones have been taken up as the object of research. See, for example, the special issue of *Linguistica Antverpiensia* (No 10/2011) on community translation, referring to translation done in the Internet by non-professional translators; the Special Issue of *The Translator* (vol. 18, issue 2, 2012) on Non-professional translation and Interpreting; and the special issue of the Finnish journal *Virittäjä* 3/2015.

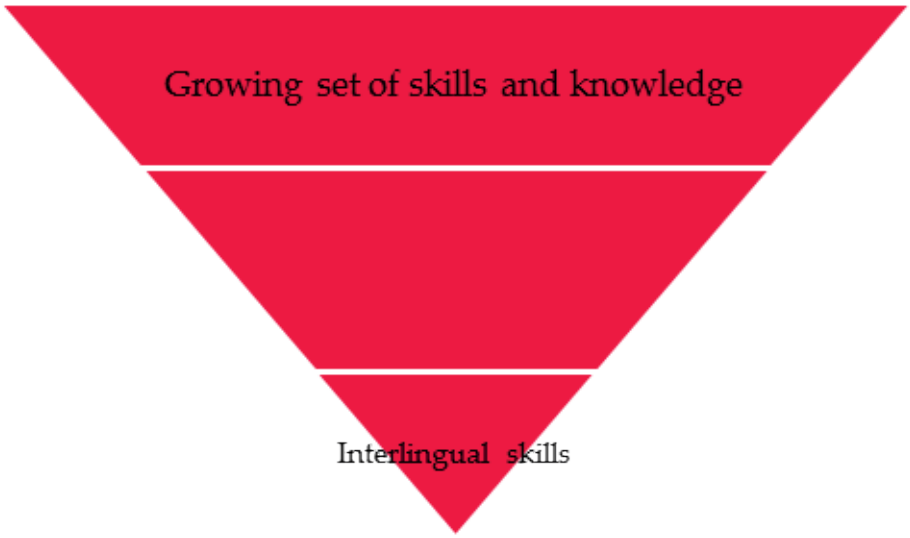

Figure 6. Grassroot approach to ATC.

The development of these interlingual skills is one of the main foci in the early stages of BA-level translator training at the University of Eastern Finland (UEF), which is the institutional setting of the present study. It is assumed that students first need to reformulate their concept of translation from a method to study a foreign language to a communicative activity. Translation exercises carried out in language lessons at school may have influenced the way students conceptualize translation, promoting the mechanical word-for-word procedure rather than translation as intercultural communication. Although the ability to work **between** languages is not explicitly stated as a learning goal in the curriculum, it can be detected in between the lines in learning outcomes such as "a student is to be able to plan and produce texts that conform to the translation brief and linguistic conventions both in Finnish and in English". In addition, the learning outcomes in the basic studies of Finnish language and translation, a compulsory part of BA translator training for all native Finnish speakers, make a more explicit reference to the interlingual ability: "A student can analyse the structure of Finnish and compare it to that of foreign languages". A student can also "observe different nuances" and "explore texts from the language correctness point of view". The emphasis on linguistic aspects in the early training also supports the idea of interlingual ability forming the core of TC.

The different starting points of this study and earlier empirical studies into ATC also give rise to a discussion on the relation between the concepts of TC and translation expertise. Muñoz (2014: 6) points out that as understandings of TC and its implications have been drifting towards those of expertise within cognitive-psychological perspectives, competence is sometimes used as a (near) synonym to expertise (e.g. Ehrensberger-Dow and Massey 2013, Göpferich 2013, PACTE 2003). This approach is understandable when TC is approached from the top; expertise definitely entails competence. However, translation expertise does not equal TC – as Jääskeläinen (2010:

215) and Risku (1998: 90) state, not all professional translators are experts, especially in the context of the requirement for 'consistently superior performance', which defines absolute expertise in an area (Ericsson 2006a: 3, Chi 2006: 22). However, professionals are, in most cases at least, **competent** to do the job they are given. Similarly, translation graduates can be expected to exhibit varying levels of TC but not translation expertise (Shreve 2002: 154). A BA degree in translation at the University of Eastern Finland does not make anyone an expert. Instead, it aims at making one a **competent translator in situations in which translation challenges rise mainly from interlingual differences**.

In nonprofessional translation the difference between the two concepts is even more pronounced; TC required to mediate, for example, the contents of a letter to a friend, is self-evidently far from translation expertise. Hence, in the present study the concepts are clearly distinguished. TC is defined in terms of skills and knowledge that are needed to come up with a translation that meets the demands in the situation, while **expertise is not a situation-bound concept** but rather, a theoretical construct describing features in an ideal, efficient translation performance in professional translation. Since this study does not focus on the development of expertise but of competence, process features such as translation speed, fluency or automaticity are not the points of interest. Although strategic behaviour is a feature of expertise, a less strategic and a more complex and hesitant process may result in a translation that fills its communicative needs in some translation situations.

Finally, in the studies using expert TC models, ATC is conceptualized as a result of a proceduralization process in which declarative knowledge turns into procedural knowledge (Anderson 1983). This view definitely holds true for example in the context of training which entails input of declarative knowledge mixed with practise. In the nonprofessional paradigm, however, translation is not about putting declarative knowledge (in the sense of Anderson 1983) of translation into practice, since the knowledge of "everyday translators" is probably most often not declarative by definition but rather, their practise is based on their experiences of what translation might be and on their implicit understanding of the practise. In fact, it has been suggested that the expert level, too, would be better characterized by a typology of knowledge that explicitly acknowledges a more varied knowledge base than the traditional dichotomy (Bereiter 2002). In Bereiter's typology of knowledge (2002), an expert in any domain is likely to possess six types of knowledge, each aspect contributing to the expertise. In other words, not all knowledge needed to translate comes in the declarative form. This study adopts Bereiter's view since it seems better suited to explain the nature of TC as a situation-based competence. Bereiter's typology is introduced in more detail in Section 3.

For the reasons discussed in this section, the models used as the theoretical framework of earlier empirical studies into ATC are not applicable in this study. A model capable of capturing the TC from the grassroot level to the top is needed. This study suggests a situation-based TC model for such purpose. This bottom-up model approaches TC from the hierarchical perspective, considering the interlingual aspects to form the base of ATC. The following chapter will introduce theoretical approaches to translation and (A)TC that together lay the foundation of the new TC model.

3 Theoretical foundations

While the number of empirical studies focusing on the development of TC remains small, theoretical views on TC and ATC are more numerous. As Kelly (2005: 31–32) points out, TC can be modelled for different purposes and from different viewpoints. This section will look into different accounts, discussing their contribution as the building blocks of the new model. Some of the approaches comprise a complete model of (A)TC while others are more general considerations on the nature of translation, TC and ATC.

First, the approach to translation adopted in this study will be anchored in the existing approaches to the practice within translation studies. Then, due to this study's focus on the early stages of ATC and the assumed key role of interlingual skills as the base of TC, it is worthwhile to explore what has been theorized about TC as a linguistic competence. The concepts of **bilingualism**, **transfer competence**, **natural translation** and **interlingual competence** will be reviewed. Following this, views on translation and TC as **situation-dependent and levelled** constructs will be discussed. In one subsection, the role of extra-linguistic aspects in the accounts of TC will be revisited. Finally, the cognitive nature of knowledge is discussed and **Bereiter's typology of knowledge** (2002) is introduced in more detail since it seems more applicable to explain the nature of knowledge underlying TC in various translation situations than the traditional dichotomy into declarative and procedural knowledge. The theoretical considerations discussed in this section form the foundation of situation-based TC model, which will be visualized and accounted for in Chapter 4.

3.1 TRANSLATION: A SOCIO-CULTURAL ACT WITH A LINGUISTIC CORE

This study defines translation as essentially, but not solely, a linguistic activity. This approach is similar to that of translation scholars taking a systemic-functional approach[13] to the phenomenon of translation. Hatim and Mason (1990: 3, my emphasis) define translation broadly as "a communicative process that takes place **within a social context**", thus pointing to an essential aspect of the present study: that translation and quality expectations for translation vary in different situations. In House's (2015: 2) more explicit terms, translation can be defined "as (the result of) a linguistic-textual operation in which a text in one language is re-contextualized in another language". This operation is substantially influenced by a variety of extra-linguistic factors and conditions. According to House (2015: 3), then, while translation is not only a linguistic act, it certainly has a linguistic core. House (2000: 81) further defines translation

[13] The approaches are based on systemic-functional linguistics (SFL) (e.g. Halliday 1978), which focuses on language in use in different social contexts. In translation studies, this approach has been taken, for example, by Baker (1992/2011), Hatim and Mason (1990) and House (e.g. 1977, 1997, 2000, 2015).

as a cross-linguistic socio-cultural practice, arguing that the linguistic form of the translated message is dependent on the **context of situation.** Following the systemic-functional framework**, context of situation** refers to the **participants** in the situation and their relations and purposes; the **topic**, the **content** or the **subject matter** of the text; and the **channel of communication** (e.g. written or spoken, written to be spoken) (House 2015: 64). From the systemic-functional perspective, then, translation is a specific type of language use, the nature of which is strongly influenced by the context of situation: translation as a linguistic act has a different character in different social settings. Conceptualizing translation in this way – as an essentially linguistic activity with no fixed set of linguistic standards – paves way to the situation-based TC model designed within this study.

3.2 TC AS LINGUISTIC COMPETENCE

3.2.1 TC as a tripartite competence

As Shreve (2012: 1) points out, most attempts at partitioning TC assume that 'knowing how to translate' means **at least** having L1 and L2 linguistic knowledge, i.e. being bilingual. The earliest, language-bound notions of TC typically conceptualize TC as a summation of three competences: for example Wilss (1976: 120) defines TC as 1) SL receptive competence, i.e. ability to understand and "decode" the SL text, 2) TL productive competence, i.e. mastery of TL linguistic and textual resources, and 3) a kind of 'super-competence', i.e. the ability to transfer the message from the SL language system into the TL language system. Koller (1979: 40), in turn, views TC simply as the ability to put together the linguistic competences gained in two languages. For Hatim and Mason (1997: 205), TC comprises source text processing skills, transfer skills, and target text processing skills. Campbell (1998), aiming to come up with the definition of TC for inverse translation in particular, identified three components in the TC: 1) TL textual competence, 2) monitoring competence (the degree of awareness of the quality of the input and the effectiveness of editing strategies), and 3) disposition (e.g. risk-taking and persistence). Campbell's approach is interesting in that SL competence is not mentioned at all, and in that he sees disposition as competence, unlike many researchers before or after him. Gradually, the need arose to make extra-linguistic aspects of TC explicit. However, the elements mentioned by Wilss (1976) were not substituted but rather, new elements were added to the conceptualization of TC.

Roberts (1984: 172, in Kelly 2005: 28-29) adds methodological competence (i.e. information search), disciplinary competence (ability to work with special field texts) and technical competence (ability to use different translation aids). Interestingly, Roberts's (ibid.) equivalent to Wilss's transfer competence was called translational competence. Nord (1991: 235), too, mentioned linguistic competence, the competences of text reception and analysis and of text production, and transfer competence, adding research competence, competence of translation quality management, and cultural competence. For Hurtado Albir (1996: 34, in Kelly 2005: 30), TC comprises of linguistic competence in two languages, extra-linguistic competence, analysis and synthesis, 'translational competence' and professional competence. The early version of PACTE's

TC model also entails the elements of communicative competence in two languages and of transfer competence, in addition to extra-linguistic, instrumental-professional, psycho-physiological and strategic competences (PACTE 2000: 101–102).

All of the above suggests translation is linguistically a tripartite competence (with additional competences). Basically, one is to possess communicative competence in both working languages and some kind of a transfer competence to carry the meaning of the ST over to the TT. In effect, this is one way to define the core TC, i.e. the linguistic skills needed in translation; one is to possess **sufficient** communicative competence in both working languages as well as transfer competence to be able to work between languages. In some translation situations, rudimentary communicative competence in two languages may be sufficient to meet the communicative needs, whereas in complex situations, a translator needs to be a highly skilled language user. The notion of transfer competence seems to encapsulate what Chesterman (1998: 39) describes as the difference between bilingual (or communicative) competence and translation competence. The latter is about mediating linguistically **between** two languages and cultures rather than **in** two languages and cultures. Transfer competence, then, is the specifically translation-related linguistic competence and as such, lies at the core of BA-level translator training. It is therefore the point of interest in the present study. The concept will be explored in more detail in the next subsection.

3.2.2 TC as transfer competence

Beeby (2000: 186–187) offers a TC model of inverse translation that strongly emphasizes translators' ability to work between two languages: she does mention extra-linguistic competences but the remaining three required competences are transfer competence, contrastive linguistic competence as well as contrastive discourse competence. Contrastive linguistic competence includes knowledge of typographical as well as lexical and syntactic differences between the SL and the TL, awareness of the limitations of dictionaries and the ability to solve lexical as well as syntactic polysemy from textual context. Contrastive discourse competence consists of the "knowledge of text type and genre differences between languages, awareness of the relationship between context and register" and finally, "knowledge of differences in textual coherence and cohesion between the SL and the TL". To me, these contrastive competences seem to describe the working of transfer competence rather than be distinct from it. What is essentially different between Beeby and others mentioned in the previous section is that Beeby seems to define TC as an **essentially** interlingual (transfer) competence rather than a combination of bilingual skills and transfer competence. Neubert (2000: 6) states that "transfer competence is the distinguishing domain of a translator… transfer skills integrate language, text, subject, and culture knowledge with the sole aim of satisfying transfer needs."

Anthony Pym (2013: 490) also conceptualizes these 'transfer skills' as "the set of skills that actually enable a person to produce a translation". Pym calls for the definition of the purely translational skill; the skill that is needed for delivering messages from one language to another; the skill that does not alter along with time, technological changes or developments in the profession, and "a concept that might define translating and nothing but translating" (Pym 2003: 490). According to his own minimalist view, this concept could be defined as follows:

> the ability to generate a series of more than one viable target text for a pertinent source text, and the ability to select only one viable TT from this series, quickly and with justified confidence.
> (Pym 1991, 2003: 489)

Pym, then, conceptualizes TC as essentially a text production skill, adding that the same ST may be translated in various ways and the competent translator knows which translation is viable in which situation. The definition holds for a professional translator, of course; in the nonprofessional sphere, the definition could be reduced to "the ability to produce one viable target text for a pertinent source text" since in the simplest translation situations the notions of translation speed and confidence are less relevant. Similarly, the ability to produce "more than one viable TT for a pertinent ST" can be viewed as the ability required of a person who can deal with a wide range of translation situations while in a single translation situation in an everyday setting this ability is not necessary. In essence, however, Pym's TC also provides a working definition of (the advanced level of) transfer competence, although he does not refer to TC specifically as such.

Malmkjær (2009: 132) is more explicit, stating that transfer competence should, in fact, be renamed as TC. She (2009: 125) asks whether the various components and subcompetences listed in the accounts of TC really are parts of TC, arguing that they might be better placed in lists of more general competences. In her view, they could be regarded as **prerequisites** to translation, or desirable states which may enhance translation, but they do not make a translator – with the exception of the notion of transfer competence. Malmkjær (ibid., my emphasis) defines transfer competence as:

1) the knowledge of the translational relationships between the languages that allows translators to match languages appropriately when translating, **as distinct from their ability to use their languages individually;**
2) an unconscious mental state reached through a process of cognitive development.

The first part of the definition makes it explicit that transfer competence entails both knowledge and performance; it is not only knowledge about translational relationships but also practical skill to use that knowledge for translating. As Malmkjær (ibid.) points out, transfer competence can be considered as something every adult translator has, i.e. it defines the linguistic competence of a professional translator. She also discusses the development of this competence, assuming that it develops against the background of interaction between the initial state and relevant input. This initial state, according to her (Malmkjær 2009: 125–126), would include two or more languages **in whatever measure**, and the input data would need to be translational: seeing translation, doing translation, and receiving feedback on translation. The process towards transfer competence is, in essence, about **refining one's skill to work in between the languages within the limits of one's language competence, starting from the very rudimentary skill to mediate between the two languages**. These views lay the foundation of the TC model designed for the purpose of this study. When TC is approached from the linguistic point of view – which seems to be

a reasonable approach when the study focuses on BA students of translation – the old notion of transfer competence, suppressed or hidden in the TC model emerging from the expertise paradigm, becomes central again.

While Malmkjær regards the initial stage in which a person possesses some level of language skills in two languages as the starting point **towards** transfer competence, I regard it as the most rudimentary level of transfer competence. The difference in the line of thinking can be explained by different conceptualizations of translation: Malmkjær approaches it as a profession, whereas I approach it as any mediation activity carried out between two languages. Consequently, translation (or transfer) competence is clearly a levelled concept for me: different translation situations set different demands for a successful communication, and TC is defined as the ability to meet those demands. The description of what I regard as the rudimentary level of transfer competence is provided by Brian Harris, (one of) the first scholars who considered everyday mediation practices between two languages as a form of translation. He introduced the notion of natural translation, which will be discussed in the following section, along with later views sharing Harris's assumptions.

3.2.3 Natural translation competence

Forty years ago, Brian Harris proclaimed that "all bilinguals can translate" (Harris 1977), explaining that "in addition to some competence in two languages, they all possess a third competence, that of translating within the limits of the mastery of the two languages" (ibid., also Harris and Sherwood 1978: 155). Harris (1977) introduced the term **natural translation,** defining it as "the translation done by bilinguals in everyday circumstances without special training for it". What counts in natural translation is transmission of information, and "linguistic expression is relatively unimportant so long as it does not interfere with information" (Harris 1977). In other words, linguistic quality is not definitive of natural translation skill as long as the message gets through.

This view of translation as an innate skill was largely based on the notion that children of bilingual families tend to translate naturally between their two languages. Harris and Sherwood (1978) set out to study this skill of all bilinguals and attempted to trace the stages in the acquisition of natural translation competence in children between 0 and 18 years of age. The outcome of their study is not, of course, an acquisition model of TC, but rather a description of differences in the natural translation ability of children with different level of bilingual competence.

Natural translation competence considered as a coextensive with bilingualism (Harris and Sherwood 1978) has been interpreted as a claim that translation ability coexists with bilingual ability to the extent that increased linguistic competence automatically leads to an increased TC (Englund-Dimitrova 2005: 12). As pointed out, for example, by Lesznyak[14] (2007: 175), Harris never claimed that natural translation au-

[14] Lesznyak's (2008) PhD study looks into the development of natural translation competence with Hungarian schoolchildren (grades 7–11) who learn English. She sought to find evidence that natural translation competence exists, to prove that this competence develops as communicative competence grows and to identify background variables, which influence the development and the functioning of natural translation competence.

tomatically develops into professional competence, or that stages in the development of natural translation could be applied to professional translation. In his blogpost in 2009 Harris defines natural translators as follows:

> These are people who do translation of a simple kind without having had any training in translation, either formal or informal. They have been observed among very young children, though natural translation (NT) is by no means limited to them. The very young onset age of NT strongly suggests an element of innate capability, though we do not know what form that might take – specifically linguistic or some more general power of conversion. Such translators may be stimulated by real communication needs, as in the case of the immigrant children, called *language brokers*, who translate for their families; or they may translate spontaneously or even just for fun. They perform in everyday circumstances in which they are not out of their depth in what is being said. They have some awareness of what is a 'good' or 'correct' translation, but it's unsophisticated. (Harris 2009)

Harris's views have been reintroduced to translation studies during the recent decade along with the research paradigm focusing on nonprofessional translation. Harris was one of the first scholars to approach translation as a phenomenon rather than a profession. His view of translation as a skill possessed by all bilinguals is adopted in this study, too, to define the competence needed to meet the demands of the simplest translation situations. These situations – translating everyday conversations to the party who does not understand the language, personal letters and postcards, or maybe Facebook postings of foreign friends – require the rudimentary level of transfer competence: translation requires little more than sufficient mastery of the two languages. In practise, most bilinguals can deal with such tasks so that the message comes through. As pointed out by Shreve (1997: 124), the set of knowledge structure in the most rudimentary form of TC may "arise naturally from the development of whatever cognitive structures are associated with bilingualism" (of different levels, my addition). It is to be noted that "bilinguals" in my study refer not only to people born into bilingual families, i.e. "natural bilingualism" (Skutnabb-Kangas 1981) but also to people who have learnt the other language at school, i.e. "school bilingualism" (Skutnabb-Kangas 1981). They, too, can be said to possess the rudimentary TC in the sense of Harris's natural translation.

Lörscher (1994, 2012: 6) also posits that people who master two or more languages, even with various degrees of proficiency, also possess a rudimentary ability to mediate information between the two languages. Lörscher (1994: 41) emphasizes the need to subsume even the most rudimentary kind of mediation between languages under the heading of translation, since this allows a comparison of translation processes in different levels of mediation, i.e. it is of importance from the developmental point of view. He also justifies his view by drawing an analogy between bilingual skills and translation skills: since a perfect command of two languages is rare in any bilingual, bilingualism is necessarily an approximate concept; therefore, translation must be an approximate concept as well. Similarly, the acquisition of bilingual competence, i.e.

transition from an interlanguage[15] to a fully developed second language – as far as this is possible for learners – is a continuum rather than a fixed boundary. By the same token, the transition from TC needed for rudimentary mediation to the TC needed for more demanding mediation tasks forms a continuum. From this acquisition perspective, then, it is reasonable to call all mediation tasks 'translation' in which different levels of competence is needed.

Whyatt (2013: 29) also approaches translation as a phenomenon rather than a professional activity only: translation can be an untrained ability, a trained skill, or a professional action (when the level of competence or expertise is achieved). She suggests an evolutionary model of ATC according to which the evolution of translation skill starts from **natural disposition** to translate (Whyatt 2013: 29). All people that have access to at least two languages are "by nature predisposed to translate (just as they are predisposed to communicate)". Whyatt (2013) offers a comprehensive account of how two languages may be organized in the human mind according to various Second Language Acquisition theories, concluding that from a translation's point of view, the most significant aspect of the bilingual competence of potential translators "is its dynamic nature and constant interaction of the two linguistic systems in one mind."[16] According to Whyatt (2013: 73–74), the difference between translators and other bilinguals lies in the fact that while most bilinguals may blend and mix languages (and, I might add, translate) in their everyday interaction without worrying about interference, translators have to deal with the coexistence of two languages by other means; the first contrastive requirement is that "professional translation places definite demands on keeping the two languages apart and is very much intolerant to cross-linguistic interference." As Séguinot (1997: 117) puts it, "some mechanism is required to suppress unwanted connections [between languages] as well as activate those that are required". From this study's perspective, Whyatt's and Séguinot's views serve to describe the high level of TC, typically expected in the context of professional translation.

Shreve (2012: 1–2) argues that bilingualism and all forms of translations, whether natural translation or professional translation, are necessarily connected at a very fundamental cognitive level, describing bilingualism as the **substrate** for considering all manifestations of translation ability. This is different from describing bilingualism as the subcompetence of translation, underpinning the notion of interlingual competence being, in fact, TC.

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[15] Interlanguage is a term used in the field of second language acquisition to refer to the linguistic system used by a language learner when attempting to express meanings in the language being learnt. The interlanguage is viewed as a separate language system, clearly different from both the learner's native language and the target language that is being learnt. The term originates from American linguist Larry Selinker (Tarone 2006: 747).

[16] This study does not delve deeper into bilingualism and bilingual cognition due to the stance taken in this study that it is **interlingual** rather than bilingual competence that is considered specifically translation-related. For recent developments in studies into the psycholinguistic and neurocognitive aspects of bilingualism, see for example Schwieter (2015), and the journal *Bilingualism: Language and Cognition*.

3.2.4 Translation as an interlingual competence

Toury (2012) acknowledges that the natural translation model proposed by Harris and Sherwood was not defined as an overall account of the development of translation as a human skill but was confined to very young natural translators. However, he is critical of their claim that translation is "an **innate** skill of bilinguals" that emerges automatically from bilingualism. He believes it is far-fetched to assume that all bilingual speakers, by virtue of their bilingualism only, would indeed activate this innate competence, irrespective of anything else, and perform, for example, pre-translation and/or autotranslation (Toury 2012: 282) – types of natural translation of young children according to Harris and Sherwood (1978) – without any additional factors to trigger the action. Therefore Toury (2012: 281) regards the innateness hypothesis as an unwarranted oversimplification, failing to answer the question of what it is that brings forth the unfolding of that skill and the way it then develops.

According to Toury, then, it is the **predisposition** for translating that can be deemed "coextensive with bilingualism" (Toury 1995: 282–83). In Lörscher's words (2012: 6), Toury regards bilingualism to be a "**necessary**, but not **sufficient** condition for the development of TC". However, considering what Harris and Sherwood in fact mean by 'innate', their views do not seem to be so different after all. According to Harris and Sherwood (1978), the term innate has a double meaning in developmental psycholinguistics, and in its weak sense it "means a **specialized predisposition** in children to learn how to speak from the language they hear in their environment". It is this weak sense the authors adapt to translatology[17], offering a list of features that are required in order for this predisposition to materialize as a natural translation skill in children (ibid.). Hence, to me it seems that Harris and Toury in fact agree on the view that it is the **predisposition** for translating that can be deemed coextensive with bilingualism. Englund-Dimitrova (2005: 10–13) calls this predisposition **translation ability.** According to her**,** a person with knowledge of the source and target languages has a basic translation **ability** "simply as a consequence of knowing more than one language". Shreve (1997: 125) also thinks that translation ability should be viewed in "a kind of evolutionary space" where the starting point is indeed the natural ability of bilinguals to translate.

Toury does, however, go one step further, suggesting that this predisposition in itself does not necessarily show in translation performance. Whether the predisposition is realized in the performance or not – whether it emerges as a **skill** – should be taken as "coextensive with the ability to establish similarities and differences across languages, which may be termed 'interlingualism'" (ibid. 283). As early as in 1984 Toury (1984: 189, quoted in Malmkjær 2008: 302–303) proposed that

> the ability to translate presupposes the existence of two other, more basic abilities, namely the ability a) to acquire more than one language, and b) to establish similarities and differences, on more than one level, between items and structures, if not full utterances, pertinent to the languages that one has actually acquired.

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[17] The term Harris and Sherwood (1978) use for the scientific study of translating.

Toury (ibid.) calls the second ability **interlingual competence**. The second aspect of the definition is similar to the definition of transfer competence by Malmkjær (2009: 125; see section 3.1.2); to me, the two concepts seem synonymous. Malmkjær (2008: 303) prefers **interlingual proficiency potential** to interlingual competence, defining it as "the ability to produce informed comparisons between languages", since

> not every bilingual, although they may be able to tell you how to say x in language B where it is appropriate to say y in language A, is able to pinpoint the similarities and differences between the expressions.

Presas (2000: 27) is also of the opinion that TC acquisition is about reorientation of bilingual competence into interlingual competence. The ability to analyse languages for their differences is also mentioned by Ingo (1990: 29–30, my translation) who claims that "a translator must have a clear understanding of the structural differences between languages".

Pym (1992) introduced the metaphor of a translator working in an intercultural space in which she is influenced by both the source and the target cultures – and by obvious analogy, both source and target languages. Kujamäki (2013: 357, my translation) defines translation as "problem-solving that is based on contrasting"; contrasting of cultures, source and target readers, function of the ST and TT, and, as a linguistic procedure, contrasting the working languages and their potential. In a translation situation, a SL text meets TL resources as they exist in the translator's mind. As Toury (1979: 224) notes, translation is one of the most common situations in which two languages are in contact with each other and in which one language unavoidably affects the production of another language. This idea of a translator working in between two cultures and languages, in an **interspace** with (at least) two languages constantly in contact in her mind supports the argument that as a linguistic procedure translation has an interlingual character[18].

3.2.5 In summary: Building blocks from the linguistic approaches to TC

In the light of the discussion above, bilingual competence – or different levels of competence in two languages – is a self-evident resource needed for TC to start developing rather than a subcompetence in TC as such. Obviously, no kind of translation can be carried out without any competence in two languages; the very definition of 'translation' as a mediation between **two languages** makes that explicit. In other words, languages are the raw material with which translators work, as Baker (1992: 4) puts it. However, knowing two languages – the material – is one thing; working between the two languages is another. It is the latter that defines translation as a linguistic activity and forms the core of TC in the new model. The core is named, as suggested by Toury, interlingual competence. This interlingual competence comprises the specifically translation-related linguistic skills. Figure 7 below illustrates the re-

[18] Similarly, following the idea of an interspace, the cultural knowledge of a translator has an intercultural character (see Tomozeiu and Kumpulainen 2016).

lation between language competence and translation as a linguistic competence, i.e. interlingual competence.

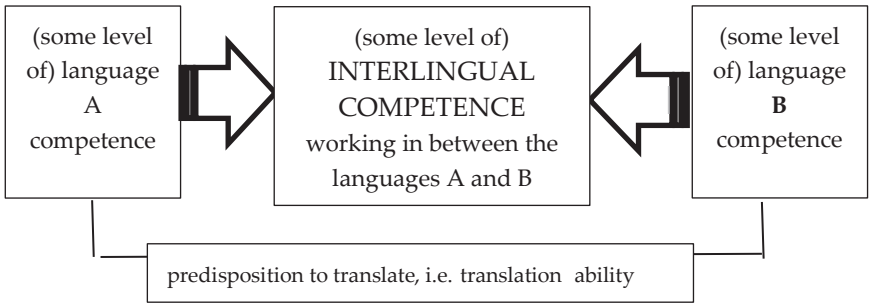

Figure 7. The relation between language competence and interlingual competence.

Figure 7 suggests that some level of language competence in languages A and B is coextensive with predisposition to translate. This predisposition may materialize as interlingual competence in mediation situations. However, the level of competence in languages A and B does not determine the level of interlingual competence: one may be highly competent in both languages but show a low level of interlingual competence. In simple terms: mastery of two languages does not equal to mastery of translation. On the other hand, one may show a high level of interlingual competence with only limited competence in working languages, i.e. one may be very good at working between the languages even with limited language competence. Naturally, one's language competence sets certain limits to the range of situations in which one can make use of one's interlingual competence.

The arguments presented in this section seem to support the idea of TC having an interlingual core. The following section introduces approaches to TC as a situation-dependent construct, paving the way for my attempt to anchor the concept of competence to all types of translation activity, not merely professional practice.

3.3 TRANSLATION AND TC AS SITUATION-DEPENDENT CONSTRUCTS

In earlier studies into ATC, translation is approached as a professional practice and TC as the set of competences an expert translator is to possess. In the present study, the concept of TC is extended to the non-professional paradigm, too. One way to do this is to conceptualize TC as a situation-dependent construct. In the present study, TC is defined in relation to the translation situation, not against the standards of professional translation. The theoretical premise for this approach is introduced in the following subsections.

3.3.1 TC as situation-dependent manifestation of translation ability

Neubert and Shreve (1992: 5) state that "translation is an intersection of situation, translator competence, source text, and target text-to-be"; therefore, "we cannot generalize about translation without speaking of specific texts embedded in specific situations". What we can do, however, is judge how the translator has responded to the demands of the translation situation (Neubert and Shreve 1992: 7). TC required of the translator, then, can be evaluated **on the basis of the demands set by the translation situation.** In mundane domestic settings the rudimentary (i.e. natural) translation of bilinguals is perfectly consistent with and adequate for the communicative needs it is meant to fulfil (Shreve 1997: 124) and hence defines TC in that specific situation. However, in a more complex, norm-governed professional translation situation placing more demands also on the linguistic quality of the TT, rudimentary translation cannot meet the demands set by the situation.

Shreve (1997: 123) suggests that along with the classification of different general contexts of translation, it is also possible to identify corresponding clusters of **translation abilities**. As suggested by Englund-Dimitrova (2005), one can be said to possess a basic translation ability simply by virtue of knowing two languages; should the need arise, one is able to produce a rudimentary translation between the two languages. Translator training, for example, "can develop the initial ability to translate in ways that are different than the forms of translation one started with" (Shreve 1997: 124). In the simplest tasks, sets of abilities needed to translate arise naturally from bilingualism, whereas in more complex tasks the set of translation abilities needed **cannot** develop from mere bilingualism but other cognitive structures must have developed (Shreve 1997: 124–125). Consequently, then, particular clusters of translation products reflect particular social structures and communicative needs, and "linguistic forms produced in translation can be related to specific configurations of translation task conditions" (ibid.). These complex tasks are referred to as **constructed translation** (professional translation), and the mark of such translation includes the "ability to shift translation forms and produce different kinds of linguistic forms (translation products) called for by different circumstances" (ibid.).

Shreve (1997: 125–126) proposes that the evolution of translator competence is about widening the range of situations in which one can produce a translation that fulfils its communicative needs. He chooses to illustrate this with a three-dimensional polygon with infinite volume to emphasize that there is no end state for translation ability. There are clusters of translating abilities in this evolutionary space, representing "translation form-function combinations typical of individuals with a certain history and range of professional experience and situations" (ibid.). Shreve's illustration is shown in Figure 8 below.

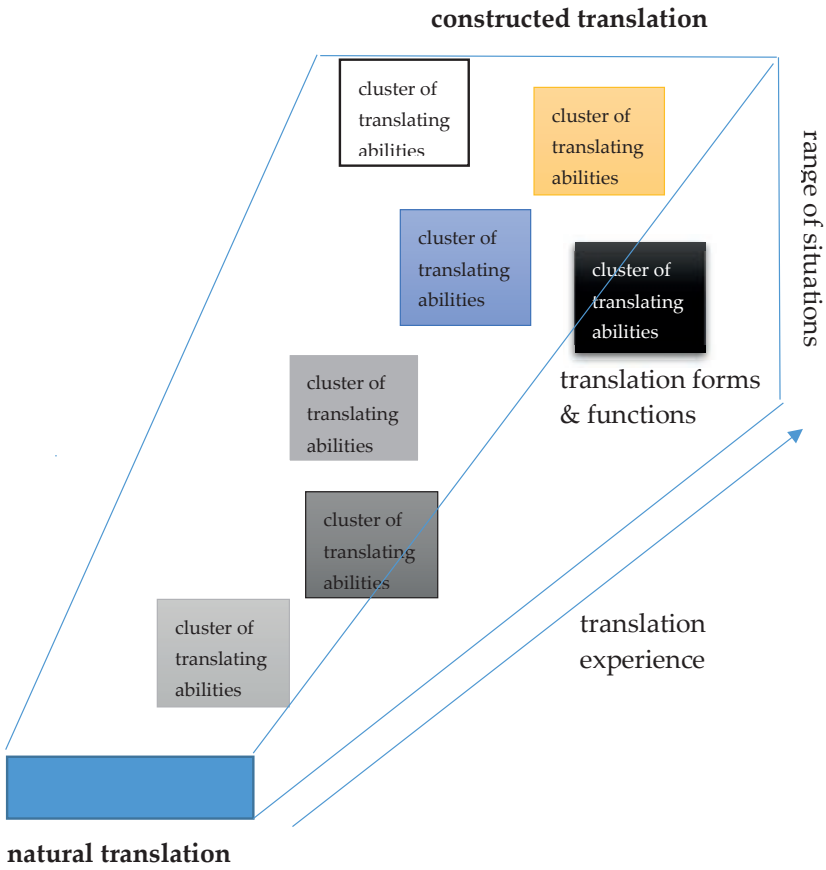

Figure 8. The evolution of translator competence depicted by Shreve (adapted from Shreve 1997: 126).

As Figure 8 suggests, TC at the most rudimentary level – that of natural translation – is the ability to produce translations in a limited range of situations. Different situations demand different clusters of translating abilities with a different cognitive knowledge structure; hence the different colour codes in Figure 8. A translator with a varied sets of translating abilities can produce various forms of translations for various functions; therefore, she is better equipped to work as a professional translator. Shreve (1997: 128) argues that one's sets of translating abilities are results of one's experience in translation and the course of acquisition of that experience. By undergoing certain kinds of deliberately sought out communicative experiences, one develops the ability to carry out constructed translation typically expected in various professional translation situations (Shreve 1997: 125). Therefore, exposure to a wide range of translation situations is vital for any aspiring translator; obviously, it is vital at least in translator training, the specific purpose of which is prepare students for constructed translation. Toury (2012: 288) in fact proposes the following developmental hypothesis:

> The greater the variety of situations one is put into – and hence the greater the variety of different, even though certainly partly overlapping translational norms one is exposed to – the greater the range and flexibility of one's ultimate ability to perform in a socially accepted manner.

I believe this situation-driven approach to TC is well suited to approach TC acquisition in a training context: ATC is not about learning to translate, but rather, widening the scope of contexts in which one can translate. As Pym (2009) states, "we train people not just to translate, **which they can already do**, but to translate *well*, perhaps for a specific purpose, market or technological environment."

The idea that situation determines competence is also supported by systemic-functional approaches to translation **quality** and its assessment. The concepts of quality and competence are obviously related: in the expertise views to competence, a competent translator produces **high** quality, whereas in the present grassroot approach to TC, a competent translator is the one who produces **sufficient** quality in a given translation situation. House's model of translation quality assessment (1977, 1997), for example, is based on the analysis of ST textual features for their functions in a specific **context of situation**. In House's (2015: 63) words,

> opening up the text with these (situational) dimensions yields a specific textual profile which characterizes its function, which is then taken as the individual textual norm against which the translation is measured. The degree to which the textual profile and the function of the translation match the profile and function of the original is the degree to which translation is adequate in quality.

While the idea of "matching textual profiles" as the measurement of quality does not align with my definition of TC, the idea of situational dimensions determining the linguistic choices in a text is appealing. Situational dimensions also determine the competences expected of a translator in a given translation situation, the level of interlingual skills included.

3.3.2 TC as a levelled concept

The idea of a situation determining the TC needed is one aspect of Hanna Risku's (1998) TC model that can be taken as the first model in which the concept of competence is linked with translation as a phenomenon and not only with professional translation. Her model is based on cognitive science and the action theory of translation (especially Holz-Mänttäri 1984). The focus of the model is on the social reality of the translation situation and on the translator's ability to handle this situation. Language mediation carried out in a nonprofessional setting is also considered as translation that requires a certain type of competence; in Risku's model, the 1st level of TC is called **lay competence** and described as "the ability to translate amateurishly in simple everyday situations" (Cnyrim et al. 2013: Appendix). This situation-dependency in the determination of TC is a key notion for my new model.

However, Risku's cognitive approach cannot provide concrete tools for a linguistically oriented study such as the present one. She conceptualizes TC as a translator's

ability to carry out translation-specific cognitive actions in a translation situation (Risku 1998: 129). According to her model, translators with different amount of experience can be differentiated in terms of five relevant cognitive skills of a translator, which are 1) guiding images of translation, 2) macro strategy formation, 3) information integration, 4) planning and decisions and 5) self-organization (Risku 1998). TC is depicted as a **levelled concept,** comprising five levels: 1) **lay competence**, 2) **basic functional competence***, 3***) conceptual and procedural competence,** *4)* **multidimensional competence** and finally, 5) **autonomous and progressive competence** (expert level). Each of the levels show different characteristics in the performance of translators with regard to the five cognitive skills. For example, guiding image related to lay competence are often implicit, unexamined and language-oriented (Risku 1998: 139–141), whereas on the level of multidimensional competence translators can switch between different images confidently, flexibly and creatively as the various situations demand (Risku 1998: 140–141).[19]

Risku's view contributes to the new model in its acknowledgment that TC is not a static construct but can be defined as the ability to handle a specific translation situation; sometimes lay competence suffices, in other situations more advanced competence is needed. The more advanced the TC, the more translation situations one is capable of handling.

3.4 EXTRA-LINGUISTIC ELEMENTS OF TC

Defining translation as essentially an interlingual competence does not exclude the importance of extra-linguistic knowledge needed in translation. The more complex the translation situation, the more extra-linguistic knowledge is needed in TT production to meet the expectations set by the situation. Various extra-linguistic elements started to emerge to complement the earlier language-bound views on TC from the 1980s onwards: information search, subject area and world knowledge, use of translation aids and tools and cultural knowledge were mentioned in various theoretical views on TC, although different terms were used to refer to them (e.g. Delisle 1980, Roberts 1984, Nord 1991, Gile 1995, Neubert 2000). The same extra-linguistic elements have made their way to PACTE's and Göpferich's models, too, although not all of them are considered as specifically translation-related competences (see section 2.3). The most detailed account of extra-linguistic competences of a translator is provided by the EMT[20] expert group (Gambier 2009). They emphasize the competences needed for translation service provision in particular but include information mining, the-

[19] Risku herself focused on the first and fourth level of TC, providing detailed descriptions of how translators on different levels of TC act in terms of the five cognitive dimensions. Fifteen years later, Cnyrim et al. (2013: 9–29) developed Risku's ideas further into a developmental model to be used as a framework of reference for establishing learning goals and curricula for BA and MA programmes. They provide a detailed description of translator's actions on the three levels that were unattended in Risku's original work.

[20] European Master's in Translation, an EU-driven project to create a quality label in translator training across the EU.

matic, intercultural and technological competences in their model as well. Language competence also has a role in EMT account but it is specified to less detail than extra-linguistic competences and no specific reference is made to interlingual issues.

Interestingly enough, theoretical knowledge about translation is explicitly mentioned as an element of TC only in recent accounts of TC. PACTE (2003, 2005, 2014) defines it as declarative knowledge about how translation functions (types of translation units, processes required, strategies and techniques, problem types etc.). PACTE (2014) regards knowledge about translation as one of the specifically translation-related subcompetences in the overall TC model and takes it as one of the subcompetences to be studied in ATC studies. In that specific study, the development of 'knowledge of translation' is measured with the help of a set of questions indicating either a dynamic (i.e. textual, interpretative, communicative and functional) concept of translation or a static (i.e. linguistic and literal) concept of translation (PACTE 2014: 98).

In Göpferich's model (2009), a translator's self-concept is one of the three factors determining the employment of subcompetences in translation (see Figure 4). A translator's self-concept is influenced by the topics covered and methods employed in translator training (Göpferich 2009: 22) and refers to the way a translator sees her role and the role of translation in society. In effect, it is "knowledge about translation". Translator's self-concept is not, however, studied in the TransComp project, although the importance of theoretical knowledge as the contributor to the overall TC is later acknowledged by Göpferich (2013).

Of purely theoretical approaches to TC, Cnyrim et al. (2013: 29), who extrapolate Risku's (1998) TC model, make the theoretical component of TC explicit by explaining the levels of 'competence in translation studies' in parallel with each of Risku's five levels of TC. Cnyrim et al.'s model is specifically designed as a basis for discussing and reflecting on translation studies programmes (Cnyrim et al 2013: 13), and the emphasis on theoretical studies is to emphasize the role of training in the emergence of TC to cope with a wide range of translation situations. In practice, in many translator training programmes the initial steps towards TC involve introductory courses to translation studies with the aim to develop students' understanding of translation as a multifaceted phenomenon (see e.g. Schäffner 2000: 148–149).

There seems to be a common agreement in translation studies that a translator needs special-field knowledge and has to be able to search for information and use different translation tools. In addition, the need for (inter)cultural knowledge and world knowledge in general has been commonly recognized, and recently the importance of theoretical knowledge about translation is also established, as discussed above. In principle, the list of extra-linguistic knowledge a translator needs could be limitless. Pym (2003: 490) is critical of the aspiration to include absolutely everything to a model of TC that a practising translator might possibly need in their daily work, since a model based on such a principle would be in a constant change along with the changing profession. According to Pym (ibid.), such views have (at least partly) arisen out of the need of the translation studies to differentiate from linguistics and thus justify its existence as an independent discipline – hence the ever growing list of additional competences required of a translator. In other words, while acknowledging that these competences are essential in translation, he does not believe they define the **essentially translational**

competence of a translator. This is also the stance taken in the present study: different types of extra-linguistic knowledge are needed in many translation situations to **enable** interlingual TT production to a satisfactory level. All extra-linguistic elements represented in PACTE's and Göpferich's models also play a role in the new model but it is conceptualized differently, as will be explained in Chapter 4.

3.5 TC AS KNOWLEDGE

Knowledge can be approached from different viewpoints: on one hand, it can be depicted as **types** of knowledge that must be learnt for success on complex cognitive tasks in a domain (Mayer 2009: 205), i.e. factual knowledge, procedural knowledge, conceptual knowledge, strategic knowledge and attitudinal knowledge. In short, to become an expert one must know the facts, procedures, concepts, strategies and beliefs that are relevant in the domain. It is, in fact, what various TC models mainly seek to depict. Approaching expert knowledge in this way is to seek the answer to the question ***what* does the expert know, what are the contents of knowledge.** Another relevant question in a study touching upon **acquisition** of competence is **how is knowledge organized in the mind; how does the knowledge come about?** In seeking an answer to this question, knowledge is approached from the cognitive point of view, as a property of human minds (Bereiter 2002: 131). This view is related to the knowledge acquisition process, the way knowledge is "stored" in the human mind, the way it can be accessed and retrieved and how it is acquired.

In studies into (A)TC from the expertise perspective the nature of knowledge from the latter point of view is discussed to some detail only by PACTE (e.g. 2000, 2002, 2005) who adopt the traditional dichotomy of declarative and procedural knowledge as the cognitive base of TC (see 2.3.1). As argued earlier, my approach to translation as a phenomenon and to ATC as the ability to deal with an ever-growing range of translation situations seems to call for a more refined typology of knowledge than the traditional dichotomy. The concept of declarative knowledge in particular seems too restricted to capture the knowledge underpinning TC as it is conceptualized in the present study. In this subsection, I will discuss an alternative approach to the nature of knowledge underlying TC, suggesting Bereiter's typology of knowledge (2002) as the knowledge base underlying TC and its acquisition.

Bereiter, an educational psychologist who has looked, among other things, into the specifics of writing expertise, distinguishes six different types of knowledge: **statable**, **episodic**, **impressionistic**, and **regulative knowledge**, **skill**, and **implicit understanding**. He justifies this by claiming that each of these types deserves special attention from the learning perspective. They either need to be treated differently for optimal learning to occur, or pointed out in order not to be neglected in the learning process altogether, or in Bereiter's (2002: 135) words, "lest it get lost among more conspicuous and high-status kinds of knowledge". The latter notion is of utmost importance: it seems to me that the role of **tacit knowledge** has been largely ignored in the existing TC models. Tacit knowledge is a term that was introduced by Polanyi (1966) who defined it as

> personal knowledge that is hard to formalize and to communicate or share with others; subjective insights, intuitions and hunches typically fall into this category of knowledge. Tacit knowledge is deeply rooted in individuals' actions and experience as well as in the ideals, values, or emotions he or she embraces[21].

In the next subsections, each of Bereiter's six kinds of knowledge, "aspects of knowledgeability" as he calls them (Bereiter 2002: 131), will be introduced and discussed from the TC learning perspective.

3.5.1 Statable knowledge

Statable knowledge is knowledge that can be put into some explicit form and can be conveyed, argued about, compared with alternatives, and evaluated by others. Statable knowledge corresponds partly to declarative knowledge, but avoids stretching the statability too far, excluding the unarticulated, largely unconscious knowledge that by cognitive theorists as well as by translation scholars has often been put under the "declarative" umbrella (e.g. Anderson 1983, PACTE 2009). Statable knowledge is at the heart of formal education, and as Bereiter suggests, influences all other aspects of knowledge (Bereiter 2002: 137–38). In translation, statable knowledge is what a translator can read or hear about translation theories, concept of translation itself, principles, guidelines, strategies, norms, ethics, professional practices etc. either during translator training or through self-studies. Statable knowledge interferes with the overall translation knowledge in various ways but it is not, as will be pointed out, the only type of knowledge upon which understanding about translation is built.

3.5.2 Implicit understanding

Implicit understanding is one form of tacit knowledge. Bereiter (2002: 138–139) is specific about the use of 'understanding' instead of 'knowledge' here, wishing to highlight different nature of implicit – or tacit – knowledge. Implicit understanding refers to the "aspects of knowledge that characterize intelligent relationships to things or situations in the world" (ibid.). It is knowledge that is gained from experience and as such, it is largely unspecifiable. Bereiter (ibid.), citing Clancey (1991) describes it as perception rather than having propositions in the mind, leading to reflex-like behaviour: when, for example, a teacup tumbles from the saucer, we do not rely on any knowledge about gravitation or ceramics on the basis of which we act, but respond in a way that is appropriate for the perceived situation. Bereiter (ibid.) argues that this reflex-like behaviour is conditioned by our past experiences which makes "it reasonable to think there being a residue of knowledge that makes the response an "intelligent" one".

As translation is all around us in everyday life – in subtitles, translated novels, operating manuals, lists of ingredients, advertisements, comic books, google translators, or as a method used in foreign language teaching (Laviosa 2014) – it can be argued that many people have an implicit understanding of translation, too.

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[21] On the role of tacit knowledge in expert performance, see e.g. Ciancialo et al. (2006), Sternberg and Horvath (2009).

Depending on their experiences, it may or may not align with the professional view on translation. Presas Corbella and Martín de León (2014: 273ff.) show that students of translation entertain initial **implicit theories about translation**, which can be modified through experience and formal instruction. This theory, or implicit understanding, may be formed on the basis of foreign language lessons where sentences were translated in order to pinpoint grammatical differences and similarities between two languages. Alternatively, it may stem from one's interest in languages and ability to detect errors in subtitles, or it may be formed while watching one's relative or friend working as a translator. In formal education, as pointed out by Bereiter (ibid. 154), these implicit understandings are often deemed misconceptions, naïve understandings that must be set right by training and statable knowledge. In some cases, implicit understanding may come close to professional view; there are practising translators without any translator training whose translation knowledge is largely based on implicit understanding of the activity, possibly guided by continuous feedback from various agents in the translation process. These translators may come up with accepTable translation solutions in different situations but are possibly unable to give grounds for them: why in such and such situation one solution is accepTable but the other one is not. This may be the case with beginning translator students as well. Implicit understanding of translation may explain why some translator students seem to perform in an expert manner in experiments (e.g. Tirkkonen-Condit 2005, Göpferich 2010); provided that one has a good command of working languages and strong contrastive skills, implicit, 'common sense' understanding of translation coupled with sufficient self-confidence may indeed result in a norm-abiding, functional translation in single experiments.

Polanyi himself (1969: 196) mentions the use of language as one example of tacit knowledge and performance. In the field of SLA, the division between **implicit** and **explicit** linguistic knowledge has been widely discussed (e.g. Bialystok 1978; Ellis 2005, 2009; Paradis 2004). For example, Bialystok (1978: 72) defines implicit linguistic knowledge as "intuitive information upon which the language learner operates in order to produce responses in the target language", and explicit language knowledge as the kind of knowledge that can be manipulated, examined and articulated. Ellis (2005: 143) states that linguistic knowledge is generally conceived as being intuitive and tacit rather than conscious and explicit in nature. The acquisition of L1 grammar is implicit and is extracted from experience of usage automatically so that L1 speakers have complex knowledge of the structure of their language without the ability to describe this knowledge. Attainment of L2, in turn, typically requires additional resources of explicit learning (Ellis 2008: 1). Hence, it can be argued that interlingual competence, too, is partly based on implicit understanding about language use and interlingual differences rather than explicit knowledge of rules and statable or easily justifiable pieces of information. Following specific rules and norms that are expressed in writing can only take one so far. The more experience one has of a wide variety of discourse situations, the deeper is one's implicit understanding of how languages behave in different situations and how languages may differ in their potential to express meanings.

3.5.3 Episodic knowledge

Episodic knowledge is also found under the umbrella of declarative knowledge in some taxonomies in which declarative knowledge has been subdivided into semantic and episodic knowledge. These two reside in semantic and episodic memory, respectively (e.g. Schraw 2006: 247). From a functional viewpoint, Bereiter argues, episodic and semantic memory have different roles as knowledge – while the latter concerns statable knowledge and implicit understanding, episodic memory and episodic knowledge works on remembered episodes that can be retrieved and considered in new contexts. That is, it is not the remembered episode itself that knowledge stems from but different associations it reminds one of in a specific situation. Episodic knowledge cannot be searched systematically: one thing reminds us of another. In this sense, it is one form of tacit knowledge. As Bereiter says, "what is recalled may amount to significant knowledge at some times and not at others, but there can be little doubt that the recall of past experiences is an important part of knowledgeability." (Bereiter 2002: 140–141). Shreve (2002: 157) notes that patterns of experience are extracted, analysed and organized from episodic memory, creating knowledge structures for expert performance.

It is not hard to see the role of this knowledge in the context of translation. For a freelance translator, for instance, each translation assignment is an episode from which she gains knowledge that can be later retrieved and utilized in a new context: the more episodes one has stored in the episodic memory, the easier it may become to anticipate clients' needs, wishes and constraints with regard to translation. Episodic knowledge – similar to various types of tacit knowledge – is the kind of knowledge the acquisition of which one does not realize until later, when knowledge comes in handy in a new situation. A student may, for example, comprehend the purpose of a translation task carried out at some point of her training only later when associations related to that specific task helps her solve a novel problem in a new context.

3.5.4 Impressionistic knowledge

The third form of tacit knowledge, impressionistic knowledge, stems from a person's feelings or impressions and becomes evident in a situation where we decide or are forced to act on a "gut feeling" instead of facts and reason. In such a case, feelings are the knowledge. Impressionistic knowledge plays an obvious role in creative work (Bereiter and Scardamalia 1993), which makes it interesting for translation since it is creative work with not only one correct solution. Impressionistic knowledge, according to Bereiter (2002: 142) takes a long time to grow and manifests itself in judgment distilled from long experience; it is what "we are left with after we have forgotten the explicit content of an artistic work" (ibid.). We may not be able to recall what exactly the book we read was about, but we do remember the impression it left on us. I would argue that for (expert) translators, literary translators in particular, impressionistic knowledge is a valuable asset which makes them more sensitive to the spirit of the original piece of literature. When choosing between two equally possible translation equivalents, a translator may make the final decision based on impression: the other one simply suits, or **feels**, better. Arguably, what is needed in all translation is a kind of 'sense' for appropriate language, and this sense may be partly impressionistic knowledge by nature. Translation solutions may also be influenced by impressionistic

knowledge of the translator about the client's preferences: the translator chooses not to use loanwords, for instance, because she has got the impression that the client favours "native" forms of words. It may be a misjudgement and the solution may prove to be dysfunctional; as Bereiter (ibid. 143) states, impressionistic knowledge has to do with prejudice, phobias and crazes as well. This only underlines the personal nature of knowledge. It could be argued, however, that the more experience one has in a domain such as translation, the more accurate the impressionistic knowledge grows.

Impressionistic knowledge bears resemblance to the notion of intuition, discussed within translation studies for example by Robinson (2012: 79–80) and Hubscher-Davidson (2013). Robinson is one of the few translation scholars who has strongly emphasized the role of feelings in translators' decision-making, giving the following advice to the aspiring translators:

> Do not assume that translators' "natural" impulses will be wrong and that education and regulation is therefore in order; learn to feel what you do when you translate. The chances are that your body has a fairly good idea of what kind of translation is appropriate in given circumstances; by ignoring your body, by allowing translation theorists and teachers to direct your attention away from your own somatic sense of appropriateness into the abstract realm of rules and structures, you are alienating yourself from the best tool you have. (Robinson 1991: 34)

Robinson (2012: 79–80) argues that "intuitive leaps are an essential part of the translation process". This is not to say, of course, that every translation solution can be justified by stating that it feels good. Undeniably, ability to justify one's solutions is a part of professional/expert translator's competence, adding to the credibility and reliability of a translator. A good translator, Robinson (2012: 80) argues, will develop a rough sense of when she can trust her intuition and when it must be subjected to close scrutiny. He (ibid. 79) ponders on whether a translator's intuition could be labelled "experience", since intuition is certainty grounded in past experiences stored in one's memory. A quote from Robinson illustrates this side of a translator's decision-making perfectly:

> Sometimes your "intuition" or "experience" (and which is it?) tells you that there are serious problems with the word or phrase you have come up with; so you check your dictionaries, and they all confirm your choice, but you still go on doubting. It feels almost right, but not quite. You call or text your friends, and they give you conflicting answers, which is of no help, it's still up to you. You get up and pace around, worrying about the word, tugging and pulling at it. Finally the word you've been looking for jumps into your head, and you rejoice, and rush to write it down – *that's* the word! But how do you know? You just *do*. (Robinson 2012: 79–80)

The quote above illustrates a problem that emerges with cognitive constructs such as intuition: it is indeed possible to claim that intuition is based on experience, corresponding to impressionistic knowledge in Bereiter's terminology. Then again, a claim that it is not is just as justified. Nevertheless, it seems plausible that tacit knowledge of all forms has a role in TC and that translators do indeed know more than they can tell.

3.5.5 Skill

The fifth knowledge element in Bereiter's taxonomy is skill, which has a both cognitive and a subcognitive component. The cognitive part is the knowing-how, as in procedural knowledge in the traditional dichotomy. One knows, in principle, how to read or swim or ride a bike and can voluntarily call forth actions that actually prove one has the skill (Bereiter 2002: 143). The subcognitive part is "the change in skill that takes place with practice" (ibid.). The skill itself remains the same, but the performance becomes smoother, more economical and automatic. This subcognitive part is not, according to Bereiter (ibid.)), knowledge, because it is not due to gain in knowledge that makes the performance more fluent but rather, it is the body that learns to function more effectively due to training. Bereiter (ibid.) admits, however, that in so-called cognitive skills the two components are harder to distinguish, but still evident, becoming observable when the cognitive part, the knowing-how, is faulty: if one has learnt to do something in a wrong way, the performance may still get more fluent with practicing, but one just gets more proficient at doing it wrong. In cognitive skills, such as translation, improvement in skill is improvement of the cognitive component in particular. The actual translation, the transfer of meanings from the ST in one language into a TT in another language, takes place in the mind. With practice, the transfer process becomes smoother, and some transfer operations become automatized (e.g. Jääskeläinen and Tirkkonen-Condit 1991). This happens when the cognitive process is organized due to structured knowledge: gain in knowledge results in reorganization of translation-related cognitive skill enhancing the ability of the mind to come up with a translation.

Obviously, there is the subcognitive component in translation, too, that improves with practise: a translator can become a faster typist or fluent with translation memory systems and thus improve one's professional competence with regard to effectiveness. However, such gain does not improve her actual translation skill, the problem-solving process that takes place in the mind. Both cognitive and subcognitive components are clearly present when looking at the way a translator learns to use translation tools. For example, with translation memory systems, gain in performance may not only be due to repetition of use of the system (subcognitive component), but also due to one's growing knowledge of the system and the ways it contributes to the translation process (cognitive component). The same goes for other tools: the more one searches for information on the Internet, the faster one gets and at the same time, the more she knows about the beneficial search techniques; the more one uses terminological databases, the less effortful it is and the more strategic their use becomes in the process.

Without a skill, other types of knowledge do not become observable on the product level. One may have statable or tacit knowledge of translation, but if one lacks the skill of translation, this knowledge cannot materialize in the product. This makes **skill** a key knowledge type in any study focusing on translator performance: it is skill that becomes observable in the actual text production rather than other types of knowledge. For example, disturbing interference in a TT chunk implies that a translator lacks the skill to deal with interlingual challenges. Nevertheless, she may possess other types of knowledge related to interlingual challenges that cannot be assessed on the basis of translation performance only.

3.5.6 Regulative knowledge

The sixth knowledge type in Bereiter's typology is regulative knowledge, often referred to as metacognition (Bereiter 2002: 145). Metacognition is defined as "the knowledge and control one has over one's thinking and learning activities" (Swanson 1990: 306). This is knowledge that pertains to the actors themselves as a factor in the activity they are performing, i.e. knowledge of one's shortcomings and biases and how to deal with them. Obviously, it is due to the lack of this knowledge that beginners in any field may think they master the domain they have just entered, and only after some studying do they realize the superficial nature of their initial knowledge; hence the proverb "ignorance is a bliss". The more one knows, the better one knows what one does not know. Bereiter (2002: 146) views regulative knowledge covering a wide range of issues, from explicit principles such as codes of ethics, to idiosyncratic personal knowledge. An everyday example of the functions of regulative knowledge has to do with translator's self-evaluation about the difficulty of text that has been offered to her for translation: Do I know enough of this field to be able to translate the text correctly within the time limit? Do I have the time and the resources to compensate for my shortcomings to do the job?

3.5.7 Bereiter's typology and learning

Bereiter (2002: 148–149) points out that different aspects of knowledge merge even at a level of competence well below that of experts. On the high level of competence where knowledge is fully developed and well-rounded, the distinctions among its aspects are bound to be artificial. As argued by Bereiter (2002), an expert in any domain is likely to possess all six types of knowledge, each aspect contributing to the expertise. Various aspects seem to blend together to the extent that they are no longer distinguishable. In Bereiter's (2002: 148) words,

> statable knowledge trails off gracefully into intuitive understanding, significant parts of which could be rendered explicit if the need arose. Intuitive understanding in turn blends imperceptibly into impressionistic knowledge. Similarly, episodic knowledge blends into both implicit understanding and impressionistic knowledge. On occasion a specific episode may be recalled and explicitly applied to a current situation, but more often past experiences influence actions and choices without any recall and analysis. Regulative knowledge becomes integrated into habit and character.[22]

Bereiter's typology seems to offer a solid theoretical approach to the nature of knowledge underlying TC and the different routes to its acquisition. It seems to support what Séguinot (2000: 99) suggested of the nature of knowledge underlying expert performance in translation. According to her (ibid.), expertise is more than the acquisition of

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[22] Bereiter's view seems to come close to the **strong interface position** taken in SLA research on the relation between explicit and implicit knowledge; this position states that not only explicit knowledge can become implicit but also that implicit knowledge can become explicit when the learners become aware of the underlying rules of their implicit knowledge (Dekeyser 2003).

a body of declarative and procedural knowledge; rather, "it stems from the **integration of experiential knowledge with the principles of the discipline."** What eventually shows as a translation skill is a result of reorganization of the whole knowledge system. A student entering a translator training programme is likely to possess a lot of translation-related knowledge. The knowledge may not be of statable nature, at least not totally; instead, it may be based on implicit understanding, for instance of the concept of translation, that one has formed unconsciously. It may also be stored as episodic knowledge if she can actually pinpoint certain episodes (e.g. classroom exercises) in her past that has helped her realize something about translation. Some translation-related knowledge may also have the nature of impressionistic knowledge, such as a preference to use a certain style. This tacit knowledge may or may not align with the concept of translation within the professional circle, but it is, nevertheless knowledge of translation, and may be sufficient in some translation situations.

Bereiter's typology of knowledge reflects the **constructivist learning theory,** according to which people construct their own understanding. The constructivist view on knowledge emphasizes the role of experiences in the formation of knowledge (Lakoff 1987: 20). In other words, in constructivism the argument is that "meaning is imposed on the world by us, rather than existing in the world independently of us" (Duffy and Jonassen 1992: 3). In constructivist learning, individuals "draw on their experiences of the world around them, and work to make sense of what they perceive in order to build an understanding of what is around them" (Pritchard 2013: 22). Hence, "prior knowledge has a crucial part to play in constructivist learning" (ibid.25). The basic assumption in this study is that students have various types of translation-related knowledge upon entering translator training. This knowledge is then refined, complemented and reorganized during training, not only due to the input of statable knowledge but also due to deliberate practise, which enhances both skills and tacit translation knowledge. This process is personal and is likely to differ from individual to individual, since students' life histories and thus experience-based knowledge are not identical.

The personal nature of knowledge also suggests that students may absorb different things from the same exercises; learning takes place through the filter of past experiences. In translation studies into TC, this approach to learning has been discussed, for example, by Kiraly (2000, 2013: 210–211), who suggests that TC is not built up bit by bit through the accretion of knowledge, but creates itself through the translator's embodied involvement in actual translation experiences. Kiraly (2013: 207) conceptualizes the cognitive base of TC as the sum of "memories, learning results and intuitions, along with external human and material resources and personal, interpersonal and psycho-corporeal dispositions", thus recognizing the significance of tacit knowledge in the emergence of TC. In this sense, Kiraly seems to share Bereiter's view on the cognitive knowledge base of experts as well as individuals on their way towards expertise in any domain.

This section laid the theoretical foundation for the TC model to be used as the framework of the present study. This foundation takes building blocks from the linguistic approaches to TC and also recognizes the role of extra-linguistic knowledge in translation emphasized in expert TC models. Views that do not limit translation to

the professional practise only but recognize its multifaceted nature pave the way to the situation-based definition of TC and to the idea that ATC is not a process in which one learns to translate, but a process in which one learns to handle more and more complex translation situations. The view of competence being based on six aspects of knowledgeability seems to offer a valid approach to explain the nature of knowledge from the cognitive point of view. The next section will move on to introduce the model that was built on the theoretical notions presented in this section.

4 Situation-based translation competence model

This chapter introduces the situation-based TC model that was designed on the theoretical premises introduced in the previous chapter. The model was designed for the purpose of studying the acquisition of interlingual skills in translation. I will first present the model as a figure to illustrate its working in a simplified form, and then move on to explain the model in detail. Concrete examples of the workings of the model will also be provided. Towards the end of this chapter, the focus shifts to the way the model can be applied to empirical studies into ATC, with specific reference to the empirical part of the present study.

4.1 OVERVIEW OF THE SITUATION-BASED TC MODEL

As described in Chapter 3, the situation-based TC model includes elements from earlier models and views on TC, but conceptualizes their hierarchical relations and interlinkedness somewhat differently, specifically with regard to the role and nature of linguistic skills, which are placed at the core of TC. The linguistic skills that characterize translation in particular are interlingual by nature; translation is considered to be an interlingual activity in essence.

A major difference between the present model and the earlier ones is its starting point: 'translation' is approached as an activity carried out also outside professional practice. Furthermore, the model is based on the view that TC is situation-bound: **different translation situations call for a different kind of TC**. There is no universal set of knowledge that together make up TC, but different translation situations create different frames for TC. Basically, the model makes a distinction between a) knowledge needed (to some level) in **all** translation situations (knowledge related to interlingual text production), and b) knowledge needed to a varying degree in different types of translation situations. The first is conceptualized as the core TC: the skill that defines translation and nothing but, characterising **TC as interlingual text production competence** in essence. The second, knowledge needed to a varying degree in different situations, refers to knowledge about translation, information search, domain-specific knowledge, translation technology and the like. All these types of knowledge serve interlingual text production and are in this sense contributory knowledge needed for text production, although they may have different functions in the process, as Figure 9 below implies.

Unlike other TC models, the suggested model does not limit itself to capturing the elements of professional translation only but lends itself to the definition of the required level of TC in more rudimentary translation situations. This, I believe, is relevant from the acquisition perspective: learning to translate is to become compe-

tent to deal with a wide array of translation situations. Professional level TC does not appear suddenly at the end of training, but builds up gradually.

According to this model, the notions of TC and interlingual text production competence are, in effect, synonymous. TC comprises different combinations of knowledge, which, following Bereiter (2002), as a cognitive construct may refer to both theoretical knowledge and practical skill. The situation-based translation competence model is visualized in Figure 9 below. The elements of the model will be introduced and discussed both separately as well as in relation to each other in the following subsections.

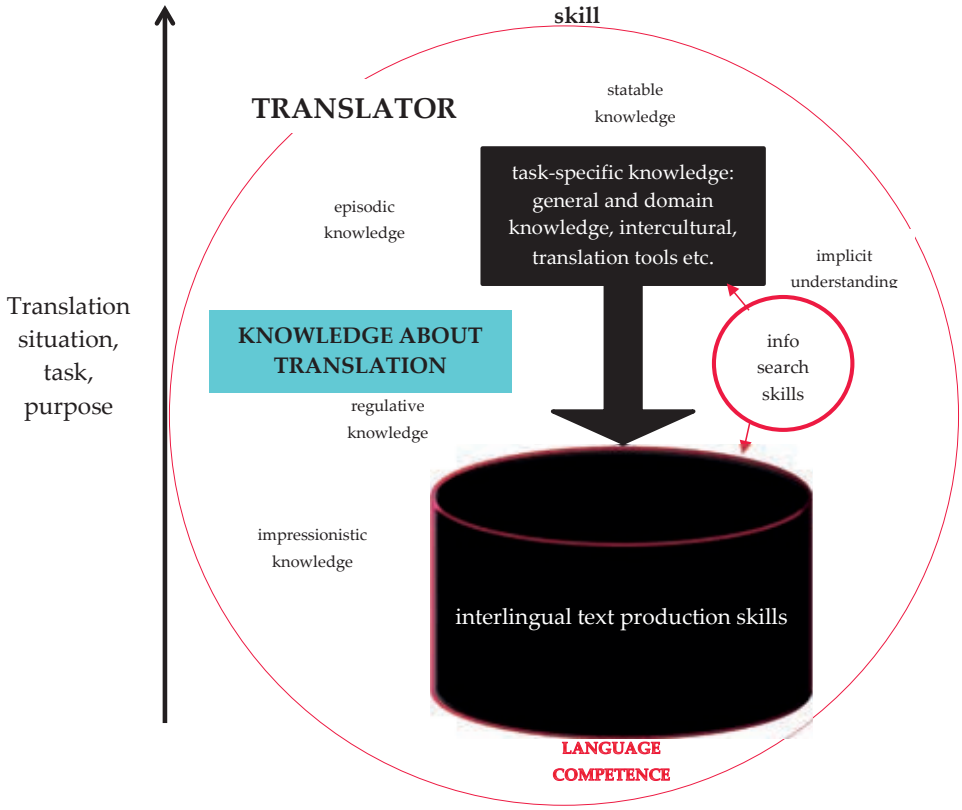


Figure 9. The situation-based TC model with interlingual text production skills as the core.

4.1.1 Situation as the determiner of expectations

Translation situations range from everyday conversations to norm-governed professional practice. Communicative needs in the situations vary: a translator's TC can be evaluated on the basis of how the translator has responded to the demands (i.e. fulfilled the communicative needs) of the translation situation (Shreve and Neubert 1992: 5). A translator with sufficient TC in the situation can produce a translation that fulfils the needs in that specific situation. In other words, translation **situation** (left side in Figure 9) **creates expectations, demands and constraints, which in turn define the nature of TC in that specific situation.** 'Situation' covers all elements that may possibly affect

the translation event and create conditions, constraints and expectations upon the act: actors involved, purpose of translation, translation brief, existing norms, etc. The arrow pointing upwards in the model illustrates the varying number of expectations and constraints in different situations. In a successful performance, these expectations are met.

In principle, TC is defined anew in each translation situation: if a translator **understands** the constraints and expectations set by the situation and **is able to comply with them**, she has the TC that is needed in that specific situation. Different translation situations can be placed on the continuum of translatorial action (Kolehmainen et al. 2015: 392); situations demanding professional translation occupy one end of the continuum, while translatorial action taking place in multilingual individual's everyday life and by multilingual individuals can be placed at the other end. Obviously, a wide range of situations fall in between the two poles. The multifaceted nature of translatorial action means that different situations also have varying functions for translation (Kolehmainen et al. 2015: 393), which, from the competence perspective, implies that a varying set and level of knowledge is needed in different situations for a functional translation to emerge.

The more complex the situation, the more complex combination of knowledge is expected from the translator to come up with a TT that meets the expectations. Conversely, everyday translation situations usually involve few constraints. For example, grammatical correctness or terminological accuracy are less relevant in a situation where a person transfers the contents of a letter from an American cousin to her Finnish grandparents than it is when transferring the contents of a business agreement to a business partner or subtitling a nature documentary for television. Not only do the latter situations set higher expectations on interlingual text production as such, but they also presuppose more extra-linguistic knowledge to enable interlingual text production. Similarly, different situations can create different expectations towards a translator's TC even with the same source text: a school diploma, for example, can be translated freely to a foreign friend, whereas various rules and conventions apply to its translation when an authorized translation of the diploma is requested.

4.1.2 Knowledge about translation

An element that plays a role in all translation situations is the translator's knowledge of translation as an action. **Every** translation situation presupposes some level of translational knowledge from the translator, albeit in the simplest mediation situations the mediator herself may be fully unconscious of it; she probably transfers the message from one language to another without even considering it as 'translation'. In more complex situations, one needs more sophisticated knowledge of translation in order to understand all expectations and constraints the situation sets. This knowledge pertains to the overall concept of translation (e.g. PACTE's dynamic vs. static concept of translation), knowledge of potential problems and problem-solving strategies, knowledge of different skoposes of translation, of translation norms and so forth.

Knowledge about translation is **contributory knowledge** by function: it serves the purpose of interlingual text production in a translation situation. Just how much and how sophisticated knowledge about translation is needed for a functional translation to emerge is set by the situation; in this sense it is task-specific knowledge. However,

unlike other types of task-specific knowledge, knowledge about translation also has a special, **orienting function** in translation; this is the reason it is set apart from the others in the model. A person is likely to orient towards the translation task according to his or her knowledge about translation: for example, a static concept of translation as a mechanical, source-text abiding process of language change may automatically lead to a word-for-word translation. Such a view may inhibit the translator from using his or her interlingual knowledge (even if s/he possesses that knowledge) altogether as the need to go beyond the words goes unnoticed (see e.g. Kumpulainen 2011). The translator may even feel it is forbidden or wrong to change the word order or structural elements when transferring the message from the ST to the TT.

Again, the more complex the situation, the more knowledge about translation is needed to fulfil the communicative needs in the situation: a word-for-word translation is sufficient in a limited range of situations. Obviously, any knowledge about translation is useless unless a translator can utilise it also in translation performance, i.e. take it to the service of interlingual text production.

4.1.3 Interlingual text production skills

In this model TC is considered to be, in essence, interlingual text production competence that appears as interlingual text production skills. These skills are illustrated in the form of a black cylinder-shaped figure at the bottom of the model. Any act of translation unavoidably requires some level of these skills. The minimum competence requirement for any task that can be defined as translation is **rudimentary interlingual text production skills**, i.e. possessing adequate passive knowledge of the SL to understand the ST, and being able to produce some kind of a TT. The TT does not, however, have to conform to the TL grammar rules, and it may show heavy interference. Such a performance may suffice in a situation where a bilingual person is to translate a letter from an American cousin to her Finnish grandmother: 'competence' comes down to understanding the approximate contents of the letter and explain it in TL. No contrastive ability with regard to style, register or structural differences between languages is required to produce a translation that satisfies the grandmother's need to know how the American cousin is doing. Metaphorically speaking, rudimentary interlingual skill is but a thin layer of substance on the bottom of the cylinder.

As pointed out by Englund-Dimitrova (2005b: 31–32), it could be claimed that "anyone who can read or write and who has a translation ability and a bilingual dictionary can produce some kind of a translated text applying a procedure of literal translation". In order to be competent in more complex translation situations, however, it is necessary to know which text segments can be translated literally and which cannot. Complex translation tasks often require **advanced interlingual text production skills** which are characterized by contrastive skills, ability to analyse both the contents and the language of the ST from a translator's perspective as a text that is to be transferred to a different readership. In practice, this means that a translator can work in the interspace between the two working languages and cultures and is able to spot the differences and similarities between languages as well as cultures behind texts, and is then able to take these differences and similarities into consideration when producing a text in the TL. Such skills are required when the translation situation

places high quality expectations on the language of the TT. In order to comply with the expectations, the cylinder of interlingual text production competence needs to be filled with various layers of interlingual knowledge. In some translation situations, a half-full cylinder suffices: a translation should, for instance, avoid heavy interference but the terminology does not have to be precise, or the other way around: interference does not matter as long as the terminology is correct.

With regard to the relation between language skills and interlingual text production skills, the model postulates the following: (some level of) language skills is a necessary **condition** for interlingual text production skills to emerge. The two languages can be conceptualized as the material with which a translator works in the interspace between languages (cf. Pym 1992). Therefore, language skills are placed outside the cylinder in Figure 9. However, any level of bilingualism can be regarded as **coextensive** with the rudimentary-level interlingual text production skills, similarly to Harris and Sherwood's (1978) idea of bilinguals being – by virtue of knowing two languages – natural translators, and Lörscher's (1991b, 1994, 2012: 6) argument according to which every individual with various degrees of proficiency in two or more languages is also endowed with a rudimentary ability to mediate information between the two languages.

This study does not make any claims on whether these two skills are separate or not in the human brain. There is evidence that language competence and TC are two distinctive skills: a bilingual person with polyglot aphasia has been reported to be able to speak the two languages, but no longer being able to translate between them (Albert and Obler 1978: 218, referring to Goldstein 1948: 141f; in Toury 2012: 281), as well as the other way around (Paradis 1980; in Toury 2012: 281). However, in practise most people who know two languages can also mediate messages between them in some way or another. This becomes evident in the body of studies looking into different types of non-professional, everyday translation.

The more expectations are set on the outcome of interlingual text production, the more emphasis is laid on the translator's skill to work **in between** the languages (and cultures). Toury's (1995: 282–283) notion of interlingualism as the ability to establish similarities and differences across languages characterizes the **advanced** interlingual text production skills in the present study: the more advanced the skills, the more vital and pronounced becomes the notion of 'interlingualism' (in Toury's sense).

4.1.4 Task-specific knowledge

Many translation situations presuppose various extra-linguistic knowledge to enable interlingual TT production in the given situation. The upper box in the model represents this knowledge. The box contains many of the subcompetences in PACTE's and Göpferich's models. In this model they are not, however, illustrated as subcompetences, but as contributory knowledge that is needed for the purpose of producing a text on the basis of a ST. In different translation situations, **task-specific knowledge in different combinations are taken into the service of text production**.

Subject field knowledge and (inter)cultural knowledge are perhaps the most common task-specific knowledge that is expected from a translator in more complex translation situations. Just how much subject field or cultural knowledge is required is dictated by the translation situation: it is not elementary for a translator to master the special

field of the translation situation thoroughly, but they need to know enough to be able to produce a TT that serves its communicative needs in the situation. As Robinson notes, professional special-field translators "make a living pretending to be (or at least to speak or write as if they were) licensed practitioners of professions that they have typically never practiced" (Robinson 2003: 128). A study conducted by Károly (2012) provides an illustrative example the importance of extra-linguistic knowledge in interlingual text production. This study looked into the way students deal with specialized EU genre, and errors made by students were linked with missing translation competencies. In this study, lack of knowledge about the function of EU institutions and the legislative process as well as EU language use conventions was found to be the underlying reason for translation problems rather than the lack of linguistic skills.

Knowledge related to translation technology – translation memory systems, terminology management and the like – is also task-specific knowledge. Some translation tasks must be carried out with a specific translation memory tool on the client's demand. Technological knowledge has a different function than subject-field or intercultural knowledge; ideally, it contributes to the translation process by making it faster and more efficient but it does not contribute to the interlingual TT production skills as such. It is also different in the sense that it needs to emerge as a skill in the translation process, i.e. it is not enough just to know *about* translation tools but it is essential to have the skill to use them in practice. This tool-related knowledge changes considerably with time: technological development changes the nature of translation situations.

Similarly to interlingual text production knowledge, task-specific knowledge is also needed to different degrees in different translation situations. In some translation situations, a piece of basic intercultural knowledge may suffice in order to avoid "cultural bumps" (Leppihalme 1997) in translation: replacing imperial units by metric equivalents when translating cooking recipes from English into Finnish might serve as one example of such basic-level knowledge. In other situations, more profound knowledge of cultures and intercultural differences may be expected, for example relating to different textual conventions in various genres, implicit values that underpin communication, different codes of conduct, or the dos and don'ts within a culture. Such knowledge is of importance, for example when working with persuasive texts that aim at influencing people's actions, such as a company's web pages into different language versions or any other form of advertising. In some situations, it is enough to know some minor details about a specific field for a functional translation, in others, it is necessary to understand complex procedures and techniques in the field the ST relates to in order to be able to translate it so that the TT fits its purpose. In other words, the more in-depth knowledge one has, the more complex translation tasks one can manage.

4.1.5 Information search

Knowledge related to information search also contributes to interlingual text production and is in that sense contributory knowledge, but it differs from the others in that it does not contribute to the interlingual text production process directly. Rather, it contributes indirectly by giving the translator the chance to find whatever knowledge she may be initially lacking in a translation situation. Ability to search for information can compensate for the lack any task-specific knowledge for translation as well as shed light on some micro-level, local linguistic or interlingual problems – provided

that a translator recognizes the shortcomings in his/her knowledge to begin with. Just how much knowledge related to information search a translator needs is not determined by the situation, but by the translator herself: the more shortcomings s/he has in the task-specific or interlingual knowledge required by the situation, the more s/he must rely on information search in order to be able to translate the text. Similarly to knowledge about translator's technological knowledge, information search knowledge must entail both **knowing what** and **knowing how** aspects in order to be useful in the translation process. In other words, it is a skill (see e.g. Schäffner 2000: 148).

A translator can compensate for different types of shortcomings by different types of information search activities. S/he may have comprehension problems, in which case s/he resorts to bilingual or monolingual dictionaries, looking up a word or a phrase. The comprehension problem may be due to his/her ignorance of the ST's subject field, in which case s/he may turn to parallel texts or subject field experts, or look for explanations of field-specific terms. A translator may be uncertain of the way some lexical items are used in the TL, and use corpora to look up pragmatic information on their register and connotations, for example, thus compensating for lacking knowledge for text production. Parallel texts may need to be consulted also to compensate for the lack of knowledge of textual conventions in a certain special field.

In short, information search comes down to the translator's ability to use the tools and resources at her disposal in a translation situation. Massey and Ehrensberger-Dow (2011: 193) refer to this as information literacy, stating that this specific knowledge has been implicitly recognized as the key aspect of TC by practitioners, teachers, and scholars alike. In PACTE's model (2000, 2005, 2009) this is referred to as 'instrumental subcompetence' and in Göpferich's (2009) as 'tools and research competence'.

4.1.6 Bereiter's typology as the cognitive base of TC

The content knowledge needed to translate – knowledge related to translation as an action, linguistic and interlingual knowledge, task-specific knowledge and information search knowledge – accumulates throughout life. Following Bereiter (2002), the model postulates that from a cognitive perspective, TC is a sum of six types of knowledge: regulative knowledge, statable knowledge, episodic knowledge, impressionistic knowledge, implicit understanding, and skill. He argues that any expert performance is a result of the blend of the six, but that they all play a role also on the level way below expertise (Bereiter 2002: 148–149).

Regulative knowledge differs from the rest of the knowledge types due to its controlling function: it is metacognitive knowledge of one's own knowledge. Regulative knowledge alerts the translator to deficiencies in his/her ability to carry out a translation task and "makes" him/her search for information. Its working is then related to situations in which TC is otherwise insufficient, i.e. when the translator realises s/he needs more content knowledge to carry out the task. The knowledge that is deliberately sought – be it from the Internet, from lectures, from books, from special field experts – can be described as statable knowledge. Episodic and impressionistic knowledge as well as implicit understanding, in turn, do not arise from explicit learning but are acquired through experience, not only as a translator but also as a language speaker and a member of various discourse communities.

The type of knowledge that shows in performance is skill. For this reason, skill is placed on the circle rather than inside the circle in Figure 9. As explained earlier, the present model holds the view that in a successful translation situation, any piece of content knowledge serves the purpose of producing the target text. In other words, from the cognitive point of view, there is the 'knowing-what' and 'knowing-how' element in each piece of content knowledge, the 'knowing-how' being the ability to put the 'knowing-what' into practise in translation performance. Possessing plenty of theoretical knowledge of translation and understanding what the translation situation requires is one thing, showing the skill to perform accordingly is another. Without the skill, other types of knowledge remain unobservable in performance. PACTE (e.g. 2005: 610) defines TC as a "basically procedural knowledge" perhaps due to the very fact that TC cannot become observable without the skill element. However, in the present model it is postulated that TC is neither procedural nor declarative but a working combination of six knowledge types. Possessing the skill presupposes other types of knowledge; as Bereiter (2002) suggests, having the skill entails both 'knowing in principle' and 'knowing in practice'. The knowledge types underlying skill may be tacit or statable, in some cases beyond the translator's awareness.

In a complex translation situation a translator may, for example, possess extensive domain knowledge in the field of the source text. This knowledge is partly learnt through studies, partly acquired through experience. A translator uses this knowledge for a different purpose than a specialist of that specific domain would use it: a translator puts the theoretical domain knowledge (together with all other relevant theoretical knowledge needed in the situation) in the service of text production. In the end, then, translation is a text production skill, which is built upon various types of other knowledge. Skill cannot emerge without this other knowledge; therefore, all types of knowledge are equally essential as elements of TC. In an unsuccessful translation situation, the knowing-what and the knowing-how sides of TC do not necessarily merge, i.e. one may, for example, have the 'knowing what' component but lack the skill to use that knowledge for the purpose of text production. As the model suggests, the key to successful translation is the merge of different types of knowledge into a functional action in a given situation.

What appears to have totally disappeared from the present model is strategic competence, the very central element of expert TC models. It has not, however, disappeared, but its workings are conceptualised differently; it is involved whenever a knowing-what and knowing-how side of a competence give rise to a translation that fulfils its communicative needs. What are considered as functions of strategic competence according to PACTE (2003: 59), are in effect **skills** in the present model: planning and carrying out translation; evaluating the process and the partial results obtained in relation to the final purpose; activating the different sub-competencies and compensating for deficiencies in them and finally, identifying translation problems and applying procedures to solve them. To put it simply, in this model, strategic competence comes down to a **cognitive skill to act purposefully in a given translation situation;** it is **the skill to use the required combination of one's statable or tacit knowledge (about languages, interlingual differences, translation, task-specific matters) in TT production in a specific translation situation.**

4.2 ATC IN TRANSLATOR TRAINING IN THE LIGHT OF SITUATION-BASED TC MODEL

The emerging model also takes a stance on the debate on whether TC is a result of nature or nurture (e.g. Toury 2012: 277). While the expert TC models emphasize the role of nurture, the new model suggests that it is both. All types of knowledge merge in translation performance, the explicitly learnt and the implicitly – or unconsciously – acquired. However, the role of nurture in the form of statable knowledge is likely to grow in attaining the TC needed for complex translation situations. Therefore, statable knowledge during training is of vital importance in guiding the knowledge formation of a translation student: it influences all other aspects of knowledge (Bereiter 2002: 138). Tacit knowledge and statable knowledge may collide, perhaps resulting in a reorganization of knowledge, or tacit knowledge may be complemented and reinforced by what is learnt during training. Statable knowledge has the power to make knowledge explicit, to put it into words: thus, statable knowledge makes the expertise/skill explicit as well, perhaps giving the students the confidence and certainty which they may still lack at the beginning of studies when most of their translation-related knowledge is based on implicit understanding.

The mismatches between the academic view and the beginners' conceptualizations are often referred to as **misconceptions** (e.g. Bereiter 2002: 154, vanLehn and van de Sande 2009: 365), or a less degrading term, **alternative conceptions** (vanLehn and van de Sande 2009: 365). Overcoming this mismatch ought to be a straightforward instructional goal, but these alternative conceptions are sometimes found to persist even after university-level education (Bereiter 2002: 155). As vanLehn and van de Sande (2009: 366) put it: "Misconceptions never die, they just get beaten in so many situations by confluences that they retire." However, even after a considerable input of statable knowledge one may stick to one's original understanding of the concept (Bereiter 2002: 155). It is indeed my experience as a translator trainer that some students have a hard time adjusting their initial view, considering statable knowledge input during the training as academic nonsense that does not enhance their TC in any way. However, increased conceptual knowledge may offer a learner an opportunity not to completely abandon one's initial understanding but modify the conditions under which the initial understanding still holds true (ibid. 366). A translator student may, for example, realise that her understanding of translation is quite sufficient and suitable to describe translation in an everyday situation, but does not apply to professional translation situations.

People who translate without any formal translator training may also benefit from the "written wisdom" in the field of translation. Relying solely on the body of implicit knowledge growing through experience is not only an extremely slow way of absorbing knowledge but also a fragmentary one, as if solving a 2000-piece puzzle without knowing the end result one is aiming at. A translator acquires new information with each translation task, but it may take time before this new information fits in nicely with other pieces of the puzzle. Solid statable knowledge that is acquired, for example, via training offers the advantage of providing the bigger picture first: the various concepts, strategies, procedures, principles, norms, historical changes, myths, be-

liefs, constraints, ethical issues, etc. in the field of translation, thus perhaps making the acquisition of advanced TC a smoother process than the route relying solely on experience does.

For learning the **skill** to translate, input of statable knowledge is clearly not enough, as can be deduced from the results of the TransComp project (Göpferich 2013; see section 2.3.2). Translation skill is the sum of a complex set of knowledge, and the ability to use one's knowledge for the purpose of translation in different situations with different expectations and constraints does not materialize out of the blue. Traditionally, this progress is called **proceduralization** (Anderson 1982: 383), which is "the overall process by which slow, explicit information about procedures (knowing that) is transformed into speedy, implicit implementations of the procedures (knowing how)". The term seems suitable to depict the learning process with Bereiter's typology as well, with the difference that in this context it is not only declarative knowledge that is 'proceduralized' but the complex, intertangled set of tacit and statable knowledge. The skill develops as a result of **deliberate practice** which is regarded as an imperative component in the acquisition of any expertise (Anderson et al. 1993; Ericsson 2009). Ericsson (2006b: 692) points out that

> deliberate practice presents performers with tasks that are initially outside their current realm of reliable performance, yet can be mastered within hours of practise by concentrating on the critical aspects and by gradually refining performance through repetition after feedback.

According to this view, then, students should be exposed to translation situations which are always slightly above their TC level. With appropriate feedback they learn to take various aspects of the situation into account and with repeated practice, to turn that knowledge into the skill of translation. As Shreve (2002: 158) states, deliberate practice, then, is different from the mere experience in the domain: not all kinds of experience leads to expertise. The tasks are to be well-defined and appropriately difficult for the individual with feedback from other agents in practice in order to contribute to one's pool of knowledge.

In the following section, I will move on to discuss how the model can be used in empirical research into ATC in general, and explain how the concept of TC was operationalized in the present study for the purpose of studying ATC.

4.3 OPERATIONALIZATION OF THE MODEL

To make the situation-based TC model useful for empirical research, it needs to be operationalized by pondering on the indicators of the TC in each situation. Since the basic idea in the model is that TC is defined anew in different translation situations, the indicators of TC arise from the expectations set by the translation situation. Hence, operationalization of the model always starts by the analysis of the situation: first, what is the purpose of translation, who is translating what, to whom, and what for? Second, what kind of translation-related knowledge is necessary to understand

the expectations set by the situation? Third, what kind of interlingual text production is sufficient for a functional translation, i.e. what are the linguistic quality requirements in a given situation? Fourth, to what extent is task-specific knowledge needed to complement interlingual text production and what might these task-specific skills be? I will illustrate the operationalization by providing definitions of TC in two different translation situations, one representing a translation situation in the life of a professional translator and the other explaining the translation situation which yielded the data for the empirical part of this study. Since the TC in the two situations is different, the indicators of TC in the performance are also bound to be (partly) different.

4.3.1 Situation-based TC and its indicators

The first situation involves the translation of a magazine article about climate change to the Finnish edition of the magazine. The magazine in which the TT is to be published is a high-quality publication in popularized natural sciences, and the article is to be translated using the same layout as in the original. Obviously, the situation presupposes plenty of knowledge about translation per se: view of translation as a transfer of meaning rather than transfer of words, knowledge about the potential problem types and about strategies to find solutions to the problems. The situation sets high expectations for the linguistic quality of the output; the TT is expected to abide to the TL norms. Therefore, advanced interlingual text production skills are expected. The use of the ST layout is a constraint in interlingual text production, forming a further challenge, since languages rarely take the same space in expressing ideas. Due to the nature of the ST, skills to deal with interlingual challenges are not sufficient but other knowledge needs to contribute to interlingual text production. Therefore, task-specific knowledge is also needed, i.e. knowledge about the phenomenon in question as well as knowledge about the special terminology and phrases used to refer to the phenomenon in the TL; the latter could be classified as the task-specific linguistic knowledge required in the situation. In brief, the TC in this specific situation comprises solid knowledge about translation, advanced interlingual text production skills and special-field knowledge.

The second situation involves the translation of an article from the book *501 Must-See Movies* to be published in a Finnish volume of the book. This was the task given to the 1st year students when collecting data for the empirical part of the present study. The ST does not contain special-field terminology or phrases, but the challenges in translation stem from interlingual differences between the working languages. The TT is to be published as a part of a printed, handbook type of nonfiction; therefore, the situation places high expectations on the quality of the TT as a TL text. The TT is expected to read as an original Finnish text, i.e. it can be regarded as a **covert** translation[23]. Thus, advanced interlingual text production skills are needed, but no task-

[23] In House's (1977) dichotomy of covert and overt translation, a covert translation is expected to function in the target culture without any reference (linguistic or other) of its being a translation. The ST of a covert translation is not specifically addressed to a particular source culture audience (House 2015: 56). An overt translation, in turn, is recognized as a translation due to its clear cultural ties (House 2015: 61). Overt translation is a case of "language mention" rather than "language use" (House 2001: 250), which I take to mean that an overt translation can be recognized as a translation also on the basis of its linguistic choices.

specific knowledge is necessary in this situation – unless some piece of interlingual knowledge is lacking in which case an information search can enter the process to compensate for the shortcoming. Moreover, a view of translation as a dynamic rather than static, word-for-word procedure is expected; this entails knowledge about strategies to deal with interlingual differences in translation.

The first situation is more complex than the second one, requiring more knowledge to serve the interlingual text production for a functional translation to emerge. In the performance, the indicators of TC would be the use of correct terminology, conventional phraseology, TT content and linguistic accuracy, and the layout. In the second situation, a translator can be considered as competent to carry out the task if she produces a TT that abides to the TL norms and contains no false information. This is the kind of TC this study focuses on, and its indicators will be discussed in the following subsection.

4.3.2 Indicators of TC in this study

The textual-level indicators of TC in this study come down to two types of accuracy: **TT content accuracy** and **TT linguistic accuracy**. The first indicator arises from the expectation that a TT that is to be published as a printed book does not entail false information. The second one, in turn, arises from the expectation that a text in a printed book is compliant with the linguistic norms and grammar rules of the TL, and the language is idiomatic, conventional and appropriate in the co(n)text. The initial assumption in this study is that students do not show advanced-level interlingual text production skills at the beginning of their BA studies but the skills are in some aspects insufficient.

Figure 10 visualizes the situation-based TC and its textual-level indicators in this study. A competent translator in the situation possesses advanced interlingual text production skills which is manifested as a norm-abiding TL and accurate content. In addition, a certain knowledge of translation is expected in the situation, but this knowledge has no textual-level indicators; the level of translation-related knowledge cannot necessarily be inferred from translation solutions.

It was assumed that the ST chunks that require **an obligatory shift** in translation would be most indicative of translators' TC in this situation. An obligatory shift is needed when a word-for-word procedure results in an inaccurate TT chunk, for example due to interlingual differences. The assumption is derived from various notions related to the nature of translation, e.g. **literal translation hypothesis, the law of interference** and the **monitor model**, which all seem to suggest that one-to-one literal translation correspondences are easier to produce than non-literal translations, as the latter presumably require more effort (Schaeffer and Carl 2014: 29). These obligatory shifts are the interlingual challenges that require advanced interlingual text production skills from the translator. For this reason, the analysis in the empirical study focused on the ST chunks involving an obligatory shift in translation. The complete design, method, and material of the empirical study will be explained in Section 5. Prior to that, I will briefly discuss the concept of an obligatory shift in translation studies in general and as a test for situation-based TC in the present study.

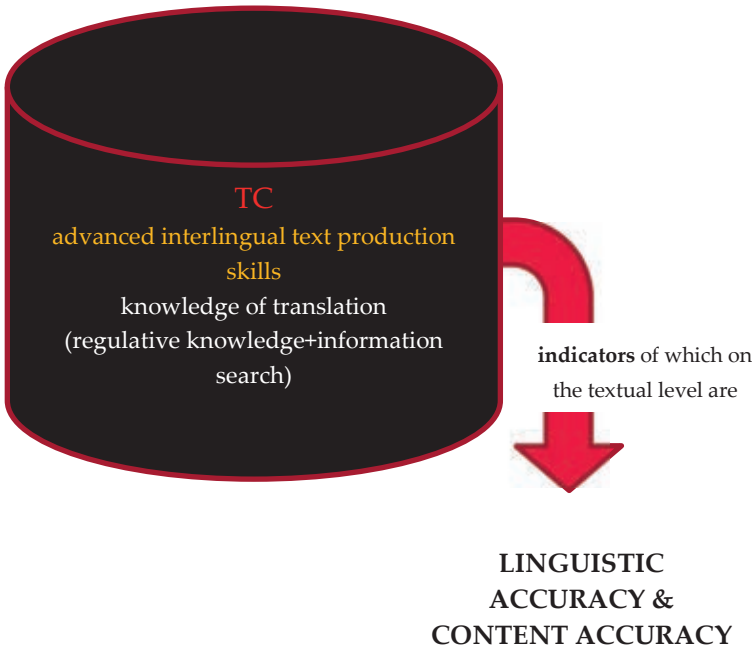


Figure 10. The situation-based TC and its indicators in the present study.

4.3.3 Obligatory shift as a test for situation-based TC

According to Palumbo (2009: 113), a shift[24] is "a linguistic deviation from the original text, a change introduced in translation with respect to either the syntactic form or the meaning of the ST". Bakker et al. (2008) offer a broad definition of shifts as "changes that occur or may occur in the process of translating". Chesterman (2005: 26) states that "shifts are observable as kinds of difference between target and source." Shifts may be obligatory or optional: Vinay and Darbelnet (1958/1995: 16,) introduced the notions of **servitude** and **option** to differentiate between the two translation procedures. Servitude referred to obligatory change because of linguistic differences between SL and TL, whereas option referred to non-obligatory changes resulting from a translator's own choices and style. However, the line between an obligatory and an optional shift in translation is not necessarily easy to draw. Van Leuven-Zwart (1984, 1989) expresses a doubt about the applicability of the distinction into obligatory and optional changes, arguing that not until the effects of the microstructural shifts on the macrostructural level have been established will it be possible to determine to what extent the shifts are made by other than purely linguistic factors, i.e. to which extent they are obligatory. Moreover, the definitions of an obligatory shift as a theoretical concept vary.

Toury (1980: 116) defines obligatory shifts as **rule-governed** and as such, linguistically motivated, arising from the different linguistic systems, and optional as **norm-**

[24] See Cyrus (2009) for a detailed account of the development of the concept of 'translation shift' in translation studies.

governed, caused by stylistic or cultural reasons. The same approach is adopted by House (2004: 204), who makes a difference between linguistic system-internal sources and other sources, where the first can be divided into obligatory and optional linguistic choices. Obligatory linguistic choices refer to "instances of explicitations that translators have to perform in order to achieve a grammatically well-formed target text", whereas optional linguistic choices "subsume shifts not on the level of grammar, but on the level of discourse, e.g. shifts performed by the translator in order to comply with the communicative norms of the target language community".

Differently from Toury and House, Pekkanen (2010: 37) states that obligatory shifts can arise from structural-syntactic, semantic, phonological **or** cultural differences, whereas optional shifts take place without any linguistic or cultural necessity. However, according to her (ibid.38), even an intrinsically obligatory shift may be considered optional if **there are more than two alternative options** the translator can choose from. A similar conclusion is made by Serban (2013), who defines a shift as non-obligatory "whenever there are viable alternatives for the translator to choose from". However, Serban concludes that the translators, in fact, very often do have viable alternatives to choose from, and translators evaluate obligatoriness and optionality in different ways, there are norms and conventions in operation, as well as a host of contextual factors, influencing views on what should be considered obligatory or not, and in which circumstances. Almost two decades earlier, Toury (1995: 57) made a similar remark, stating that deviation from the ST patterns can always be realized in more than one way (though the realization is governed by various norms).

If obligatoriness/optionality is based on the choice of strategies the translator has in each case, the number of obligatory shifts in translation is bound to be small, since the situations in which a translator has only one viable option at her disposal are limited in number. Kinga Klaudy (2003: 162), who works between English and Hungarian, also discusses the problem of defining obligatory transfers, concluding that source-language forms that have to be transformed due to differences in lexical or grammatical systems between working languages can have numerous equivalents in the target language, and the choice between them is not determined by the SL form but by completely different considerations. In other words, differences between the [SL and TL] systems do not automatically determine [TL] solutions (Klaudy 2009: 290). On the contrary, such differences (e.g. the lack of gender-specific pronouns in Finnish) "only mean that one road is blocked, but many other roads are open" (ibid.). According to Klaudy (2003: 162), such transformations are obligatory rather than optional transfer operations, despite the fact that there are many possible ways to carry out the shift. The present study follows Klaudy's line of thinking; the number of options does not mean that the shift itself is optional.

But how to define the difference that necessitates a change? The notions of formal correspondence (Catford 1965) and formal equivalence (Nida 1964) are often used to define an obligatory shift: a shift is obligatory when formal correspondence or equivalence is not possible due to differences between languages. The concepts are, however, problematic and necessarily relative between languages with fundamental differences such as English and Finnish. According to Ivir (1981), Catford's formal correspondence hardly exists, since even closely related languages seldom have cat-

egories which would perform the same functions in their respective systems. Even a more relaxed concept of formal **closeness** can be measured in several ways, and it is not clear whether one should have priority over another: the longer the textual chunk under scrutiny, the greater the number of levels where formal correspondence, or closeness, can be measured (Chesterman 2011: 25).

Due to the problems related to these concepts, in this study obligatory shift is defined in very concrete and strict terms as follows: whenever the target system in the specific translation context does not allow **a word-for-word transfer from the ST to the TT**, or the apparent lexical equivalent of a ST word cannot be used in the TT, the shift is obligatory. Due to typological differences, few expressions can be transferred into Finnish word-for-word, since meaning is constructed by different grammatical means, as the following clauses show:

The cat is on the table.
Kissa on pöydällä.
'Cat is table-ALL'

In this expression only there are two obligatory shifts that stem from the fundamental differences between the synthetic Finnish and analytic English, i.e. prepositions versus the case system as well as use/non-use of (definite) articles.

With this approach to obligatory shifts, the number of obligatory shifts is bound to be high in a language pair English–Finnish. Some shifts, for example those stemming from the use/non-use of articles, are probably more routine to students than others. However, interlingual text production skills may be challenged at unpredictable points: it may be the case that even the most familiar difference goes amiss or causes difficulties **when emerging in a specific translation context**. For example, prepositions/case system asymmetry poses no problem when translating a simple clause in isolation, but the same asymmetry may turn out to be problematic in a larger textual context (cotext). For this reason, in this study all instances where a word-for-word procedure does not result in an accurate TT are initially considered as potential challenges to a translator's interlingual text production skills.

The following section will move on to introduce the empirical part of this study in more detail, accounting for the material, methods and aims of the study.

5 *Empirical study: material, aims and methods*

The empirical part of this study has two aims: first, to complement the model outlined in the theoretical section and second, to look into the acquisition of the skills specified in the model. To these aims, the data is analysed in two stages: first, as a mirror of skills involved in interlingual text production in general, and second, as a mirror of students' ATC processes. This section introduces the design of the empirical study: the participants, the data elicitation process as well as the methods, stages and goals of the two-staged analysis.

5.1 PARTICIPANTS

The group of participants in the study consists of seven students majoring in English language and translation at the University of Eastern Finland. The students entered the university in the autumn of 2010. To begin with, the group consisted of 23 students, but only those who attended the final translation course of BA studies during the academic year 2012–13 and did not run into technical problems with screen recording formed the final set of study participants. All participants provided written consent to use their translations, screen recordings of processes and the questionnaires gathered from them as data (see 5.2) for the study. Six of the participants are male, one is female, and they will be referred to by gender-specific pseudonyms Stu, Lee, Ian, Paul, Harry, Sam and Mia. The group of participants being dominantly male is a coincidence; the gender distribution in the original group of 23 students was almost even.

In the beginning of data collection, all participants filled in a questionnaire on their personal backgrounds, giving information about their age, education, translation-related work experience, language skills and use, hobbies, and reading habits (Appendix 1). According to the personal info questionnaires, all students participating in the study are native Finnish speakers and English is their first foreign language; they all have studied English from the age of 9. Their educational background is homogenous in that they all have graduated from upper secondary school in Finland. None of the participants has lived abroad. With regard to their skills of English and their mother tongue Finnish, the grades gained in the final exams of the upper secondary school range from *eximia* to *laudatur* in English and *cum laude* to *eximia* in Finnish[25]. None of them report

[25] The seven-point grading scale in the final exams of the Finnish upper secondary school from top to bottom: laudatur (the highest grade), eximia, magna cum laude, cum laude, lubenter, approbatur, improbatur (fail).

having previous experience in translation. They were between 19 and 25 years of age at the time of their enrolment.

The participants filled in a personal information questionnaire also at the end of their BA studies, with slightly different questions (Appendix 2). None of the students reported having carried out translation outside the training context during BA studies (apart from helping friends or relatives or translating just for fun). At this point, students were also asked about their own perceptions of themselves as translators.

5.2 DATA ELICITATION

5.2.1 First round of data collection

The first set of data was collected at the beginning of the participants' BA studies and the second near the end of their BA studies. The 1st year data was collected at the earliest point of BA studies that was practically possible. This was after six weeks of studies as a part of the course **Introduction to Translation Studies.** Prior to the translation task, students answered two questionnaires regarding their knowledge of translation as a phenomenon: First, they answered open questions on translation (Appendix 3), and after handing it in, closed questions on the same topic (Appendix 4). In the open questions students were asked what they think translation is, what is a 'typical translator' like and what skills, in their opinion, are needed for translation, and what is the most important skill. Moreover, three statements about translation were given (Translator translates **words/clauses or sentences/meanings**), and students were asked to choose the one that is closest to their understanding of translation, justifying the choice. In the closed questions, students either agreed or disagreed with six statements about translation on a five-point scale (agree – partly agree – partly disagree – disagree – cannot say). The closed questions are based on the questionnaire used by PACTE (2008: 121–124).

The 1st year source text (ST) was an article about the movie **Shawshank Redemption** in the book 501 Must-See Movies, and the translation brief was to translate the English article into Finnish for the Finnish edition of the book (Appendix 5). This particular text was chosen because its translational challenges arise mainly from interlingual differences between the working languages. The text was expected to be easy to understand, but not necessarily easy to translate due to interlingual challenges.

The students were instructed to translate the text with Camtasia screen recording software running during the process. Camtasia software captures all actions taking place on the screen during translation. Instructions on the use of Camtasia as well as the text to be translated were given out in a teacher-led session, but the students could translate the text whenever they pleased within the given deadline of two weeks. This arrangement was due to practical reasons: the Camtasia software was installed in a computer lab seating a maximum of fifteen students. The total number of students being 23 in the beginning, the group would have had to be split in any case, and finding a time that suits everyone in the group would have been challenging.

This arrangement may have influenced the students' translation process as there is no way of knowing the extent to which the students had familiarized themselves with the ST before the recording session; indeed, some students reported having ori-

ented themselves towards the translation beforehand by doing dictionary look-ups before the actual drafting phase, which then proceeds with few interruptions due to lexical searches. However, the analysis focuses on those ST chunks that appeared problematic irrespective of any work prior to the recording session. The recordings show a substantial amount of interruptions in the processing of STs requiring a shift, and the interruptions showed similar patterns to the extent that it was possible to see which ST segments were most challenging to the students.

After having translated the text and recorded the translation process with Camtasia, the students filled in a commentary (Appendix 6) in which they evaluated the level of difficulty of the source text with regard to comprehension and with regard to translation, both on the scale **easy – average – difficult**. In addition, they were requested to state whether they encountered any difficulties during translation and specify them. They were also asked about their own satisfaction with their translation.

5.2.2 Second round of data collection

The second round of data collection was carried out partially in the autumn of 2012 and partially in the spring of 2013, during the 3rd year of BA studies in the final translation course within the BA degree. At this point, the number of participants had reduced to 12, which was to be expected; students progress at their own pace, many of them spending a year abroad either studying or working after the first or second year of their BA programmes. Half of the students attended the course in the autumn of 2012 (first semester of their final BA year) and the second half in the spring of 2013 (second semester in their final BA year). The 3rd year ST was an article about the movie **American Beauty** in the book *501 Must-See Movies* (Appendix 5). The text was slightly manipulated in order to make the translation situations more comparable with regard to the nature of interlingual challenges; there are six textual chunks in the 3rd year ST that imitate the problematic ST chunks in the 1st year experiment, entailing the same or similar interlingual difference. The manipulated text was proofread by a native speaker of English (working as a lecturer of English language and translation at the UEF) before having it translated by the students.

This time, another screen recording program, CamStudio, had to be used due to a technological problem with Camtasia: the Camtasia version installed at the computer lab turned out to be incompatible with Windows 8. This did not change the nature of recording sessions as such, since both programs work on the same principle. However, CamStudio turned out to be less functional as a program; it produces large video files, which resulted in saving problems. In the end, seven students' recordings of the 3rd year experiments were complete and the incomplete recordings had to be excluded from the data. The translation was carried out during one session, although the students were told they could use all the time they need for the translation.

After having translated the 3rd year text, the students filled in a commentary, evaluating the level of difficulty of the ST with regard to comprehension and to translation; describing the potential difficulties encountered in the translation process; and evaluating their level of satisfaction with the translation (Appendix 7). After this, the students also filled in two questionnaires on their knowledge of translation. These were similar to those filled in during the 1st year.

5.2.3 Complete set of data and its use

The complete set of data collected for the empirical study is summarized in Table 1 below.

Table 1. Research data.

	Product data	**Process data**	**Auxiliary data**
1st set of data	Translation from English into Finnish Source text from 501 Must-See Movies, introduction to the movie The Shawshank Redemption. 266 words	Screen recording of the translation process (Camtasia)	• personal info: background • questionnaire into the concept of translation (open questions) • questionnaire into the concept of translation (closed questions) • questionnaire into the perceived problems in the translation assignment (commentary)
2nd set of data	Translation from English into Finnish Manipulated source text from 501 Must-See Movies, introduction to the movie The American Beauty. 295 words.	Screen recording of the translation process (CamStudio)	• personal info: translation-related experience, self-assessment • questionnaire into the concept of translation (open questions), same as 1st year • questionnaire into the concept of translation (closed questions) same as 1st year • questionnaire into the perceived problems in the translation assignment (commentary)

As Table 1 shows, the study involves product data, i.e. translations, process data (screen recordings), and auxiliary data, i.e. questionnaires. Different types of data shed light on different elements of the situation-based TC (see 4.3.2). **The product and the process data** are analysed for the textual level indicators of **advanced interlingual text production skills**. **Auxiliary data** sheds light on the other elements of situation-based TC: questionnaires about translation tell about students' **knowledge about translation**, and the commentaries reflected to a student's overall process can give an idea of a student's **regulative knowledge**. Personal information about students is not analysed as indicative of situation-based TC as such, but it may be discussed in the analysis of individual performances as a possible explanation for certain phenomena in the translation processes.

5.3 DELIMITING THE PRODUCT DATA

Since the interest of this study lies in interlingual skills, the product analysis focuses on those textual chunks that provide the greatest challenge to a translator's interlingual text production skills. It is assumed that such challenges are related to ST chunks that require an **obligatory shift** in translation (see 4.3.3). Obligatory shift is required when a deviation from the word-for-word structure of the ST is necessary due to interlingual differences. However, it can be assumed that some shifts are rou-

tine to all Finnish students with an advanced level of English: for example, dealing with the English definite and indefinite articles in translation into Finnish – in which such articles do not exist – rarely poses a problem and a translation is carried out with apparent automaticity. Not all interlingual differences provide a similar challenge to interlingual text production skills. Since this study is interested in the way interlingual challenges are handled, the interlingual differences that are handled with apparent ease by all students are not of interest. Knowing in advance which interlingual differences are routine and which are not is, however, impossible.

To be able to pinpoint the textual chunks that challenge the students' interlingual text production skills, the ST chunks chosen for the analysis arise from the material, i.e. the students' processes. Therefore, the processes were analysed for **interruptions**, since an interruption implies **marked processing** (Jääskeläinen 1999: 162), or **uncertainty** (Angelone 2010: 18), a cognitive state of indecision which, in this case, is assumedly caused by the recognized need to deviate from a word-for-word processing. **Only those ST chunks that require an obligatory shift *and* cause an interruption in the translation process of at least three students are selected for analysis**. If several students' processes are interrupted at the same points, the interruption is more likely to be caused by interlingual differences rather than by other reasons, such as lack of concentration or tiredness. Such a material-based approach to obligatory shifts excludes the differences that seem to be solved automatically in translation by all students. On the other hand, the approach enables the inclusion of instances in which an apparently basic difference between the languages turns out to be problematic **because of the textual context** (cotext) it is used in: some interlingual differences may be handled automatically in simple clauses but may turn problematic when embedded in complex sentences.

In this study, interruptions were operationalized as **revisions**, **use of reference material**, **postponed/alternative solutions**, and **pauses** that were observable in the process data. These will be discussed briefly in the following subsection.

5.3.1 Revisions

Revisions, i.e. changes in the translation manuscript, have generally been considered to signal a cognitive effort and thus a problem in the process. Krings (1986: 120 ff.) regards a change in the translation as a secondary problem indicator that calls for another problem indicator in order to qualify as an identifier of a translation problem, i.e. to distinguish between marked and unmarked processing. Jääskeläinen (1990: 175 ff., 1999: 166), however, considers changes in the translation manuscript as primary indicators of marked processing, and as such sufficient indicators for problem identification on their own (1999: 164).

What counts as **revision** varies. As Antunović and Pavlović (2011) state, revision is but one of the various terms given to the changes in the already existing target text. According to them, revision, correction, editing, reviewing, rereading, checking and quality control have sometimes been used synonymously without transparent distinction criteria. Some scholars, however, make a distinction between editing and revisions: for example Asadi and Séguinot (2005: 524) distinguish between *edits*, which are defined as immediate revisions in the target text, and *revisions*, which are not actually

given a specific definition. Angelone (2010), in turn, regards revision as one of the editing activities, along with addition and deletion, without further specification. Pym (2011) defines editing as "the making of amendments to a text in a situation where linear progression is either absent", e.g. in machine translation, or "completed", that is, when the drafting is completed. Some scholars, such as Antunović and Pavlović (2011) have chosen to use the term self-revision to clarify that the revising is carried out by the translator herself as a part of the translation process rather than by an outside reader as a 'other-revision' (Mossop 2007: 167). However, most process studies do not specifically point that out but use revising or revision for corrections that are made by the translator.

Furthermore, the concept of revision can be further specified according to the phase in which revision takes place in the translation process. First, changes made to the target text during the writing phase are sometimes called **online revisions** (Jakobsen 2003: 193, Dragsted 2012), whereas changes that occur after the writing phase can be referred to as **end revision** (Jakobsen 2003: 80). Pym (2011) prefers **in-draft revision** for the corrections during the drafting phase and **post-draft revision** for those carried out after the drafting phase. Englund Dimitrova (2005: 16), however, takes revision to refer to the textual changes and defines it as any change to the target text. This is also the definition adopted in the present study: all changes that somehow change the existing target text are regarded as revision, including additions and deletions. Distinguishing between revisions during different phases in the translation process seems irrelevant here; revision is regarded first and foremost as an indicator of a possible interlingual challenge, no matter at which point it occurs.

In this study, simple typing errors that are corrected immediately are not considered as revisions. Englund-Dimitrova (2005: 115) also dismisses typos in her analysis as being only of marginal relevance to the translation process. Antunović and Pavlović (2011: 214) also remain unconvinced of the connection between typos and cognitive processes, although acknowledge its possible relevance as an indicator of translator's monitoring patterns, pointed out by Jakobsen (2003: 81). Muñoz (2009: 167) also suggests that typos might be motivated not only by feeble typing skills or small keyboards but also by attentional lapses, and might as such be of interest in studies into cognitive processes in translation.

5.3.2 Use of reference material and alternative/postponed solutions

In both Krings's (1986: 121) categorisation as well as Jääskeläinen's (1990: 175 ff., 1999: 166) modified model, consultation or "using reference material" is regarded as a primary problem indicator. PACTE (e.g. 2005) following Alves (1995, 1997) refers to resource consultation as **external support,** meaning all kinds of information resources the translator relies on during problem-solving, as opposed to **internal support,** which refers to a translator's cognitive resources drawn upon problem-solving, i.e. in cases where a translator provides a solution without consulting any dictionary or other source of information. The present study considers information search as a possible marker of a challenging interlingual difference. It should be noted, however, that a simple dictionary look-up can signal a comprehension problem on a lexical level rather than an uncertainty caused by an interlingual difference. Furthermore, some students reported having checked unknown vocabulary before the recording

session started; hence, not all dictionary look-ups are observable in the recordings. However, since the analysis focuses on those ST chunks that were problematic to three or more students and since the use of reference material is only one indicator of possible problem spots in interlingual processing among many others, excluding them altogether from the process of establishing textual chunks for competence analysis seems unnecessary.

Alternative solutions or postponed solutions are also taken as indicators of possible interlingual challenges. A student may offer two, or even more, alternative solutions to a specific ST chunk, or may postpone her solution, adding, for example, three dots or question marks in the product as a reminder to return to the relevant ST chunk later on. Also a **highlighted TT solution** is taken to imply interlingual challenge, even if no action is eventually taken upon highlighting.

5.3.3 Pauses

A **pause** in this study is defined as a period during which no writing nor information search takes place in the recorded data. Pauses can signal difficulties in interlingual text production. According to the results from writing process research pauses may also be indicators of other cognitive processes, especially planning, and the length of pauses often correlates with the linguistic units that are being planned in these pauses (Spellman Miller 2006: 15 ff.). Pauses are often taken to signal cognitive processing in translation as well, the location of pauses indicating where planning and problem-solving and/or evaluation occur, thus setting the boundaries of segments (or translation units) (e.g. Englund-Dimitrova 2005: 29, Asadi and Séguinot 2005: 525; Dragsted and Hansen 2008, Dragsted 2012: 92). Thus, a pause may signal a shift from one segment of text to another, or serve as an indicator of difficulties, of problems encountered in the translation process. According to Dragsted (2012: 92), long pauses indicate a relatively larger cognitive effort caused by some kind of complexity. A problem may be related to the next chunk in the source text which a translator is pondering on, or as Schilperoord (1996: 11) states, a pause may signal a problem that is perceived in the translated text, requiring monitoring and revision actions of the previously produced segments.

What pause duration indicates a problem is, however, a question with no simple, standard answer: each study in the field of translation process research must operationalize the pause for its purpose and define the minimum pause length for the analysis (Englund-Dimitrova 2005: 96–97). Krings (1986: 137), Jakobsen (2003: 89) and Alves and Vale (2009: 255) point out that it is not clear how long an interruption in the text production process should be to qualify as a pause. Including pauses that are very short would lead to the identification of automatic processes which do not relate to problem-solving, whereas long pauses may leave a translator's behavioural pattern in the dark. Whatever the value chosen to signify a "significant pause", it is bound to be arbitrary (Englund-Dimitrova 2005: 96–97), since there is no way of knowing when exactly a pause in a translator's processing is long enough to signal a problem or planning –– or processing effort due to differences in working languages.

The variation in operationalizing the pause can be explained by different objectives of studies as well as different data collection methods (see Kumpulainen 2015).

In some studies, the boundary of a meaningful pause is set at 3 seconds (Krings 1986, Angelone 2010 and Göpferich 2010). Lörscher (1991b: 109) sets the minimum value at 2 seconds. For Jensen (2000), a meaningful pause is 4 seconds. Dragsted et al. (2009) consider a significant pause length to be 2.5 seconds, whereas in a study reported a year later (Dragsted 2010), pauses of more than 1 second are taken into account. In 2004, Dragsted chose to calculate the size of the translation unit in relative times with respect to the individual typing speed and the time spent by each of her subjects – thus, the length of significant pauses is also individual. Jakobsen (2003) and Englund-Dimitrova (2005) include pauses of a minimum of 5 seconds in their analyses, while Jakobsen (1998) and Alves et al. (2010) set the limit to 1 second. According to Jakobsen (1998: 84), pauses of more than 10 seconds that appear less systematically (i.e. excluding text initial and final delays and delays between paragraphs) signify particularly difficult text segments. In Alves and Vale (2009), a significant pause length is 5–6 seconds. PACTE (2005) also takes intervals of a minimum of 5 seconds into account when looking at problem indicators in a translation process. For Immonen (2006, 2011), even pauses of 0.01 seconds are of interest.

It should be noted, however, that although pauses can indicate cognitive processing, they can be influenced by a number of other factors, and with current methodologies it is virtually impossible to specify what exactly motivates a particular pause (O'Brien 2006: 7); a pause can also result from a distraction that is unrelated to the text production process. To mitigate for this, it is worthwhile to look at pauses in the processes in conjunction with what happens in their immediate neighbourhood (Schilperoord 2001: 61). Therefore, in the present study a pause alone – irrespective of its length – is not regarded as an indicator of interlingual challenge. A pause is treated as a secondary indicator of effort, similarly to Krings (1986): it implies uncertainty only if it coincides with revision or information search in the other students' performance when dealing with the same textual chunk. For example, if three students make revisions when translating the textual chunk This supposition becomes assumption and two students merely pause for a long time prior to translating it, those pauses are treated as problem indicators. However, if all students only pause before translating a ST chunk, pausing is not regarded as sign of a problem, since there is no observable processing effort in the data, such as revisions.

In this study, 'a significant pause' is a pause that is long enough to signal a problem in dealing with interlingual difference in translation. Hence, a pause needs to be long enough to eliminate fluent text production speed. The data suggests that this limit cannot be set lower than 3 seconds: some students seem to proceed at a relatively peaceful rate even when there is no apparent reason for interruption in the process. On the other hand, some students are fast writers, and in their processes a pause of less than three seconds seems to indicate some kind of a problem. However, with screen recording data elicited with the older version of Camtasia and CamStudio, pauses need to be measured manually by checking the timer at the start and the end of pause. With such a method, no exact timings are possible, and pauses shorter than three seconds are difficult to register (see Kumpulainen 2015). As a compromise, the value of a pause that marks an interruption in the flow of translation is set at 3 seconds in this study.

5.4 THE FINAL PRODUCT DATA

The final product data comprises the ST chunks which 1) caused interruptions, identified by the indicators listed above, in at least three students' translation processes, **and** 2) pose an interlingual challenge, i.e. entail an obligatory shift in translation. These are the ST chunks to be analysed for content accuracy and linguistic accuracy, the textual-level indicators of situation-based TC, **in all students' translations**. In the following section, the two sets of final product data will be accounted for: the first set of data (collected at the beginning of BA training) will be introduced first, followed by the second set of data (collected at the end of BA training). The reason for an obligatory shift, i.e. the interlingual difference that necessitates deviation from a literal translation, will be briefly explained in each case.

5.4.1 ST chunks focused on in the 1st set of data

Below, the ST translated by the students in the 1st year task is given in full. The ST chunks that are focused on in the study are **bolded**, and numbered. In what follows, these ST chunks are discussed in relation to the TL norms, i.e. the nature of the interlingual difference and hence the reason for an obligatory shift in translation will be explained.

> The Shawshank Redemption
> When Andy Dufresne's wife and her lover **1 are found murdered**, **having been shot in bed,** her husband (Robbins) is the prime suspect. This **2 supposition** swiftly becomes **assumption**, as it emerges that Andy had discovered the affair and the couple had a heated, **3 alcohol-fuelled** argument shortly before the murders took place. When circumstantial evidence is added to the obvious motive, the only possible outcome is conviction. And so, as Andy begins his life sentence in Shawshank Jail, the film begins **4 in earnest**.
>
> *The Shawshank Redemption* examines issues such as hope, despair, friendships in times of adversity and the harsh realities of a life sentence. **5 However, it is human resilience that is lingered on** throughout the film and, **6 for this to be fully explored**, Andy is paired up with the reflective 'Red' (Freeman) who provides **7 the voice-over to Andy's silent initiation and eventual apparent resignation to his situation.** Andy is the archetypal example of just how much physical and mental torment human beings can endure and, like everyone else in prison, Andy learns to get by. His business background and obvious education elevates him to a **8 certain status**, as he takes on the role of accountant to the prison's staff. **9 Despite** this surface display of equality, it isn't long before Andy is reminded, **10 in no uncertain terms**, that he will always be a con, **11 inferior to all but fellow cons**, **9 regardless of** his brain. However, it is Andy who has the last laugh.
>
> *The Shawshank Redemption* **12 arrived quietly 13 then escalated** as word spread and people fell in love with this simple tale of human traits.

Table 2 below shows the interruptions in students' processes when translating the bolded ST chunks. The interlingual differences assumed to cause interruptions are explained below the table.

Table 2. Interruptions in the 1st year process.

	Sam	Stu	Harry	Lee	Ian	Paul	Mia
1	(PAUSES ONLY)	REVISION	REVISION		REVISION		(PAUSES ONLY)
2	(PAUSES ONLY)	REVISION, DICT USE	(PAUSES ONLY)	REVISION	(PAUSES ONLY)	REVISION	DICT USE, (PAUSES)
3	REVISION	POSTPONEMENT, REVISION		REVISION		REVISION, HIGHLIGHTING	
4	REVISION	REVISION, DICT USE	(PAUSES ONLY)		REVISION		
5	REVISION	REVISION, DICT USE	(PAUSES ONLY)	REVISION	(PAUSES ONLY)		REVISION
6	REVISION	REVISION	REVISION	REVISION	REVISION		REVISION
7	REVISION	REVISION, POSTPONEMENT	(PAUSES ONLY)	(PAUSES ONLY)	REVISION		REVISION, DICT USE, INFO SEARCH
8	REVISION			REVISION	REVISION		REVISION
9		REVISION		REVISION		REVISION?	REVISION
10	REVISION	DICT USE, POSTPONEMENT, REVISION					REVISION
11	REVISION	REVISION		REVISION	REVISION	REVISION	(PAUSES ONLY)
12	(PAUSES ONLY)	REVISION	(PAUSES ONLY)	REVISION	REVISION		(PAUSES ONLY)
13		REVISION	(PAUSES ONLY)			REVISION?	

1) are found murdered, having been shot in bed

Five students' flow of translation was interrupted when translating this ST chunk: three revised and two paused. The ST chunk cannot be translated word-for-word for the following interlingual differences:

a) While the English passive structure involves a grammatical subject, in Finnish passive this is not the case; there is no finite verb in the Finnish passive structure. This interlingual difference may be handled with ease in some other context; in this textual context most interruptions in the students' processes occur when the reduced clause comes up. The fact that the passive structure is also used in the reduced clause following 'murdered' makes things complicated from the Finnish point of view. The Finnish 'standard' passive cannot be used in a reduced clause, since the reduced clause requires a grammatical subject which the Finnish passive does not have. In this textual context, then, the ST passive form poses an interlingual challenge.

b) While English operates with prepositions, Finnish has a comprehensive case system; hence the need for an obligatory shift in the translation of the adverbial phrase *in bed*. This shift may be challenging because the standard equivalent for the preposition *in* the Finnish case system, the inessive case with *-ssa*-ending, is not norm-abiding here: the verb *löytää* ('to find'), when complemented with a place adverbial, requires the elative case in Finnish (ending *-sta,* 'from'). When analysing the translation of this ST chunk as a TL expression, the accuracy of the whole clause will be considered – even if the verb structure is translated accurately, the adverb may prove inaccurate.

2) This supposition swiftly becomes assumption, as…

All seven students' processes were interrupted at this point. Three students revised the chunk, one of them with dictionary look-ups. The rest paused for a long time, one of them also with dictionary look-ups.

In this case, the interlingual difference and hence, the difficulty in translation, lies in the lexical pair *supposition – assumption* in which the lexical items appear synonymous, although, in this case, they are not. Monolingual dictionaries define the items in a very similar way:

> **supposition**: an idea or statement which someone believes or assumes to be true, although they may have no evidence for it; a formal use, and
> **assumption**: If you make an **assumption** that something is true or will happen, you accept that it is true or will happen, often without any real proof. (Collins Cobuild)

In this text, the items differ in meaning: assumption is a stronger belief than supposition. In Finnish, a corresponding lexical pair is hard to find. For example in the MOT-dictionary (often used by the students), both words receive the same equivalents 'oletus, olettamus, otaksuma', and monolingual Finnish dictionaries (e.g. Kielitoimiston sanakirja, 'Finnish Dictionary by the Institute for Languages of Finland') defines the words as synonyms. There is no difference with regard to the strength of belief among this set of dictionary equivalents. Therefore, a shift is needed, and it arises from semantic incongruence between the English lexical items and their prototypical dictionary equivalents in Finnish in this specific situation.

3) alcohol-fuelled

The flow of four students' translation process was interrupted when transferring the adjective *alcohol-fuelled* into Finnish. All four revised it, and two of them also had other interruptions in the process: one postponed the solution and the other highlighted the suggested solution. In Finnish, compound adjectives cannot be formed by combining noun+past participle of a verb into a single lexical item, though a noun can be the first constituent and the participle forms can be used as a latter part in adjective phrases that are composed of two separate lexical items. Moreover, in the two-word adjectives the first noun is always inflected in some case other than the nominative. In other words, there are differences in how the words within the phrase/compound

noun can be combined. Another interlingual difference observable here is that there is no corresponding, conventionalized, similarly concise equivalent in the Finnish language for the combination of words *alcohol* and *fuelled*. Its meaning is "argument that is powered by alcohol (and gets worse because of it)". It is the latter part of the compound that poses the problem: the prototypical dictionary equivalent of *fuelled* (*fuel* 'tankata', 'olla jonkin polttoaineena') does not lend itself to be used in such a compound in Finnish as it does in English.

4) the film begins in earnest

Three students revised the idiom *in earnest,* with one looking the idiom up in the dictionary. One student pauses for a long time prior to translating the expression.

Idioms rarely translate word by word, and this is no exception; in this case, English preposition system vs. Finnish case system already rules out the possibility of a word-for-word solution.

5) However, it is human resilience that is lingered on throughout the film

Four students revised this ST chunk, one of them also interrupting translation for dictionary look-ups. In addition, two students' processes were interrupted by pauses.

A word-for-word translation of this ST chunk is impossible for the following reasons:

a) The clause begins with the cohesive marker *however*, which in this expression takes initial position and is in English separated from the surrounding text by a comma; in standard Finnish, the corresponding cohesive marker *kuitenkin* is usually placed within the clause and it is not separated by a comma.

b) The it-cleft clause structure, the double function of which is to introduce the concept of 'human resilience' as well as to emphasize its significance in the film. The structure is formed by the pronoun *it*, the third singular form of the verb *be* and the emphasized element followed by a relative-like dependent clause introduced by *that*. In this case, the relative-like clause is in the passive form, with *that* as its grammatical subject. A structure similar to the it-cleft structure can be used in spoken Finnish (e.g. **se on** ihmisen sitkeys **johon** paneudutaan… > '**it is** human resilience **that** is lingered on…') but the use of an empty *it* as a grammatical subject does not abide to the standard Finnish grammar norms.

c) The passive form *is lingered on*. As explained earlier, the Finnish and English passives are formed by different means; whenever there is a passive form in the ST chunk, translation entails an obligatory shift.

6) and, for this to be fully explored, Andy is paired up with the reflective 'Red' (Freeman)

Translation of this ST chunk was revised by six students. The ST chunk is a complement clause with a *to*-infinitive structure; in addition, the verb is in the passive form. Finnish does not allow such a structure, since the passive form does not involve a finite verb; there is no such thing as the passive infinitive in Finnish. The ST *to*-infinitive passive clause also takes a subject of its own, which is introduced by the preposition *for*; in Finnish, *for* has no preposition equivalent. Hence, transferring the

ST chunk word-for-word, using semantically similar lexical items and similar structure is not possible but a shift is obligatory.

7) the voice-over to Andy's silent initiation and eventual apparent resignation to his situation,

Translation flow at this point of the ST was interrupted in six students' processes: four revised, one had dictionary look-ups and information searches in addition to revision and one revised after first having postponed the first suggestion. Moreover, two students had long pauses in their processes.

The ST chunk is a complex noun phrase constituted of a noun phrase (*voice-over*) that is followed by a complex prepositional phrase that embeds a further prepositional phrase. Such a structure is enabled by the preposition system. The higher-level prepositional phrase comprises several noun phrases, which, in turn, have many adjectives as premodifiers. English, as an analytical language, can place the head of the noun phrase (NP) as first word of the phrase and add modifiers with the help of prepositions after the head. The obligatory shift in this case arises from the basic difference between analytical and synthetic languages (such as Finnish): in the latter, the case system (or some other means) must be applied to express grammatical relations between words within phrases. Therefore, word-for-word translation is not possible. The complexity of the ST noun phrase is likely to add to the challenge of this interlingual difference.

8) certain status

The innocent-looking collocation *certain status* was revised by four students.

The shift in the translation of *certain* is obligatory due to partly different semantic fields of *certain* and its apparent Finnish equivalent *tietty*. In the ST, *certain* is used in the meaning 'of a specific but unspecified character, quantity, or degree' (Merriam Webster Online Dictionary), whereas the Finnish *tietty* refers to something that is commonly known and can be specified, although is often used erroneously. The dictionary by the Institute for the Language of Finland, for example, defines *tietty* as *tiedossa oleva* ('known'), or *tunnettu* ('known', 'recognized'), *selvä* ('clear'), and points out that if *tietty* is used to refer to something that is not clearly known, some other word would often be more appropriate. This semantic incongruence necessitates a shift: the prototypical dictionary equivalent of *certain* changes the ST meaning.

9) despite…regardless

Translation of the sentence ***Despite*** *this surface display of equality, it isn't long before Andy is reminded,* ***in no uncertain terms****, that he will always be a con,* ***inferior to all but fellow cons, regardless*** *of his brain*, was interrupted in more than three students' process at three points: ST chunks 9–11 are parts of this sentence.

First, translation of the adpositions *despite* and *regardless of*, used in the same sentence, calls for a shift: In Finnish, there are no two synonymous adpositions available that could be used in this context. The most obvious translation of both words into Finnish is *huolimatta*, the use of which within the same sentence twice is stylistically not a good choice. Hence, a shift is needed in translation. Four students revised either

the first adverbial clause or the final adverbial clause, paying attentions to these two adpositions in particular.

10) in no uncertain terms

Three students' flow of translation was interrupted when translating this chunk: they all revised their TT, one also looking up words in the dictionary and postponing his initial solution. Translation of this idiom does not allow a word-for-word procedure; an expression with a similar meaning must be constructed differently in Finnish both with regard to structure (a prepositional phrase) as well as lexical items.

11) inferior to all but fellow cons

Five students revised and one paused for a long time when translating this ST chunk, a graded adjective construction composed of the adjective + preposition + a noun phrase.

The following interlingual differences necessitate a shift in translation of this ST chunk:

a) There is no preposition equivalent to *to* in the Finnish language.
b) The lexical item *inferior* coupled with the preposition *to* has a comparative meaning which resides in the lexical element itself and is not created by grammatical means (by adding the comparative suffix *–er* or a separate lexical element *more*). In Finnish, a corresponding lexical item where the comparative meaning is inherent in the word does not exist.
c) The idiom *all but* within the phrase resists a word-for-word translation into Finnish using the first dictionary equivalent of *but,* which is *mutta*: *kaikki mutta* is unidiomatic.

12) arrived quietly

The translation process of six students was interrupted when translating the collocation *arrived quietly:* three students revised the TT and three paused for a long time.

In Finnish, the closest lexical-level equivalents for the individual words do not offer an idiomatic collocation in this context: in Finnish, a person can *arrive quietly* ('saapua ääneti' or 'hiljaa'), but it is unidiomatic for a movie to *arrive quietly* without an adverbial denoting a place of arrival. Thus, the obligatory shift within the expression is due to the pragmatic difference in the SL and TL language use.

13) then escalated

The flow of translation was interrupted in three students' process when translating the textual chunk *then escalated:* two students revised the TT and one had a long pause prior to translating the chunk.

This may be due to the fact that the words *escalate* and its Finnish equivalent, the loanword *eskaloitua* or *eskaloida* behave differently. Other dictionary equivalents are for example *nousta, kohota; kiihtyä, kiihdyttää, yltyä, laajeta* (MOT English-Finnish dictionary). In Finnish, all dictionary equivalents of *escalate* require a subject other than a movie; *elokuva* ('movie') cannot *eskaloitua* ('escalate') in Finnish. Therefore, the dictionary equivalents of *escalate* cannot be used here, and a shift is necessary.

5.4.2 ST chunks focused on in the 2nd set of data

Similarly to the 1st set of product data, the 2nd set (collected near the end of BA studies) comprises 13 ST chunks with interlingual challenges. To allow controlled comparisons to be made between the way students' deal with specific types of interlingual challenges in the 1st and the 3rd year, the 3rd year text was manipulated so that it partly imitated expressions containing an obligatory shift in the 1st year text. In the 3rd year text shown below, such instances are highlighted with bold italics. These six ST chunks were included in the 3rd year task analysis automatically. These six ST chunks did, however, also appear to meet the criteria of the interruptions in at least three students' processes. The additional seven were selected according to similar principles as in the 1st year task: those causing most interruptions in the flow of translation were selected, provided that the ST chunk in question involves an obligatory shift in translation. These seven ST chunks are highlighted with **bold** in the text below. A brief explanation of why a shift is deemed obligatory in the translation of these chunks will follow.

> American Beauty
> When a film 1 **begins with the voice-over of a middle-aged man telling us** that 2 **in a year from now he'll be dead**, we may suspect 3 **we are in for** something different. This 4 ***supposition becomes assumption*** as the story starts to unfold.
>
> Lester Burnham (Spacey) is the quintessential middle-class white American male, trapped in a life that has leached him of all passion and zeal. 5 ***Despite*** the outward display of prosperity, it isn't long before we are shown, as we delve beneath this surface, that all is not roses in the Burnham household, **5 *regardless*** of the great house and fancy lifestyle. 6 **The deterioration of his marriage into a campaign of snide comments and sarcasm** and his daughter's ambivalence towards him add to Lester's depression. And so, when he catches the eye of his daughter's beautiful friend Angela (Sunari), his life starts changing 7 ***in earnest***.
>
> **8 Lester's midlife sexual obsession with Angela** is more wake-up call than realistic chase, 9 **giving him** 10 **the whiff of excitement he once experienced**. Meanwhile, his wife embarks on an affair with a sleazy real estate agent and his daughter becomes involved with the **11 *camcorder-obsessed*** boy, Ricky, across the road. Gradually, the apparently quiet neighbourhood is revealed in all its ugly nakedness.
>
> Arriving on the scene in 1999, *American beauty* was the archetypal nineties film that examines themes such as non-conformity, beauty, and repressions in American suburbia, delving into characters' lives in an intrusive manner. The premise of the film is the search for Lester's murderer. 12 However, ***it is the road that takes each character toward the motive that is the real issue of the movie***. In the end, Lester provides 13 ***voice-over to the retrospective on the events leading up to his death and to his eventual satisfaction with his situation.***

In the following, obligatory shifts in the 2nd set of product data are explained. First, the interruptions occurring in the students' processes are given in Table 3 below.

Table 3. Interruptions in the 3rd year process.

	Sam	Stu	Harry	Lee	Ian	Paul	Mia
1	REVISION	(PAUSE ONLY)	REVISION, DICT USE	REVISION	REVISION	(PAUSES ONLY)	DICT USE
2	REVISION			REVISION	REVISION		REVISION
3	REVISION	(PAUSE ONLY)		REVISION	HIGHLIGHTING, INFO SEARCH		
4	REVISION	REVISION, DICT USE	DICT USE, (PAUSES)	REVISION	REVISION	REVISION	REVISION, DICT USE
5	REVISION	REVISION		REVISION	REVISION	REVISION	REVISION, DICT USE
6	REVISION	REVISION, DICT USE	REVISION, DICT USE	REVISION	REVISION	REVISION	REVISION, DICT USE
7	REVISION			(PAUSE ONLY)	REVISION, INFO SEARCH	(PAUSE ONLY)	
8	REVISION	REVISION		POSTPONED SOLUTION, REVISION, INFO SEARCH, DICT USE	REVISION	REVISION	REVISION, INFO SEARCH, DICT USE
9	REVISION			REVISION	REVISION	REVISION	REVISION
10	REVISION	REVISION	DICT USE, PAUSES, REVISION	REVISION	POSTPONED SOLUTION, REVISION	REVISION	REVISION, DICT USE
11	REVISION	REVISION, DICT USE	DICT USE	REVISION, QUESTION MARK	REVISION	REVISION	REVISION, DICT USE
12	REVISION	REVISION	REVISION, DICT USE	REVISION	POSTPONED SOLUTION, REVISION	REVISION	REVISION, DICT USE
13	REVISION	REVISION	REVISION, DICT USE	REVISION	REVISION, INFO SEARCH, DICT USE	(PAUSES ONLY)	REVISION,INFO SEARCH, DICT USE

ST chunks 4, 5, 7, 11, 12 and 13 resemble the 1st year ST chunks 2, 9, 4, 3, 5 and 7, respectively. These ST chunks are set in parallel in Table 4 below.

Table 4. Similar interlingual challenges in the two sets of data.

ST chunk in the 1st set of data	ST chunk in the 2nd set of data
2 supposition swiftly becomes assumption	4 supposition becomes assumption
3 alcohol-fuelled	11 camcorder-obsessed
4 in earnest	7 in earnest
5 However, it is human resilience that is lingered on	12 However, it is the road that takes each character toward the motive that is the real issue of the movie
7 the voice-over to Andy's silent initiation and eventual apparent resignation to his situation	13 voice-over to the retrospective on the events leading up to his death and to his eventual satisfaction with his situation
9 despite…, regardless of	5 despite…, regardless of

As Table 4 suggests, three ST chunks are identical in the two sets of data. The other three are similar but not identical. Camcorder-obsessed is structurally similar to alcohol-fuelled in the first 1st task: the compound adjective is built with similar constituents, a noun and a past participle form of a verb. In addition, the lexical items in the ST are such that do not easily form a compound in Finnish. ST chunk 12 in the 2nd set of data (However, it is the road that takes each character toward the motive that is the real issue of the movie**)** contains it-cleft structure as well as the clause-initial however that necessitate a shift when translated into Finnish, similarly to ST chunk 5 in the 1st set of data. Finally, ST chunk 13 in the 2nd set of data (voice-over to the retrospective on the events leading up to his death and to his eventual satisfaction with his situation**)** resembles closely the heavy NP structure with voice-over as the head noun in the 1st set of data.

The additional seven ST chunks focused on in the 3rd year task reflect the interlingual challenges encountered in the 3rd year. The seven chunks pose the following interlingual differences:

1) with the voice-over of a middle-aged man telling us

Four students revised the TT corresponding to this chunk, one with a dictionary look up. In addition, one student performed a dictionary look up and two paused for a long time.

Several interlingual differences within this expression necessitate a shift in translation:

a) The English preposition system vs. the Finnish case system: the PP starting with *with,* with an embedded *of*-construction necessitates restructuring in Finnish.
b) The reduced relative clause *telling us*: in English, the relative pronoun functioning as a subject and the finite verb can be left out in such a structure (~~who/which is~~ telling us), whereas in Finnish it cannot.

2) in a year from now he'll be dead

Four students revised their TT when translating this ST chunk.

A shift is necessary due to the use of prepositions *in* and *from*. Another structural feature that calls for an obligatory shift in translation is the future tense, which does not really have a grammatical form of its own in Finnish: reference to the future is usually expressed using the present tense. There is a verb structure that can be used in future expressions in Finnish, a so-called *tulla*-future tense ('to come'+ main verb) too, but it is often regarded as unnecessary. Nevertheless, even if one decided to use this future tense, a lexical shift takes place: *tulla* ('to come') cannot be regarded as the prototypical lexical equivalent of the modal verb *will*.

3) we are in for

Four students' processes were interrupted when dealing with this chunk: two revised the TT, one paused for a long time and one highlighted a part of it and searched for information.

The need for change arises from the prepositions, which in English enable the formation of phrasal verbs that can rarely be transferred item by item into Finnish. *To be in for something* is a structure the meaning of which must be constructed by totally different lexical items into Finnish, such as *jotakin on tiedossa* (lit. 'sth is in knowledge' = sth is about happen) or *olla lupa odottaa jotakin* (lit. 'have a licence to expect something' = sth can be expected to happen).

6) The deterioration of his marriage into a campaign of snide comments and sarcasm

All seven students revised the TT chunk corresponding to this ST chunk, three also doing dictionary look-ups.

Prepositions are at play in this expression, too, but there are additional reasons for a shift in this expression, i.e. the use of the lexical item *campaign*. Assumedly, it is used here as a metaphor referring to military actions at a war, but the prototypical equivalent *sotatoimi* (lit. 'a war act') does not collocate in Finnish with the prototypical equivalents of *snide comments* and *sarcasm*. The prototypical Finnish equivalent of *campaign* in its literary sense, i.e. *kampanja* is also unidiomatic in this context.

8) Lester's midlife sexual obsession with Angela

Six students revised when translating this ST chunk, two with additional information search and dictionary use. There seem to be two interlingual differences that may complicate the translation of this ST chunk:

a) The potential of English to build heavy NPs due to the preposition system and the fact that lexical items are not inflected for case.
b) The lexical item *midlife*. Due to reason a), using the prototypical dictionary equivalent in the same way as *midlife* is used in the ST chunk results in a slight linguistic problem in Finnish: due to the Finnish case system, all premodifiers of a head noun must be inflected for the case, which then results in the Finnish expression *Lesteri**n** keski-i**än** seksuaalinen pakkomielle*…(Lit. 'Lester**'s** midlife**'s** sexual obsession…'). The successive genitives can be regarded as slightly disturbing, blurring the grammatical relations between lexical items.

9) giving him

Translation of the clause *giving him the whiff of excitement he once experienced* was interrupted in more than three students' processes at two different points: ST chunks 9 and 10 are parts of this clause. *Giving him* is separated from what follows due to the reason that five students clearly revised this ST chunk in particular.

The interlingual difference here lies in the verb structure. This structure is used to replace a finite structure that would form a complete main clause: … *and it gives him,* where *it* would refer to the subject of the previous clause, namely *Lester's midlife sexual obsession with Angela*. While in English it is possible to form such nonfinite structures to replace finite main clauses, in Finnish a similar procedure is not possible in this textual context.

10) the whiff of excitement he once experienced

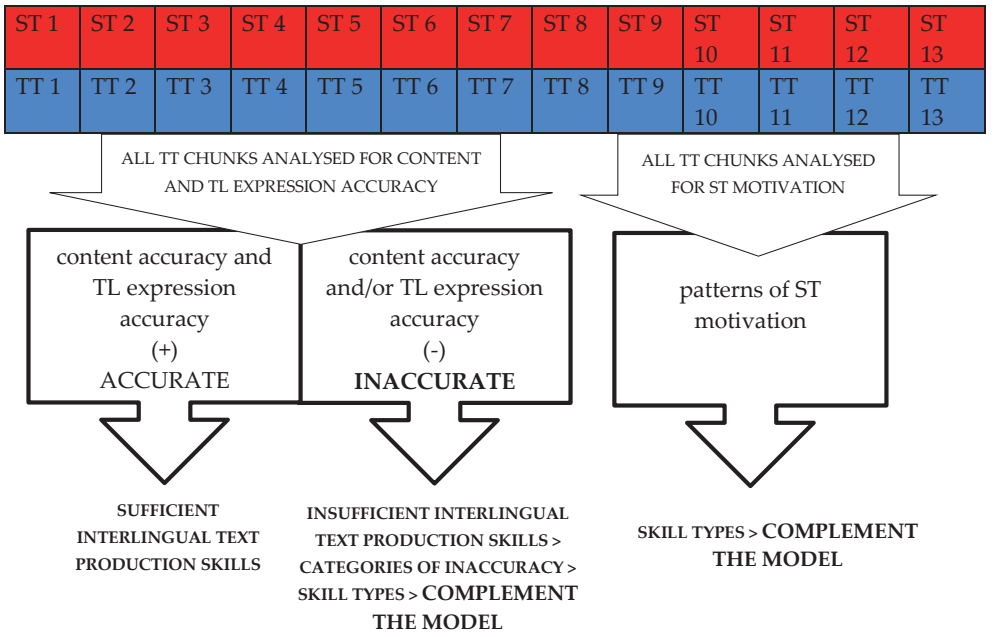
The latter part of the clause *giving him the whiff of excitement he once experienced* was revised by all seven students. In addition, two did dictionary look-ups and one postponed the first solution. The chunk entails the following interlingual differences:

a) the ellipsis of the relative pronoun from the relative subclause *he once experienced*; in Finnish, the relative pronoun cannot be left out.
b) the definite article *the* together with the relative clause *(that) he once experienced* have the semantic function which is similar to the lexical item *same* or *same kind of:* Finnish with no definite or indefinite articles must build that function by other means.
c) the preposition construction (whiff *of* excitement) cannot be transferred into Finnish word-for-word since *of* has no lexical equivalent in Finnish.

5.5 STAGES OF DATA ANALYSIS

The empirical part has two goals. The first-stage of data analysis looks at the final product data with regard to the content accuracy and linguistic accuracy, with the aim of specifying the skills involved in interlingual text production. The process data is analysed for the level of ST motivation in interim solutions and the final TT chunk. The results of the first-stage analysis are to complement the situation-based TC model with regard to the types of interlingual text production skills. These skills are the point of interest at the second-stage of data analysis. The second-stage looks at the way individual students' performance changes from the beginning of BA studies to the end with regard to different types of interlingual text production skills. This section explains the method of analysis, starting with Figure 11, which illustrates the empirical part in its totality.

1st stage of data analysis: specifying the skills and complementing the model (final product data, process data, beginning and end of BA)



2nd stage of data analysis: longitudinal study into students' ATC (final product data + process data + auxiliary data, beginning and end of BA)

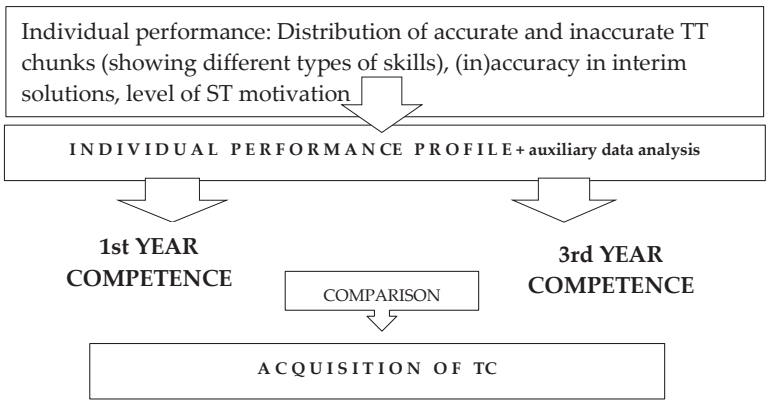


Figure 11. The complete data analysis.

In the following subsections, the methods and data used at different stages of analysis will be described.

5.5.1 First-stage of analysis: specifying the skills and complementing the model

5.5.1.1 The final product data as identifier of skills

The first-stage of data analysis looks at final product data as a whole, i.e. all seven students' translations of thirteen ST chunks both in the 1st and the 3rd year of BA studies. The data is analysed for the content accuracy and linguistic accuracy, which are considered as the indicators of TC in these two translation situations. TT chunks that are accurate with regard to language and content suggest that a student has sufficient interlingual text production skills in the situation. Inaccurate solutions, in turn, suggest an insufficiency in some type of skill.

In effect, analysing TT chunks for **content accuracy** comes down to looking at ST–TT content relation and determining what kind of content relations can be considered accurate in this specific translation situation, and what relations are inaccurate. When analysing TT chunks for **linguistic accuracy**, in turn, a TT chunk is looked at as a TL text. The analysis of TT chunks for TL accuracy was carried out by two university lecturers of Finnish in addition to myself to avoid idiosyncrasies interfering with the analysis of pragma-semantic aspects in particular. These are instances where the subjectivity of assessment is most obvious, since in many cases, there is no explicit rule or norm against which the judgment can be made. The lecturers were asked to read the whole TT from each student, but comment only on the underlined expressions, that is, the TT chunks in the final product data. The lecturers were instructed to fill in a form, stating whether they would accept the TT chunks as accurate. In case they regarded a solution as inaccurate, they were instructed to justify this. In cases where experts of Finnish disagreed, a further opinion was sought from a third expert of Finnish working at the University of Eastern Finland. The unclear cases were categorised as inaccurate if two experts, myself included, shared that opinion.

In the first-stage analysis, solutions that appear **inaccurate** are particularly significant, since they imply that some type(s) of interlingual text production skill(s) must be missing. A similar method was adopted by Hansen (2006) who linked errors and error types ('Fehler' and 'Fehlertypen') with different sources of disturbance ('Störquellen') in the translation process, with the aim to identify the underlying **reasons** behind errors. For this goal, Hansen (2006) triangulated the product data with various types of process data, including interviews and retrospection during which the participants could shed more light on the nature of their process. The inaccurate TT chunks in my study are regarded as mirrors of **skills** that seem insufficient in that specific situation. (Due to the nature of my data, the underlying reasons behind the apparent lack insufficiency cannot be accounted for, although the potential reasons are discussed, for example, in the light of Hansen's (2006) findings when introducing the results of the longitudinal study.) Therefore, inaccurate TT chunks are analysed further in order to establish **in what way** a given TT chunk appears inaccurate. By a descriptive analysis of inaccuracies, different skills needed for interlingual text production can be made more visible. In this way, the first-stage analysis complements the situation-based TC model with regard to interlingual text production skills. The empirical approach brings those skills to the fore that are **not** possessed by all BA

students participating in this study; hence, the study does not provide a complete set of skills needed for interlingual text production but focuses on those that seem challenging for the beginners in translation.

The initial assumption was that the students' interlingual text production skills are insufficient, to a varying degree, to produce a TT that is accurate both in content and as a TL text at the beginning of their training. By the end of BA training, the students' performance was expected to be more similar in terms of skills. It was also assumed that most inaccurate solutions contain linguistic inaccuracy rather than content inaccuracy, since the STs in the study were relatively easy to understand; the problems involved in translation were expected to occur when dealing with interlingual differences and/or in production of TT. Instances of content inaccuracy were nevertheless possible; they have the potential to reveal aspects of language use that may go amiss when dealing with a text that appears to be easy to understand.

5.5.1.2 Process data as identifier of skills

In the first-stage of data analysis, the final product data as well as the strings of interim solutions leading to the final TT chunks are also analysed for **level of ST motivation**. The level of ST motivation in students' translation processes sheds light on the way students seem to place themselves in between the two languages they are working with: whether they seem to stay close to the ST when working towards a solution, whether they rather reformulate the TT completely, or whether they try to balance in between them. To use Toury's (1995: 275) terminology, keeping **too** close to the ST is **negative transfer**[26]**,** which shows as "bad" ST influence in the TT. When a translator tries to balance between the languages, the process can show **positive transfer** (Toury 1995: 275), which refers to selecting (ST-motivated) features that do exist and are used in the TL. Positive transfer manifests as ST-motivated TT production in translation performance **where language systems allow**. Finally, if a translator chooses to reformulate the TT chunk completely, neither negative nor positive transfer takes place.

In the first-stage of empirical analysis, all TT chunks with interim solutions are analysed for the level of ST motivation. Different patterns emerging from this analysis are then discussed in terms of skills they may imply.

The results of the first-stage data analysis contribute to the situation-based TC model by specifying (some of) the skills needed in interlingual text production. These skills are the points of interest for the longitudinal study into students' interlingual skills, the second-stage of data analysis. It focuses on individual students' performances, which aims to shed light on differences in students' skills and ATC. At the same time, the longitudinal study reveals what kind of skills are generally challenging, i.e. what kind of interlingual differences seem challenging in general and whether there are general trends to be found in ATC.

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[26] It is to be noted that a similar ST motivation in some other translation situations might not be considered as *negative* transfer. For example, when translating everyday conversation, a high level of ST motivation can hardly be regarded as negative transfer since the quality expectations of TL output are lower. Hence, labeling ST influence as negative transfer depends on the quality expectations set on the TL outcome in a translation situation.

5.5.2 Second-stage of analysis: longitudinal study into ATC

In the second analysis, each student's product data, the process data, and the auxiliary data are analysed. The data produced by each student at the beginning of BA studies is compared to that produced at the end. Hence, it is possible to see how each student's situation-based TC has changed during training. The second-stage of data analysis puts the complemented TC model to its first test with regard to these specific aspects: the assumption is that students differ with regard to the skills specified for the model, and the analysis is expected to bring out the differences – as well as similarities – in student TC levels.

As explained in section 4.3.2, TC in the translation situation carried out in this study comprises **advanced interlingual text production skills**, and **knowledge about translation** (as a form of communication rather than mechanical transfer). In addition, a translator always needs **regulative knowledge**.

5.5.2.1 Individual analyses of product and process data

For analysing each students' **interlingual text production skills** and their acquisition, a performance profile is compiled for each student both at the beginning and at the end of BA studies. This is done on the basis of the final product data as well as process data, i.e. interim solutions prior to the final TT chunks. This profile shows the distribution of accurate and inaccurate TT chunks, showing the category of inaccuracy which then can be linked with a specific type of skill insufficiency. The accurate TT chunks, in turn, imply sufficient interlingual text production skills.

In the individual analyses, **the process data** is analysed for the **linguistic and content accuracy**: it may be the case that an accurate TT is suggested at some point of the process but for some reason or another, it does not make it to the final TT chunk. Furthermore, students' individual processes are analysed for **the pattern of ST motivation in TT chunks** throughout the translation. If a similar pattern emerges repeatedly, certain observations can be made regarding the student's skills to work in between languages.

5.5.2.2 Individual analyses of the auxiliary data

To find out about **students' knowledge about translation**, auxiliary data from each student from the beginning and the end of their BA studies is analysed. The questionnaires with both closed and open questions about translation (appendices 3 and 4) are of specific interest. Answers to questionnaires can mirror different types of understanding of translation: **clearly dynamic**, **towards dynamic**, **clearly static** or **towards static** (cf. e.g. PACTE 2008, 2014). Whenever a student fully agrees or disagrees with the statement, their understanding is considered fully dynamic/static; when one partly agrees/disagrees, it is deemed towards dynamic/static. By comparing the 1st year answers to the 3rd year answers, some idea of the change in student knowledge of translation can be gained.

The information inferred from students' answers is also weighed against their performance, since the performance itself may seem to tell another story. The performance shows whether translation-related knowledge serves the interlingual text production and emerges as a translation skill: a person may, for example, voice sophisti-

cated ideas about translation but translate word-for-word. Alternatively, a person may nurture an idea of translation according to which no structural changes are allowed in the process and the TT is to mirror the ST structures as closely as possible. In such a case, the translation process is likely to be a word-for-word transfer procedure. Such an understanding of translation may totally block the view to a person's interlingual text production skills, since she may think that it is not allowed to 'go beyond' the ST. Hence, mirroring the opinions about translation on performance is relevant due to its potential to explain certain features in interlingual text production.

Finally, TC in this situation (as in all translation situations) presupposes **regulative knowledge**, i.e. knowledge of one's knowledge and the ability to regulate and control one's knowledge. In this study, the level of this knowledge is analysed by looking at students' answers to a certain set of questions in the auxiliary data and comparing the answers to the student's overall performance. The questions in translation commentaries concerning the perceived difficulties in translation and the translator's own satisfaction with the translation are of specific interest; when contrasted with the performance, they potentially reveal something about the student's regulative knowledge. For example, if a person's process shows no signs of uncertainty and the translation assignment is deemed as 'easy', yet the product shows several inaccuracies, the person is likely to lack knowledge of his/her knowledge: s/he does not know that s/he does not know. Furthermore, students' own estimates of their own skills in the background information questionnaires can contribute to the analysis of students' regulative knowledge.

In summary, the longitudinal study into ATC (the second-stage of data analysis) looks at the change that takes place in each students' interlingual text production skills, knowledge about translation, and regulative knowledge between the beginning and the end of BA studies.

The results of data analysis will be given in the following two chapters. Chapter 6 focuses on the first-stage analysis, introducing the inaccuracy categories that emerged from the translations of the ST chunks focused on in this study (see sections 5.4.1 and 5.4.2), and discussing each category as a reflector of a specific type of interlingual text production skill. In the end of Chapter 6, the situation-based TC model is revisited and complemented with regard to interlingual text production skills. Chapter 7 will then focus on the results of the longitudinal study into ATC.

6 Results, part I: interlingual text production skills as reflected in the data

The 1st stage data analysis looks at the final product data, i.e. the seven students' translations of 13 ST chunks in each of the two sets of data. These ST chunks are focused on because 1), at least three students' translation processes are interrupted when translating these chunks, which implies some kind of a challenge in translation, and 2), they all involve an obligatory shift in translation, i.e. a word-for-word translation would result in an inaccurate TL expression. This in turn implies that a challenge involved in translation may stem from interlingual differences between the working languages. A translator needs **advanced** interlingual text production skills to translate these ST chunks.

The first-stage of data analysis aims at identifying different skills needed in advanced interlingual text production. To this aim, the whole focused product data was analysed for content accuracy and linguistic accuracy, the textual-level indicators of TC in this situation. TT chunks that were **accurate** implied **sufficient interlingual text production skills;** different skills merge in the text production so that identification of different skill elements may prove difficult. This was the case in the translations of 39.6% of the 1st year ST chunks and 64.8% of the 3rd year. TT chunks that were **inaccurate** imply that **interlingual text production skills are insufficient** to deal with the interlingual difference in the translation of a ST chunk. 60.4% of the first-year and 35.2% of the third-year translations were deemed inaccurate. **The identification of different skills needed in advanced interlingual text production is based on TT chunks that are inaccurate and imply insufficient skills**: an inaccurate TT chunk is inaccurate due to a specific linguistic or content-related feature, and therefore, points to a specific type of skill needed in interlingual text production. Therefore, inaccurate TT chunks were first categorized according to the nature of inaccuracy in each case. Each category mirrors a different skill needed in interlingual text production.

In this section, I will first introduce the results of the first-stage of data analysis, with the emphasis on categories of inaccuracy. Table 5 below provides an overview of the results, showing categories of accuracy and inaccuracy alike. Each category will be explained in more detail in the following subsections.

Table 5. Categories of accuracy and inaccuracy emerging from the final product data.

CONTENT ACCURACY	LINGUISTIC ACCURACY	CONTENT INACCURACY OR RELATION UNCLEAR	LINGUISTIC INACCURACY	
			observable ST influence	no observable ST influence
TT CONTENT = ST CONTENT	TT CHUNK LINGUISTICALLY ACCURATE IN ITS TEXTUAL CONTEXT (COTEXT)	TT ≠ ST (POLYSEMY)	AMBIGUITY	-
TT CONTENT = EXTRATEXTUAL REALITY			LEXIS	LEXIS
		TT ≠ ST (IDIOM)	COTEXT	COTEXT
TT CONTENT=ST CONTENT despite omission		TT ≠ ST (TERM)	STRUCTURE	STRUCTURE
			ORTHOGRAPHY	ORTHOGRAPHY
TT CONTENT < ST CONTENT accuracy?		TT=ST?	STYLE	STYLE

Not surprisingly, most inaccuracies in TT chunks were linguistic rather than content inaccuracies. Linguistically inaccurate TT chunks form the categories of **ambiguity**, **cotext**, **structure**, **orthography**, **lexis** or **style**. Furthermore, linguistic inaccuracy could be divided into two main classes: **inaccuracy with observable ST influence** and **inaccuracy without observable ST influence**. Some TT chunks contained more than one inaccuracy, thus falling under more than one category. Although content inaccuracies were low in number, they could be divided into three categories: **polysemy**, **idiom** and **terminology.** In some TT chunks, content accuracy could not be determined due to linguistic matters; the meaning of the TT chunks was unclear, most often due to negative transfer. TT chunks showing **content accuracy** also form different categories, whereas linguistically accurate TT chunks form just one category.

All categories shown in Table 5 will be explained in detail in what follows. First, I will explain what kind of content relations emerged from the data between the ST and TT chunks and discuss them in terms of content accuracy. Following that, the results of the analysis of TT chunks with regard to linguistic accuracy will be accounted for. Following that, the various (in)accuracy categories are discussed as a mirror of specific types of skills needed in interlingual text production. These skills complement the situation-based TC model, identifying those interlingual text production skills that seem challenging for the participants of this study. The complemented model will be provided at the end of this section.

6.1 CATEGORIES OF CONTENT (IN)ACCURACY

In the analysis of TT chunks pertaining to **content accuracy,** the information content of TT chunks was compared to that of the corresponding ST chunks. From the data, different ST–TT content relations emerged, which reflect either **content accuracy**, **content inaccuracy**, or, on rare occasions, **neither of the two**. These relations form different categories of content accuracy and inaccuracy, which will be explained in the following.

As expected, most TT chunks in the present data have the same information content as the corresponding ST chunk. This category of **content accuracy** is henceforth marked as **TT=ST**. This was by far the most common category that emerged in the data (59 out of 91 TT chunks in the first set of data, 71 out of 91 in the second).

In addition, the data contained cases in which the content of the TT chunk did not correspond to the particular ST chunk but did correspond to the events in the movie**,** hence providing correct and informative pieces of text pertaining to the extra-linguistic entity in question. Replacing or substituting one piece of information with another piece of information is regarded as an acceptable translation strategy in this situation, as long as the piece of information fits the context and is a correct statement of the extra-linguistic reality the text refers to. Hence, such instances form another category of content accuracy. In these cases, a TT chunk is not accurate in relation to the ST chunk but **in relation to the extra-linguistic reality**. This category is henceforth marked as **TT=ET.** Example[27] 1 below illustrates this relation.

Example 1.

Sam 1/7:
ST: provides the voiceover to **Andy's silent initiation** and eventual apparent resignation to his situation
TT: toimii kertojana, kun Andy kieltäytyy hyväksymästä tilannettaan ja **vajoaa äänettömänä ajatuksiinsa**.
'acts as narrator when Andy refuses to accept his situation and sinks silently into his thoughts.'

Sam does not offer a translation for *silent initiation* but produces a TT chunk *vajoaa äänettömänä ajatuksiinsa* ('sinks silently into his thoughts') instead. Hence, he offers no translation for *initiation* but adds a piece of information that does not stem from the ST. Nevertheless, the piece of new information refers to the events in the movie: Andy does sink into his thoughts, planning his escape.

Occasionally, a ST chunk had no correspondent in the TT, or the corresponding TT chunk is poorer in information content; the information is either totally or partially omitted in translation. These solutions form a category of TT chunks that are **less informative than the corresponding ST chunks,** henceforth marked as **TT<ST**. In this study, this category is considered to represent neither **content accuracy nor inaccuracy,** since in these cases there is no TT content the accuracy of which could be contrasted (with ST or ET). Example 2 illustrates this category; in the example, the whole complex prepositional phrase has been replaced with a single word, which makes the TT chunk less informative than the corresponding ST chunk is.

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[27] Each example is marked for the student who produced the TT chunk, the set of data it stems from (1 or 2) and the number of ST chunk in the specific data (1–13). Relevant textual chunks in each example are **bolded**.

Example 2.

Paul 1/7:
ST: who provides the voice-over **to Andy's silent initiation and eventual apparent resignation to his situation**
TT: joka toimii myös **elokuvan** kertojana.
'who acts also as the movie's narrator'

In some cases, omission has little influence on the amount of information transferred from ST to TT. Some ST chunks, such as *then escalated* in the first set of data, do not add relevant information to the context in which they are used in the ST, and in fact can be left out without a noticeable change in the message transferred from the ST to the TT. In Example 3 below *escalated* has been simply left out of the translation. The omission does not affect the overall information content of the clause: the fact that 'people fall in love' with the movie imply that the movie got more and more popular as time went by. These types of TT chunks form one category of **content accuracy** and are henceforth marked as **TT=ST (despite omission)**.

Example 3.

Mia 1/13:
ST: The Shawshank Redemption arrived quietly then **escalated** as the word spread and people fell in love with…
TT: The Shawshank Redemption saapui huomaamatta mutta sanan levitessä ihmiset rakastuivat…
'The Shawshank Redemption arrived unnoticed but as word spread people fell in love…'

The information content of some TT chunks was clearly different from the corresponding ST chunks. These TT chunks gave false information (traditionally referred to as a translation error). These TT chunks form the category of **content inaccuracy**, which is henceforth marked as **TT≠ST**. As was expected, this category was relatively rare in the data. In all instances in the data, this inaccuracy appears on a lexical level and seems to be caused by three types of lexical challenges in translation. In five 1st year cases the problem was the **polysemous lexical item** *apparent* which may be translated into Finnish as *ilmiselvä* ('obvious') or *näennäinen* ('seeming'), depending on the context. In the 1st year source text, the word was used in the latter sense, and translating it as *ilmiselvä* ('obvious'), as was done by five students, can be considered as transferring false information. One 1st year case involves a literal reading of **an idiom** which then results in a wrong meaning; the idiom *in earnest* is translated into *totinen* ('solemn') and the whole expression seems to be interpreted as a kind of an ellipsis for *in these solemn circumstances*, since it has been translated as *näissä totisissa merkeissä* into Finnish. The only 3rd year content inaccuracy was a **terminological** issue: *camcorder* ('videokamera') got translated as *videonauhuri* ('videorecorder'). Hence the category of content inaccuracy can be divided into three, henceforth referred to as **TT≠ST(polysemy), TT≠ST(idiom) and TT≠ST(term).**

Finally, in some cases in the data the content information of the TT chunk could not be compared to that of the corresponding ST chunk. These were cases in which the TT chunk was so heavily influenced by ST that the TT expression was ambiguous in meaning, or the TT chunk was otherwise unclear as a TL expression. Example 4 illustrates the first case: the words chosen by the translator do not have a similar difference in meaning as the original English word pair does, and the resulting expression is ambiguous in meaning. In these cases, the **type of information content relation between the ST and the TT is difficult to establish**. Arguably, in Example 4, the aim is to transfer the ST content over to the TT, keeping the same information. These unclear instances form a category that represents neither content accuracy nor inaccuracy. The category is henceforth marked as **TT=ST?** The question mark emphasizes the fact that the relation between the information contents of TT and ST chunks is not clear.

Example 4.

Harry 1/2:
ST: This **supposition** swiftly becomes **assumption**
TT: **Oletus** muuttuu hujauksessa **olettamukseksi**
'Supposition turns in a snap into supposition'

In summary: the analysis of TT chunks with regard to the indicator of **content accuracy** yielded the following categories:

a) content accurate in relation to ST (TT=ST)
b) content accurate in relation to ST despite omission (TT=ST despite omission)
c) content accurate in relation to the extra-textual reality (TT=ET reality)
d) less informative than the ST (TT<ST)
e) content inaccurate
    - TT≠ST and ET reality (polysemy)
    - TT≠ST and ET reality (idiom)
    - TT≠ST and ET reality (term)
f) unclear (ST=TT?)

6.2 CATEGORIES OF LINGUISTIC (IN)ACCURACY

In the analysis of linguistic accuracy, the TT chunks were approached as a Finnish text. The criteria for an accurate TT chunk were conformity to the grammar rules and usage of the Finnish language. An accurate TT chunk is not only grammatically correct, but also semantically clear, conventional and idiomatic in the context it appears. Therefore, each TT chunk was analysed **in its context**

a) from the point of view of Finnish grammar/syntax rules,
b) from the pragmatic and stylistic point of view, for the clarity, style of the expression, conventionality, and idiomaticity as well as textual functionality.

This analysis resulted in categories representing linguistic accuracy and linguistic inaccuracy. Obviously, only one category of **linguistic accuracy** emerged from the

analysis: only those TT chunks that meet the criteria mentioned above are considered as linguistically accurate. All linguistically accurate TT chunks are similar in that they all conform to the grammar rules and usage norms of Finnish. In other words, they are accurate in the same way, whereas inaccurate TT chunks are inaccurate in different ways.

The analysis yielded six categories of inaccuracy. These categories were named **ambiguity**, **lexis**, **cotext**, **structure**, **orthography**, and **style**. In the category of **ambiguity** the TT chunk is not comprehensible as a Finnish expression. These TT chunks are also ungrammatical, since being grammatical entails a semantic dimension: a grammatical expression does not only follow grammar rules, but is also semantically meaningful. The category of **lexis**, in turn, comprises TT chunks in which the lexical items are not-quite-matching, they do not collocate or the expression is unconventional. TT chunks of this category differ from those in the category of ambiguity in that they are comprehensible. The category of **cotext** entails TT chunks that are fine in isolation, but turned out to be inaccurate in the linguistic context in which they were used. In my data, such a TT chunk typically involved a deictic lexical item (such as *this*), the reference of which was unclear. In the category of **structure,** the TT chunks go against syntactic or phrase formation norms of the TL, or the structure used is inappropriate in the surrounding linguistic environment. The TT chunks in the category of **orthography** break spelling or punctuation rules of Finnish. Finally, the category of **style** entails TT chunks that are inappropriate in written mode, i.e., contain unnecessary repetition, informal (or colloquial) lexical items or unnecessarily complex, unpolished clause structures.

In addition to analysing TT chunks as Finnish texts, they were also analysed in relation the linguistic structure of the corresponding ST chunk. The research design aimed at challenging students' skills to deal with interlingual differences in particular, and it was assumed that these skills would not be sufficient throughout the translation, particularly at the beginning of BA studies. Therefore, ST influence was one potential explanation behind inaccurate TL expressions. As a result of this analysis, the categories of linguistic inaccuracy were divided **into two major classes: categories with observable ST influence and categories with no observable ST influence.** In the first, the TT chunk inaccuracy seems to derive from some type of ST influence – in this data mainly lexical or structural – while in the latter, the linguistic inaccuracy cannot be traced back to the linguistic features of the ST chunk. The next subsection introduces the two major classes, giving examples from all categories.

6.2.1 Categories of linguistic inaccuracy with observable ST influence

ST influence can show in the TT in different ways. In my data, TT chunks in the category of **ambiguity with observable ST influence** did not make sense as Finnish expressions. Such TT chunks imply a very strong "blinding effect" of the ST on the TT production: a translator does not monitor the TT even when the word-for-word procedure results in an ambiguous TL expression. Example 5 illustrates this: the word pair of apparent synonyms *supposition* and *assumption* is translated into full synonyms, which makes the TL expression ambiguous in meaning. As one Finnish expert comments: "How can *oletus* turn into *olettamus*? They are one and the same

thing."[28] From the reader's point of view, this level of blinding effect is probably the most distracting, since the minimum goal of any communication is not reached: the message does not come through.

Example 5.

Harry 1/2:
ST: **supposition** swiftly becomes **assumption**
TT: **oletus** vaihtuu hujauksessa **olettamukseksi**
'The supposition turns in a snap into a supposition'

Example 6 also shows an ambiguous TL expression. In that case, a shift is carried out partially; structural shift that is necessary due to interlingual differences is made, but the solution shows observable lexical ST influence that makes the TT chunk unclear to the point of incomprehension in Finnish. One expert comments that "I don't understand how *sitkeys* ('resilience') can *viipyillä elokuvan ympärillä* ('linger around the film').

Example 6.

Harry 1/5:
ST: However, it is human resilience that is **lingered on throughout the film**
TT: Ihmisen sitkeys **viipyilee kuitenkin koko elokuvan ympärillä**
'Human being's resilience lingers however whole movie around.'

Example 7 below shows a TT chunk from the category of **lexis with observable ST-influence**. The expression is understandable but the word choices are unidiomatic. The word *arrive* is translated as *saapua,* which is the typical dictionary equivalent of the word. Thanks to the other changes that take place in translation (*quietly* > *ei ollut suuri hitti*, 'was not a big hit'), the TL expression is understandable, but in idiomatic Finnish, movies do not *arrive* without an adverbial complement denoting the place of arrival. Thus, the verb used without the complement in this context is unidiomatic.

Example 7.

Lee 1/12:
ST: The Shawshank Redemption **arrived** quietly
TT: The Shawshank Redemption ei ollut heti **saapuessaan** suuri hitti
'The Shawshank Redemption was not right away when arriving a big hit.'

TT chunks in the inaccuracy category of **structure with observable ST influence** imitate the ST clause or phrase structure too closely. Example 8 below shows such a case: a *to*-preposition phrase is translated into Finnish with the allative case, which typically corresponds to the preposition *to*. However, in the ST, *to* is used to mark comparison; the Finnish allative case cannot be used for the same function. Thus, ST

[28] All comments were originally in Finnish and are translated by me.

may also blind the translator from recognizing differences in the use of structures that are typically used as equivalents.

Example 8.

Mia 1/11:
ST: inferior **to** all but fellow cons
TT: alempiarvoinen kaiki**lle** paitsi vertaisi**lle**en rikollisi**lle**,
'lower-in-worth all-ALL except fellow-ALL criminals-ALL'

Translation of pronouns, for example, occasionally leads to TT chunks representing the inaccuracy category of **cotext with observable ST influence.** In such cases, translating a ST pronoun with its prototypical equivalent pronoun results in an unclear reference in the TT, as in Example 9 below. The solution was commented on by the external evaluators as follows: "It is slightly unclear to what *tätä* (the partitive form of *tämä*, 'this') refers to", and "*Tätä* should be replaced with *sitä*" (the partitive form of the pronoun *se*, 'it'), which clearly refers to the NP at the end of the main clause.

Example 9.

Paul 1/6:
ST: However, it is human resilience that is lingered on throughout the film, and for **this** to be fully explored
TT: Kuitenkin koko elokuvan ajan on läsnä ihmisen sitkeys koettelemusten edessä, ja jotta **tätä** voitaisiin tarkastella perusteellisesti
'However throughout the movie is present a human being's resilience in front of ordeals, and so that this could be explored thoroughly'

Example 10 provides another example of a TT chunk of this category. The evaluators say about the TT chunk in Example 10 that *"His* is definitely incorrect because it refers to the spectator" (and not Lester, as it is supposed to). In isolation the TT chunks in examples 9 and 10 are fine, but in the textual context they are considered inaccurate.

Example 10.

Paul 2/5:
ST: Despite the outward display of prosperity, it isn't long before we are shown, as we delve beneath this surface, that all is not roses in the Burnham household, regardless of the great house and fancy lifestyle. The deterioration of **his** marriage into a campaign of snide comments and sarcasm…
TT: Katsoja saa pian tietää, ettei Burnhamien elämä ole näkyvästä vauraudesta huolimatta ruusuilla tanssimista. **Hänen** avioliittonsa hajoaminen ivailuksi ja sarkasmiksi…
'A spectator soon finds out that Burnhams' life is not despite the observable prosperity dancing on the roses. His marriage's falling apart into sneering and sarcasm…'

Example 11, in turn, shows an example of a TT chunk from the inaccuracy category of **orthography with observable ST influence**. In Finnish, a non-finite expression such as the one in the ST chunk in this example, is not separated from the main clause with a comma. In this data, orthographical inaccuracies that can be traced back to the ST are mostly related to punctuation.

Example 11.

Sam 1/9:
ST: Despite the obvious display of equality**,** …
TT: Julkisesta tasa-arvon näyttäytymisestä huolimatta**,** ...
'Despite the public show of equality, …'

Finally, the inaccuracy category **style with observable ST influence** is illustrated by Example 12 below. In this TT chunk, the obligatory shift in the adjective *inferior to* has been carried out, but the Finnish expression adheres to the phrase *all but fellow cons*. This results in a TT chunk that is quite complex and semantically superfluous and repetitive; the second part of the expression does not bring any new information to the expression. As the external evaluators say, "the expressions sound as if made in a hurry" and "this is illogical". It is therefore deemed as being stylistically inaccurate with observable ST influence.

Example 12.

Harry 1/11:
ST: he will always be a con, **inferior to all but fellow cons**,..
TT: vangin asemasta ei päästä mihinkään **paitsi korkeintaan muiden vankien tasolle**
'from a con's position you cannot get anywhere except at best on other cons' level'

6.2.2 Categories of linguistic inaccuracy without (observable) ST influence

Not all linguistic inaccuracy can be traced back to ST linguistic features. TT chunks with such inaccuracy represent the categories of **linguistic inaccuracy without observable ST influence**. The same category labels can be used to describe the nature of linguistic inaccuracy in the two classes of linguistic inaccuracy, i.e. **lexis**, **structure**, **cotext**, **orthography**, and **style**. However, in this data the inaccuracy category of **ambiguity** was only linked with observable ST influence: there were no TT chunks in the data that were ambiguous in meaning without observable ST influence.

The TT chunk in Example 13 below represent the inaccuracy category of **lexis without ST influence**. One evaluator states that "*olla läsnä* ('be present') does not seem quite appropriate here in meaning, although I cannot really explain why." This intuitive evaluation may stem from the use of a non-human subject in connection with the verb *olla läsnä* ('be present'), which typically occurs with a human subject. Although with metaphorical language use non-human subjects can also 'be present', in this context, this particular verb seemed unconventional.

Example 13.

Paul 1/5:
ST: However, it is human resilience that **is lingered on** throughout the film,
TT: Kuitenkin koko elokuvan ajan **on läsnä** ihmisen sitkeys koettelemusten edessä
'However throughout the movie **is present** a human being's resilience in front of ordeals, and so that this could be explored thoroughly'

Example 14 offers another example of a TT chunk in the inaccuracy category of **lexis**: the English adjective *alcohol-fuelled* is replaced by the Finnish idiom *humalapäissä* ('drunk') but the idiom is not written in its conventional form '*humalapäissä**ään**'*, with the possessive suffix attached in the end, and is therefore regarded as unidiomatic.

Example 14.

Ian 1/3:
ST: alcohol-fuelled argument
TT: riitelivät **humalapäissä_**
'argued while drunk'

Example 15 in turns illustrates a TT chunk from the inaccuracy category of **structure without ST influence**. The finite verb form *escalated* is translated into a non-finite verb form *kasvaen* ('growing'). Such a shortened clause in Finnish denotes a manner of doing something; it modifies the main clause of the sentence, corresponding to the meaning of the English finite construction *so that it grew*. This is not what the ST means: the *escalation* does not modify the manner of *arrival* but simply states what happens after it. The shortened clause in the TT is hence inaccurate here.

Example 15.

Stu 1/13:
ST: *The Shawshank Redemption* arrived quietly then **escalated** as the word spread…
TT: *Rita Hayworth – avain pakoon* saapui huomaamatta, **kasvaen** sanan alkaessa levitä…
'Rita Hayworth – the key to escape arrived unnoticed, growing as the word began to spread…'

Similarly, the Finnish TT chunk in Example 16 below, *jättämättä minkäänlaista epäselvyyttä* for *in no uncertain terms* is structurally inaccurate: again, the participle verb form *jättämättä* ('without leaving') presupposes a subject in the preceding clause. However, there is no subject: the preceding clause is in the passive voice (*muistutetaan*, 'is reminded'). The structure is used inappropriately.

Example 16.

Stu 1/10:
ST: Andy is reminded, **in no uncertain terms,** …

TT: Andya muistutetaan **jättämättä minkäänlaista epäselvyyttä**
'is reminded without leaving any kind of unclarity'

The TT chunk in Example 17 below represents the inaccuracy category of **cotext without ST influence.** In this TT chunk, the obligatory shift arising from the interlingual differences in the use of participle verb forms is carried out by introducing the subject *se* ('it') and the finite verb *on* ('is'). The deictic *se* ('it'), however, has no clear reference in the preceding clause.

Example 17.

Lee 2/9:
ST: Lester's midlife sexual obsession with Angela is more wake-up call than realistic chase**, giving him** the whiff of excitement …
TT: Tytön oikean tavoittelun sijaan kyse on kuitenkin Lesterin heräämisestä: **se on** muistutus siitä jännityksestä…
'Instead of really going after the girl it is more about Lester's awakening: **it is** a reminder of the excitement…'

TT chunks forming the inaccuracy category of **orthography without ST influence** were typically spelling errors in compounds, or punctuation mistakes. For example, the Finnish word *alkoholin huuruinen* as a translation of *alcohol-fuelled* is a compound and should be written as one word, *alkoholinhuuruinen*.

The final Example 18 in this section illustrates a TT chunk from the inaccuracy category of **style without ST influence**. In this TT chunk, the typical dictionary equivalents of *despite* and *regardless of* have not been used, and the whole sentence has been reorganized in translation. The contrast built in the ST by lexical items *despite* and *regardless* is built in the TT by using the lexical item *kuitenkin* ('however'). However, the item is repeated twice within a sentence, which is not regarded as appropriate **style**.

Example 18.

Ian 2/5:
ST: Despite the outward display of prosperity, it isn't long before we are shown, as we delve beneath this surface, that all is not roses in the Burnham household, **regardless of** the great house and fancy lifestyle.
TT: Ulkoisesti Burnhamin perhe vaikuttaa varakkaalta: talo on suuri ja elintaso on korkea. Katsojalle selviää **kuitenkin** pian, että kaikki ei **kuitenkaan** ole perheessä kohdallaan.
'On the outside Burnham's family appears prosperous: the house is big and the standard of living is high. Spectator finds out however soon, that all is not however well in the family'

In summary, the analysis of TT chunks with regard to the indicator of **linguistic accuracy** yielded the following categories:

a) **linguistic accuracy** (TT chunk is grammatical and compliant to the TL usage norms)
b) **linguistic inaccuracy with observable ST influence.** A TT chunk is inaccurate because of
   - **ambiguity**
   - **lexis**
   - **structure**
   - **orthography**
   - **cotext**
   - **style**
c) **linguistic inaccuracy without observable ST influence.** A TT chunk is inaccurate because of
   - **lexis**
   - **structure**
   - **orthography**
   - **cotext**
   - **style**

The categories introduced above are considered to mirror the skills needed in advanced interlingual text production. Categories of **inaccuracy** are of particular interest at this point, since an inaccuracy points to a lack of a **specific** type of skill, thus contributing to the very identification of skills that seem insufficient at the early stages of ATC. The following subsection will discuss (in)accuracy categories as mirrors of skills involved in interlingual text production.

6.3 FROM CATEGORIES OF IN/ACCURACY TO INTERLINGUAL TEXT PRODUCTION SKILLS

In this section, an attempt is made to establish a link between the categories introduced above and specific skill elements needed for advanced interlingual text production. The categories emerging from the data serve to define **those interlingual text production skills that are challenging for the students at the beginning and during their BA studies.** This approach brings to the fore those skills that show insufficiencies and are therefore interesting from a translator trainer's point of view.

Following Bereiter's (2002) knowledge typology, all knowledge elements implied by the categories are labelled **skills**. This is simply due to the fact that skill is something that can be observed in action while other types of knowledge cannot. In case of content inaccuracy, for example, I cannot establish a link between a translator's explicit or implicit **knowledge** of polysemy as a translation problem on the basis of their performance; they may be fully aware of the problem and even know, in principle, about the two meanings of the polysemous word *apparent*. Failure to choose the appropriate meaning in the context does imply, however, that the translator does not have the **skill** to use the knowledge in a translation situation. In other words, categories of inaccuracy show only that the skill in this specific situation seems to be lack-

ing. Whether a translator possesses any other types of knowledge, implicit or explicit, related to the problem in question cannot be established on the basis of the product data. Conversely, if a translator appears to possess a specific skill, they necessarily also have other knowledge on the matter, either in the form of implicit understanding or other types of tacit knowledge, or in the form of statable knowledge. For example, skill to translate a polysemous lexical item with the appropriate TL equivalent suggests that one also possesses knowledge about the polysemous nature of the item in question. Skill presupposes the existence of other types of knowledge, but an apparent lack of skill does not necessarily mean a lack of other types of knowledge.

Table 6 below shows all descriptive categories of the indicator **content (in)accuracy** in the left hand columns. The categories of accuracy are marked in orange whereas those in black are categories of inaccuracy. The blue font indicates categories in which the accuracy could not be determined. The right hand columns suggest what type of interlingual text production skill is mirrored in the category. Categories of linguistic accuracy and their link to different skill elements are given in Table 7 further below.

Table 6. The link between categories of content accuracy and skill elements needed for interlingual text production.

content inaccuracy/accuracy	SKILL NEEDED FOR INTERLINGUAL TEXT PRODUCTION
TT=ST	sufficient SL skills to understand the ST for translation
TT=ET	skill to apply translation strategies
TT=ST despite omission	critical ST analysis skill, skill to apply a specific translation strategy
TT=ST?	
TT< ST	skill to apply a specific translation strategy
TT≠ST (polysemy)	skill to interpret polysemous lexical items in context
TT≠ST (idiom)	skill to recognize idioms and grasp their meaning
TT≠ST (term)	skill to use appropriate terms (understanding the source term and producing the target term)

In the following, the links between categories of in/accuracy and types of interlingual text production skills will be discussed in detail.

6.3.1 Categories of content (in)accuracy as a mirror of skills

The indicator of content accuracy seems to link naturally with different SL skills needed for understanding the ST for the purpose of translation. The category of **TT=ST** implies sufficient SL skills; no specific skill elements are therefore distinguishable. All other categories of content (in)accuracy seem to point to a specific skill element.

6.3.1.1 TT=ST despite omission and TT=ET

The categories **TT=ST despite omission** and **TT=ET** can be linked with specific skills needed in translation, although they represent content **accuracy**. Their linkability to specific skills is perhaps explained by the fact that these two categories deviate from the 'basic' category of content accuracy, i.e. TT=ST.

In the category TT=ET, the TT chunk relates to the extra textual reality rather than the ST. That is, the TT chunk is not based on the ST. Therefore, the category cannot be linked with any linguistic skill as such; it does not tell anything about linguistic skills to produce a text on the basis of another text. However, it does link with a skill to apply a kind of substitution[29] strategy to carry out an obligatory shift in translation. This implies certain knowledge about translation: deviating from the ST is considered as allowed, and this knowledge, be it implicit or explicit, shows as a skill in translation.

The category of **TT=ST despite omission** may suggest that the ST chunk has not only been understood but also analysed for its informative value. This category could be taken as one materialization of "taking an upper hand in relation to the ST", which has been reported to be more typical of professionals than novices (Tirkkonen-Condit 2005: 3–4; Séguinot 1989: 25–30). Omission seems justified; semantically empty bits of the ST chunk are not carried over to the TT, and the resulting TT is in fact improved in comparison to ST. Therefore, the category seems to point to **a skill of critical reading of the ST,** which could be considered as one skill element needed to thoroughly understand the SL text for the purpose of translation. This critical reading may in fact provide a potential explanation of why reading for the purpose of translation and reading for 'mere' understanding seem to be different processes, as observed by Jakobsen and Jensen (2008) and Dragsted (2010). In addition, this category also points to a skill to apply a specific translation strategy to carry out an obligatory shift in translation, i.e. the strategy of omission.

6.3.1.2 TT≠ST(polysemy/idiom/term)

As was expected, content inaccuracy was rare in the data. Nevertheless, three categories of content inaccuracy emerged, all reflecting problems on the lexical level: one type results from a misinterpretation of a polysemous lexical item, another from a literal rendering of an idiom and the final one results from terminological confusion.

The content relation TT≠ST(polysemy) brings forth one SL skill needed to understand the ST for the purpose of translation: **recognition and dealing with polysemous lexical items in context.** To comprehend a text for translation purposes, the ST needs to be thoroughly understood. In order to be able to fully understand a ST, recognizing and dealing with polysemy is essential, and perhaps one of the aspects of language skills that should be specifically targeted in translators' linguistic training (and any training aimed at high-level language skill). Dealing with polysemy presupposes a skill to read text rather than small chunks; focus on small chunks is found to be a typical feature in a novice's translation process (e.g. Dragsted 2005: 64, Angelone 2010: 31), and a translator focusing on small chunks is likely to be less sensitive to polysemy than one processing larger chunks. As Gerloff (1988: 126) points out, the need to create and maintain a strong sense of context appears to be a crucial ingredient in a successful translation process; without it, textual meaning can be neither fully understood nor ad-

[29] Substitution as a translation strategy is often linked with translation of culture-specific items (e.g. Baker 1992, Leppihalme 1997: a foreign element is replaced with an element that is more familiar to the reader. In this case, however, a translator substitutes a piece of ST for a reason other than cultural difference.

equately rendered into the target language. Inability to recognize polysemy may indeed stem from the simple fact that the translator proceeds word by word, giving meaning to a single word at a time and disregarding the context in which the word appears.

The content relation TT≠ST(idiom) seems to show a lack of a **skill to recognize and interpret non-literal language use in context.** This is another aspect of high-level SL skills needed for full comprehension of source texts. TT≠ST(term), in turn, points to **the skill to use the appropriate terms.** Failure to use an appropriate term may not, however, stem from not understanding the ST; it may also be that a translator understands the SL term but for some reason or another fails to choose an appropriate TL equivalent (cf. Angelone 2010: 22).

6.3.1.3 TT<ST and TT=ST?

In the category of TT<ST, (a part of the) information included in the ST chunk has been omitted in the translation; there is either no corresponding TT chunk or the TT chunk contains less information than the ST chunk. Thus, the category does not point to any linguistic skill needed in interlingual text production. It only points to the skill to apply the strategy of omission in translation performance.

TT=ST?, in turn, represents a category in which a translator assumedly aims at the same or similar content, but the level of similarity cannot be established due to the semantic unclarity of the TT chunk. The relation undoubtedly shows insufficiency in interlingual text production skills but does not point to any specific one.

In the next sections I will move on to introduce the skills implied by the categories emerging in the analysis of TT chunks with regard to the indicator of linguistic accuracy. Six categories of linguistic inaccuracy emerged in the analysis; moreover, each of these categories (with the exception of one) could be further specified as either showing observable ST influence or not showing it. Categories of TL inaccuracy with observable ST influence will be discussed first as a mirror of specific skills.

6.3.2 Categories of linguistic inaccuracy with observable ST influence as a mirror of skills

TT chunks with observable ST influence imply insufficiency in the skills to deal with interlingual differences in the production of a TT. These skills are needed to avoid the transfer of such ST features into the TT that are against TL norms and conventions. In effect, then, categories of inaccuracy with observable ST influence point to the skills needed for "interference control", that is, skills needed "to keep languages apart when alternating between them" (PACTE 2003). While in PACTE's expert approach these skills are not among the translation-specific competences (see 2.3.1), in my approach they are considered as essentially translation-specific, specifying the translation-related linguistic skills.

As suggested by, for example, Englund-Dimitrova (2005) and Tirkkonen-Condit (2005), literal translation occurs frequently in translation processes irrespective of the translator's level of expertise. Some of these literal solutions may show observable ST influence. However, in situations in which linguistic quality is expected, a competent translator **monitors** the TT for observable ST influence and corrects the TT where it needs to be corrected. The monitor model of translation (see 2.2.2) sug-

gests that "a literal translation is a default rendering procedure in translation and goes on until it is interrupted by a **monitor** that alerts about a problem in the outcome" (Tirkkonen-Condit 2005: 407–408). Categories of linguistic inaccuracy with observable ST influence suggest that such monitoring has not taken place in the translation of that specific ST chunk. In effect, the working of this monitor comes down to and is dependent on the translator's monitoring skills. Hence, the categories with observable ST influence point to **different types of skills needed to monitor the TT for ST influence.** The monitor may alert about some types of (ST-influenced) problems in the outcome but ignore others: for example, the monitor detects ST-influenced ambiguity in a TT chunk but does not spot the ST "shining through" (Teich 2003: 145–146) when it shows as inappropriate TT style or structure. In other words, the skill to produce TT that is devoid of observable ST influence requires **different types of ST influence monitoring skills**. If a specific type of skill is lacking, the monitor does not alert about a problem in the outcome. Monitoring skills implied by these categories, then, comprise skills to scan the TT on different linguistic levels for ST influence, and remove the ST influence that goes against TL norms.

It must be pointed out that a translator does not monitor the TT only for ST linguistic influence. A translator's overall monitoring competence refers to the degree of awareness of the quality of the output and the effectiveness of the editing strategies (Campbell 1998). Hence, the TT is monitored also for cultural issues and for linguistic correctness (as in monolingual text production). The categories of linguistic inaccuracy with observable ST influence hence serve to specify only a part of the overall monitoring skills.

Table 7 below suggests a link between the category of linguistic inaccuracy with observable ST influence and a ST influence monitoring skill.

Table 7. The links between TL expression inaccuracy and the specific ST influence monitoring skill.

TL expression inaccuracy with observable ST influence	**ST influence monitoring skill**
ambiguity	monitoring TT for meaning
lexis	monitoring TT for idiomaticity, conventionality, naturalness
structure	monitoring TT for TL structural/syntax norms/rules
cotext	monitoring TT for textual cohesion and coherence
orthography	monitoring TT for punctuation and spelling
style	monitoring TT for the level of formality/informality

The six categories of linguistic inaccuracy with observable ST influence reflect different workings of the monitor and hence, different types of monitoring skills. When a translation does not show observable ST influence, the translator appears to have sufficient monitoring skills to avoid it to begin with or to remove it by revising. In cases of observable ST influence, the linguistic level on which the ST shows in the TT specifies the type of monitoring skill that seems to be lacking.

6.3.2.1 Categories of ambiguity and lexis with observable ST influence

When a TT chunk shows **ambiguity with observable ST influence**, the translator does not react to the ST influence even though the resulting TT makes little sense. The category implies insufficiency in the **skill to monitor the TT for meaning**. This could be considered as the most rudimentary type of monitoring skill in the sense that ambiguous TL expressions assumedly stand out from other types of ST-influenced TT inaccuracies as the most distracting for the reader. A translator seems totally blinded by the ST to carry out any evaluation of the TT as a TL text. As one of the external evaluators writes, addressing the words to the translator who has produced a TT chunk that is ambiguous in meaning: "You would never write that *oletuksesta tulee olettamus* ('a supposition becomes a supposition') were you not producing a translation that follows the form of the ST". Indeed, this type of inaccuracy emerged in my data only as a result of ST influence; none of the students produced ambiguous TT chunks without observable ST influence.

In this data, ambiguity in TT chunks is caused mainly by the fact that translators translate the ST lexical items into their prototypical dictionary equivalents, ignoring the differences in the usage and/or meaning potential of the apparent equivalents in the context. Ambiguity in TT can, however, result from other types of ST influence, too. For example, transferring culture-specific items word-for-word into the TT may result in ambiguity in the TT.

Translating ST lexical items with their typical TT equivalents does not always lead to ambiguity but unconventional, unidiomatic, non- collocating or otherwise semantically not-quite-matching TL lexis. The category of **lexis with observable ST influence points to a skill to monitor the TT for idiomaticity, conventionality, or naturalness**. The monitor appears to ignore the differences in the usage of apparent equivalents in the two languages, but the difference does affect the quality of TT as severely as it does in the category of ambiguity.

6.3.2.2 Categories of structure and orthography with observable ST influence

In the category of **structure with observable ST influence**, the TT chunk imitates the ST chunk structure, going against TL clause and phrase formation conventions, rules and norms. This can be linked with the **skill to monitor TT for TL structural/ syntax norms/rules**. The category of **orthography with observable ST influence**, in turn, can be linked with the **skill to monitor the TT for punctuation and/or spelling.**

6.3.2.3 Categories of style and cotext with observable ST influence

The category of style with observable ST influence can be linked with the **skill to monitor TT with regard to the level of formality/informality, that is, register.** ST influence that is observable in TT style is perhaps more challenging for the monitor to pick up since the appropriate register is a less well-defined matter than structural and orthographical correctness, for instance.

A TT chunk must also be accurate in its cotext, not only as an isolated expression. A ST-influenced word choice or structure may seem accurate on a TT chunk level but

prove to be inaccurate in a wider **cotext** in a TT. Such a case implies an insufficiency in the **skill to monitor the TT as a whole for textual cohesion and coherence**, not just the isolated TT chunk in question.

6.3.2.4 Complexity of ST influence monitoring skills

Monitoring skills are a sum of a variety of knowledge. ST influence monitoring skills cannot show in the translation performance unless a translator possesses a variety of other knowledge. First of all, whether the need for monitoring is recognized or not is highly dependent on **knowledge about translation**: if a translator conceives translation as a mechanical word-for-word transfer activity typically carried out when learning foreign languages at school and not as communication, she may not find the monitoring necessary in the first place. **Knowledge about working languages** is also essential: not only is a translator to know the languages in isolation but also in relation to each other. In other words, she must possess **contrastive knowledge about languages** in order to understand what interlingual differences mean for translation. Therefore, in addition to or instead of insufficient knowledge about translation, an apparent lack of monitoring skills may be explained by insufficient TL knowledge: interlingual differences go unnoticed if the translator does not possess solid enough knowledge about the language they are translating into. In such a situation, the translator willingly accepts the ST-influenced TT as an appropriate target language. Alternatively, the translator knows the languages in separation but cannot work in between them; they cannot contrast the languages and deal with interlingual differences in translation.

The complexity of monitoring skills must always be taken into account when analysing translators' performances with regard to different skills; the apparent lack of monitoring skills may in fact represent insufficient TL knowledge. From the theoretical perspective and for the design of TC model, this does not pose a problem; monitoring is considered to be a skill on its own, the skill that characterizes translation expertise (Angelone 2010, Tirkkonen-Condit 2005, Englund-Dimitrova 2005). From the perspective of this study, monitoring characterizes **advanced** interlingual text production skills; it comprises skills that do not arise automatically from having language proficiency in two languages. In the context of this study, monitoring skills enable a translator's functioning in the interspace between languages so that the emerging TT is free from the unwanted ST influence. In the empirical part, however, the **reason** for the apparent lack of a monitoring skill cannot always be pinpointed on the basis of the present data. Looking behind the apparent lack of monitoring skills would require, for example, think-aloud data in which translators articulate the problems they are experiencing during the translation process (cf. Angelone 2010, Angelone and Shreve 2011).

Moreover, it can be assumed that some monitoring skills are more rudimentary than others in the sense that they require a less complex set of language- and translation-related knowledge from the translator. For example, the **skill to monitor TT for meaning** may become evident in the process as soon as the translator sees translation as communication and acknowledges the need to monitor TT as a TL text: ambiguity of a TT chunk probably alerts the monitor to most native speakers of a TL. **Skill to monitor TT for TL structural/syntax norms and rules** as well as for the **TL**

orthography requires complex language-related knowledge, both language-specific and contrastive: one is to know specific syntactic and orthographical rules and norms in the TL in order to know when structural or orthographical changes need to be made in translation. **The skills to monitor TT for formality/informality and precise lexis**, in turn, call for knowledge of language use; knowledge that cannot be put in the form of exact rules but is more ill-defined by nature.

The acquisition of knowledge underlying the skill to monitor the TT for meaning, structure or orthography is perhaps a less complex process than the acquisition of knowledge needed to monitor the TT for appropriate style or conventional, idiomatic and natural lexis**.** Accurate syntax/structures and orthography are dictated by explicit rules and norms that can be learnt from books in the form of statable knowledge; hence, the knowledge to back up the detection of structural or orthographical differences can be sought from specific sources when the need arises (i.e. in case of an apparent lack of such monitoring skills). Acquiring knowledge needed to monitor TT for style or precise lexis can be considered a different, possibly a more complex process, since 'appropriate style' and 'precise lexis' are more ill-defined, situation/context-dependent constructs. Skill to monitor TT production for the appropriate style or exact lexis requires more than knowledge of rules. As far as I can see, such skills necessitate a wide experience in language use. In other words, understanding of appropriate style and precise use of lexis in various communicative situations cannot be learnt from books in the form of statable knowledge but is acquired, at least to a large extent, via experience as a language user. In Bereiter's (2002) terms, it may be implicit understanding, episodic knowledge or impressionistic knowledge by nature. Such knowledge is difficult to put into words for the purpose of teaching. Similarly, giving justification for considering a TT chunk inaccurate due to its not-quite-exact lexis or inappropriate style may be hard: the evaluator just feels there is something wrong with the expression, perhaps being unable to put her finger on what exactly it is that is inaccurate. The external evaluators in this study, for example, often gave comments such as "I would change the word order here, but there is nothing exactly wrong in this either", or "I would add an enclitic particle here, but I suppose this is ok without it." When a specific rule or norm cannot be referred to as being broken, evaluation of TT chunks leans more heavily on tacit knowledge about language use. According to Polanyi (1969: 196), the use of language is indeed a tacit performance. A sense of language use with all tacit knowledge it presupposes seems to take more time to develop, since, arguably, this sense develops as a result of being an aware, attentive language user rather than being a "mere" native speaker of a language.

In summary, if **monitoring TT with regard to its semantics** is considered as the most rudimentary type of monitoring skill, **skill to monitor TT with regard to explicitly defined grammar rules** represents another type. **Monitoring TT for more ill-defined usage norms and practices** is the third type of monitoring skill, assumedly the one taking the longest to develop.

6.3.3 Categories of linguistic inaccuracy without observable ST influence

The existence of a ST is a constraint for target language text production. This makes TL text production in a translation situation different from producing a text from

scratch: a translator produces a text the content of which is given to her. A translator does not create content, but needs to balance between the ST content and form and TL resources in order to come up with a TT. This shows as a different kind of writing process: for example, Immonen (2006) has found that that translators produce texts quite differently from monolingual writers: they pause fewer times in the first draft but take more time for revision. Pauses in the translation process are longer at the clause level and below, and shorter at the above-clause level, than in monolingual writing. This implies that a monolingual writer thinks about relatively large stretches of text at a time, while a translator handles relatively small stretches, and puts more effort in the revision (Pym 2011b: 40).

Even a skilled writer may stumble when producing text in a translation situation: in my data, students who had earned high secondary school final exams marks in Finnish language produced solutions that were not regarded as accurate Finnish expressions. Such TT chunks showed no ST influence but appeared nevertheless inaccurate as a TL expression. This is why in the present study, such TT chunks are considered to mirror different types of **TL text production skills *in a specific translation situation*** and not TL text production skills in general. TL text production skills can also be further specified. Table 8 below shows the categories of linguistic inaccuracy without observable ST influence and the suggested link with specific skills.

Table 8. The links between TL expression inaccuracy without observable ST influence and the specific TL text production skill.

TL expression inaccuracy without observable ST influence	**Skill mirrored by the inaccuracy**
lexis	skill to produce idiomatic, lexically precise TL text
structure	skill to produce text that applies to TL syntactic and structural rules
cotext	skill to produce coherent and cohesive text
orthography	skill to produce text that applies to TL orthography rules
style	skill to produce TL text with appropriate level of formality/informality

The category of linguistic inaccuracy due to **lexis** implies an insufficiency in the **skill to produce lexically exact, matching, collocating, and idiomatic TL language**. Inaccuracy due to **structure**, in turn, shows a lack of **skill to apply TL syntactic rules and norms in text production**. Obviously, inaccuracy due to **orthography** relates to the **skill to apply TL orthography rules**. **Stylistic** inaccuracy is linked with the **skill to produce TL text with the appropriate level of formality/informality in the given situation**. Finally, inaccuracy due to **cotext** seems to link with the **skill to produce cohesive and coherent TL text**. The knowledge underlying these skills is the same as the *TL-related knowledge* underlying ST influence monitoring skills.

6.4 THE LEVEL OF ST MOTIVATION AS A MIRROR OF SKILLS

As discussed in section 2.2.2, the concept of **evaluative monitoring** (Angelone 2010: 19) relates to effective processing and solving of a problem at hand. 'Evaluative' implies expert-level monitoring skills which may be shown, for example, as bundled uncertainty management in the translation process (Angelone 2010: 22). Evaluative monitoring is characterized as controlled problem-solving: the problem is recognized and diagnosed, a solution proposed and evaluated successfully without any interruptions (Angelone 2010: 22, 29). The idea of controlled problem-solving is inherent also in Levy's (1967) notion of **minimax strategy**, according to which a translator strives to minimize her cognitive load by changing only what needs changing. In the translation situations analysed in this study, the problems at hand were of linguistic nature, arising from interlingual differences. Minimax strategy and evaluative monitoring in this translation situation would be shown as a kind of **balancing** between the working languages: knowing which fragments can be translated literally and which cannot (Englund-Dimitrova 2005b: 32), or to use Toury's (1995) concepts, knowing the difference between **negative** and **positive transfer**. Hence, this **balancing** can be considered as **one aspect of the skills to monitor the TT for ST influence**. The balancing skill could be defined as **the skill to avoid negative transfer in the process while "exploiting" the ST where positive transfer is possible.**

In this study, the **balancing skill** of students is looked into by analysing the level of ST motivation in the process (including the final solution). To establish the patterns of ST motivation in the process data, the notion of ST motivation needed to be specified.

6.4.1 Specifying ST motivation

Any TT chunk can be ST-motivated in a myriad of ways. Obviously, the larger the textual unit one is looking at, the more ways there are to "imitate" the ST (cf. Chesterman 2011 on the concept of **literal translation**). In the data of this study, three types of ST motivation was distinguished: motivation by ST grammar, by ST order and/or by ST lexis.

In the following subsections, the three ways of ST motivation showing in this data will be described with the help of examples.

6.4.1.1 Lexical ST motivation

A TT chunk is considered to be motivated by ST lexis when (some) TT lexical items used as equivalents of ST lexical items are typical dictionary equivalents. However, a lexically ST-motivated TT chunk is not necessarily a word-for-word translation of the whole ST chunk. The following examples are lexically ST-motivated. In Example 19, the shift has been carried out by simplifying the structure and leaving 'murdered' out, but the remaining lexical items are typical dictionary equivalents of the ST content words. In this case, lexically ST-motivated solution is *positive transfer*, since using 'the same words' conforms to TL pragmatic and stylistic norms.

Example 19.

Lee 1/1:
ST: wife and her lover **are found murdered, having been shot in bed**
TT: vaimo **löydetään** rakastajansa kanssa **sänkyyn ammuttuna**
'**are found** with her lover **shot to bed**'

Example 20 illustrates a situation in which lexical ST motivation is limited to a single word. The surrounding text is translated to fit the lexical choice *hiljainen*, the first dictionary equivalent of *quiet(ly)*.

Example 20.

Paul 1/12:
ST: The Shawshank Redemption arrived **quietly**
TT: The Shawshank Redemption sai alun perin **hiljaisen** vastaanoton
'The Shawshank Redemption got first a *quiet* reception'

6.4.1.2 ST order motivation

A TT chunk is considered to be motivated by the ST order when the lexical items or phrases appear in the TT chunk in the same order as they appear in the ST chunk. TT chunks from which some single lexical items have been omitted but which otherwise imitate the order of the ST are regarded as showing ST order motivation. When the analysis focuses on a single lexical item (*certain*, *alcohol-fuelled*), the TT chunk is deemed motivated by the ST order whenever the TT lexical item appears in the same place in the TT as it does in the ST, as in Example 21 below.

Example 21.

Mia 1/8:
ST: elevates him to a **certain** status
TT: nostattaa hänet **korkeampaan** asemaan
'elevates him to a **higher** status'

The same applies to the idioms *in no uncertain terms* and *in earnest*. If their equivalents take the same place in the TT sentence as the original idiom does in the ST sentence, the solution is deemed motivated by the ST order. When translating ST chunks that include several interlingual differences, the tendency to follow the ST order manifests as illustrated in Example 22. 'However' has been omitted from the TT, the it-cleft structure has been ignored so that the cleft structure disappears, and the passive verb structure has been turned into active. Hence, the structure of the ST chunk is changed, but the TT is still motivated by the order of ST elements; interlingual differences seem to be handled one by one. This way of defining ST order motivation is more relaxed than that proposed by Schaeffer and Carl (2014: 29–30), for whom **identical word order** in the ST and the TT is one signal of a literal translation (i.e. ST-motivated in the strictest sense). Due to the fundamental structural differences between English and Finnish, such a strict view to define ST order motivation would exclude instances such as the one in Example 22 below.

Example 22.

Sam 1/5:
ST: However,/ it is human resilience/ that is lingered on/ throughout the film
TT: Ihmisen periksiantamaton luonne/ on olennaisesti mukana/ koko elokuvan ajan
'Human resilience is essentially there whole movie through'.

To further clarify the concept of ST order motivation, another translation of the ST chunk in the example above is given in Example 23. This translation is **not** influenced by the ST order: in this solution, the translator has not focused only on the verb phrase *is lingered on* but has incorporated the meaning of the following time adverbial *throughout the film* into the translation, thus enlarging the translation segment beyond the obligatory shift. Furthermore, the equivalent of *however* is transferred from the initial position.

Example 23.

Ian 1/5:
ST: **However**,/ it is human resilience/ that is lingered on throughout the film
TT: Ihmisluonteen periksiantamattomuus on **kuitenkin** elokuvan varsinainen teema
'Human resilience is however movie's real theme.'

6.4.1.3 ST grammar motivation

A TT chunk is deemed to be motivated by the ST grammar if its grammatical construction is close to the ST. A translator may, for example, resort to the TL grammatical means that is typically used as the equivalent of the specific SL grammatical means. Translating an English prepositional phrase into a Finnish NP with the typical case equivalent is an example of such grammar motivation, as is the case in Example 24 in which a PP with *to* is translated into a Finnish NP in allative case. In Example 24, a similar relation between lexical items in the ST and in the TT is constructed by a prototypically **corresponding** (not the same) grammatical means. This particular example is also ST-motivated in order and in lexis.

Example 24.

Mia 1/11:
ST: inferior **to** all but fellow cons
TT: alempiarvoinen kaiki**lle** paitsi vertaisi**lle**en rikollisi**lle**
'lower-in-worth all-ALL except fellow-ALL criminals-ALL'

In some cases, the TL does not have the corresponding grammatical means. This is the case for example with the structure *for this to be fully explored*. Such a passive infinitive form cannot be formed by any grammatical means in Finnish because Finnish passive does not allow an infinitive form. Translation of this ST chunk is considered ST-motivated in grammar if the translator orients towards *some* grammatical element of the ST chunk, for example the passive voice, as in Example 25 below.

Example 25.

Paul 1/6:
ST: for this **to be** fully **explored**
TT: jotta tätä **voitaisiin tarkastella** perusteellisesti
'so that this **could be examined** thoroughly'

If the focus is on a single word, as in the expressions *alcohol-fuelled* or *certain (status)*, a TT chunk is regarded as grammatically ST-motivated if the TT lexical item represents the same word class used in the same grammatical form. For example, in Example 26 below all translations of *alcohol-fuelled* are considered as ST-motivated in grammar, since they are represent a compound adjective that is formed of two lexical items, similarly to the ST chunk. (The first two alternatives are even closer to the ST grammar in that the second part of the compound adjective is derived from a verb, as in the ST.)

Example 26.

Sam, Harry, Mia, Stu 1/3:
ST: alcohol-fuelled

TTs: alkoholin vauhdittama	'alcohol speeded'
alkoholin lietsoma	'alcohol inflamed'
alkoholinhuuruinen	'alcohol fuming'
alkoholinkatkuinen	'alcohol smelling'

Example 27, in turn, illustrates a single-word TT chunk that is **not** ST-motivated by grammar. Although *korkeampaan* as a translation of *certain* is an adjective, it is used in a different grammatical form (comparative). The TT chunk is ST-motivated only by order.

Example 27.

Mia 1/8:
ST: a **certain** status
TT: **korkeampaan** asemaan
'a higher status'

6.4.1.4 Not ST-motivated solutions

When a TT chunk seems **not** to imitate the ST in any of the three aspects introduced above, it is deemed not ST-motivated. Examples 28–30 below illustrate such solutions. In Example 28, the adjective *alcohol-fuelled* is translated into a Finnish idiom *humalapäissä*, an adverb that means *drunk*. The order of TT elements does not follow the order of the ST elements.

Example 28.

Ian 1/3:
ST: the couple had an **alcohol-fuelled** argument
TT: he olivat riidelleet **humalapäissä**
'they had argued drunk'

Escalated in Example 29 is replaced by a heavier grammatical construction with a different verb; no ST motivation can be detected.

Example 29.

Paul 1/13:
ST: then **escalated** as the word spread
TT: elokuva on **kerännyt enemmän ja enemmän katsojia**
'the movie has gathered more and more spectators'

In Example 30, the translator has restructured clauses within the sentence, taking the semantically opposite lexical items and turning the expression to one that is negative.

Example 30.

Ian 1/13:
ST: **inferior to all but fellow cons**, regardless of his brain
TT: eikä älykkyydestään huolimatta **muita vankeja yhtään parempi**
'and not despite his intelligence any better than other prisoners'

In the final Example 31, the heavy NP with embedded PPs is transferred into the TT as a subclause with finite verbs, using lexis that is different from the ST chunk. The order of constituents in the TT is also different from the order in the ST.

Example 31.

Sam 1/7:
ST:who provides **the voice-over to Andy's silent initiation and eventual apparent resignation to his situation**
TT: toimii kertojana, **kun Andy kieltäytyy hyväksymästä tilannettaan ja vajoaa äänettömänä ajatuksiinsa**.
'acts as the narrator when Andy refuses to accept his situation and falls silently into his thoughts'.

6.4.2 Levels of ST motivation and processing patterns

The TT chunks may show different levels of ST motivation, as visualized in Figure 12 below. The red dots in the Figure represent the TT chunk. The arrow symbolizes the different levels of ST motivation in TT chunks.

The level of ST motivation may vary in the interim solutions preceding the final TT chunk. The following processing patterns emerged from the analysis of the level of motivation during a translation process of each ST chunk.

In **consistently ST-motivated processing** the level of ST motivation remains the same in all interim solutions: a student may, for example, try interim solutions that are motivated by the ST order and grammar all along, changing only single lexical items. A student may also keep repeating exactly the same solution she has proposed earlier.

In the **varyingly ST-motivated processing** the level of ST-motivation changes: a new interim solution decreases or increases the level of ST motivation in the TT. **Decreasing ST motivation** is what happens in translators' processes according to the

literal translation hypothesis (Englund Dimitrova 2005 a,b); a translator goes for an 'easy' solution first (possibly to save cognitive resources in the drafting phase) and returns to monitor the textual chunk later. These kinds of syntactic revisions form the subcategory of 'more dissimilar' in Englund-Dimitrovas's (2005b: 33) study: they refer to a change from a structure which is closely modelled upon the ST structure into a structure that is less similar to the ST structure. **Increasing ST motivation,** in turn**,** brings the TT chunk closer to the ST. Englund-Dimitrova (2005b: 34) found a similar revision pattern in her data, labelling the subcategory 'more similar'. A student may first go for a 'bold' solution and deviate from the ST and then later have second thoughts about whether such a solution is suitable after all, going for a 'safer' option by keeping closer to the ST.

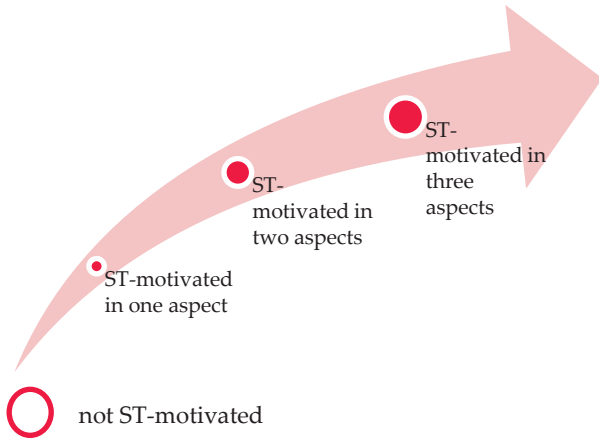


Figure 12. Different levels of ST motivation in the data.

In **not ST-motivated processing** none of the interim solutions can be deemed ST-motivated in any of the three aspects. In Englund-Dimitrova's (2005b: 34) subcategories of revision patterns, such a revision is referred to as 'other structure change', i.e. a syntactic revision where neither the first structure nor the one resulting from the revision can be characterized as being closely modelled upon the ST.

6.4.3 ST motivation as a part of skill analysis

The level of ST motivation during the translation process seems to shed light on the translator's skill to balance between the two languages she is working with. Different processing patterns give different ideas on the way the ST guides and potentially restricts interlingual text production. A **strongly and consistently ST-motivated processing** throughout the translation process suggests that the balancing skill has not materialized yet; such a processing is likely to be shown as negative transfer (cf. Toury 1995). A **strongly not-ST-motivated processing** may in fact suggest the same.

It is to be noted that a developed balancing skill is not necessary for the production of an accurate TT in the translation situation focused on in this study; the final TT chunk may be accurate irrespective of the level of ST motivation. However, I find

the balancing skill to be an elementary processing skill needed in interlingual text production and one that aspiring translators should learn during their BA studies. As Englund-Dimitrova (2005b: 32) points out, a translator needs to know which fragments **can** be translated literally (i.e. with a ST-motivated solution) and which cannot.

In the empirical analysis into each student's individual data, the **level of ST motivation is taken as a further mirror of a student's ST influence monitoring skills.** This balancing aspect is looked at by analysing the level of ST motivation in each student's processing in general and contrasting it with instances of negative transfer (TT chunks with observable ST influence) in translations.

In the concluding section of this chapter, the situation-based TC model is revisited and complemented according to the results of the 1st stage analysis presented above. The complemented model describes skills needed in a situation in which an advanced level of interlingual text production skills, accompanied with relevant knowledge about translation, is expected for a translation that fulfils the communicative needs. The model is obviously incomplete – it does not cover **all** skills involved in the process but those emerging from the 1st stage analysis, thus laying specific emphasis on skills that seem challenging at the early stages of ATC for these students and with these tasks.

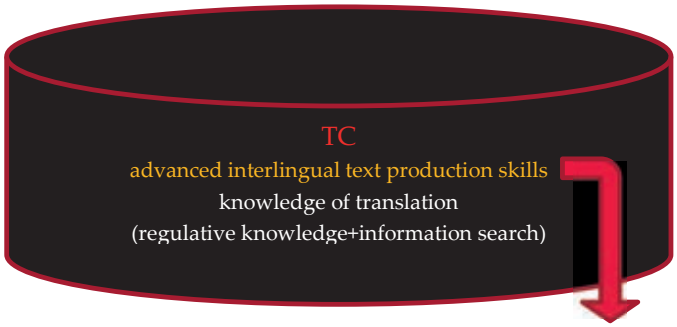
6.5 THE COMPLEMENTED MODEL: SPECIFICATION OF INTERLINGUAL TEXT PRODUCTION SKILLS

Table 9 below revisits the TC needed to carry out the translation in the situation of this study. The upper cylinder is a replication of Figure 10, showing the big picture whereas Table 8 complements it, summarizing the results of the first-stage analysis. The results serve to specify the interlingual text production skills needed in this translation situation.

As expected, the data of the present study shed little light on the different types of SL skills needed in translation. The STs were relatively easy to understand and consequently, there were few content inaccuracies in the TT chunks that would point to a specific type of skill. However, some specific skills could be identified on the basis of TT chunks which were accurate with regard to content, but which represented a somewhat exceptional category of content accuracy. For example, the TT chunk that was accurate in relation to extra textual reality rather than to the ST chunk seems to point to the existence of a specific type of problem-solving skills, i.e. the skill to apply translation strategies such as omission or replacement (see Example 1).

The analysis of linguistic accuracy of TT chunks yielded inaccuracy categories, which were divided into two major classes: categories with and without observable ST influence. The first were taken to point to different types of ST influence monitoring skills while the second were assumed to mirror different types of TL text production skills in a translation situation. Moreover, the level of ST motivation in the TT chunks and interim solutions preceding the final TT chunks seems relevant in describing the balancing aspect of students' ST influence monitoring skill.

Table 9. The complemented view on TC (in this specific translation situation).



	ADVANCED INTERLINGUAL TEXT PRODUCTIONSKILLS		
problem-solving skills	**types of SL skills**	**types of ST influence monitoring skills**	**types of TL text production skills**
skill to apply translation strategies (omission, replacement)	skill to interpret polysemous lexical items in context	monitoring TT for meaning	skill to produce exact, idiomatic TL text
	skill to recognize idioms and grasp their meaning	monitoring TT for idiomaticity, conventionality, naturalness	skill to produce text that applies to TL syntactic and structural rules
	skill to link concepts with appropriate terms (understanding terms)	monitoring TT for TL structural/syntax norms/rules	skill to produce coherent and cohesive text
	critical ST analysis skill	monitoring TT for textual cohesion and coherence	skill to produce text that applies to TL orthography rules
		monitoring TT for punctuation and spelling	skill to produce TL text with appropriate level of formality/informality
		monitoring TT for the level of formality/informality	skill to use exact terminology
		skill to balance between ST motivation and deviation	

The above-mentioned linguistic skills as well as students' knowledge about translation and the level of regulative knowledge are in the focus of the second-stage data analysis in this study. The second-stage focuses on the acquisition of these skills and knowledge, forming the longitudinal part of this empirical study. It depicts each student's starting point with regard to these skills (in the light of the translation of the 13 ST chunks) and knowledge (in the light of the auxiliary data), and compares it to the performance in a similar translation situation at the end of their BA studies. The second-stage analysis, then, puts the complemented TC model to its first test, assuming that it can bring forth differences in students' skills and knowledge and in the acquisition of them. At the same time, the second-stage analysis strives to outline the similarities in students' performance: what is it that seems difficult in interlingual text production for most beginners? The results of the second-stage analysis are given in Chapter 7.

7 Results, part II: longitudinal study into ATC

The longitudinal part of this study investigates the change that takes place in students' performance with regard to the skills specified in the first analysis. It is assumed that students possess different set of skills at the beginning of their studies, hence showing different patterns of ATC. This analysis looks into the way students differ and how their skills seem to develop during the first years of training. In this section, the results of this longitudinal study will be given.

In the longitudinal part, the complete set of data from each student was analysed. For the possession of different interlingual text production skills in particular, each student's final product and process data was looked at. In order to gain some understanding of students' knowledge about translation and regulative knowledge, both integral elements of situation-based TC, the auxiliary data was also analysed.

Prior to depicting students' TC, however, a brief reminder is given of the ST chunks, the translations of which were analysed as a mirror of interlingual text production skills. Those ST chunks are bolded and typed in blue in the 1st and 3rd year STs given below. Moreover, the ST chunks that are similar in the 1st and 3rd year STs are marked in italics.

The Shawshank Redemption

When Andy Dufresne's wife and her lover **1 are found murdered, having been shot in bed**, her husband (Robbins) is the prime suspect. This **2** ***supposition*** swiftly becomes ***assumption***, as it emerges that Andy had discovered the affair and the couple had a heated, 3 alcohol-fuelled argument shortly before the murders took place. When circumstantial evidence is added to the obvious motive, the only possible outcome is conviction. And so, as Andy begins his life sentence in Shawshank Jail, the film begins **4** ***in earnest***.

The Shawshank Redemption examines issues such as hope, despair, friendships in times of adversity and the harsh realities of a life sentence. **5 However, *it is human resilience that is lingered on*** throughout the film and, **6 for this to be fully explored**, Andy is paired up with the reflective 'Red' (Freeman) who provides **7** ***the voice-over to Andy's silent initiation and eventual apparent resignation to his situation***. Andy is the archetypal example of just how much physical and mental torment human beings can endure and, like everyone else in prison, Andy learns to get by. His business background and obvious education elevates him to a **8 certain** status, as he takes on the role of accountant to the prison's staff. **9** ***Despite*** this surface display of equality, it isn't long before Andy is reminded, **10 in no uncertain terms**, that he will always be a con, **11 inferior to all but fellow cons**, **9** ***regardless*** of his brain. However, it is Andy who has the last laugh.

The Shawshank Redemption **12 arrived quietly** **13 then escalated** as word spread and people fell in love with this simple tale of human traits.

1st year source text.

American Beauty

When a film **1 begins with the voice-over of a middle-aged man telling us** that **2 in a year from now he'll be dead**, we may suspect **3 we are in for** something different. This **4** ***supposition*** becomes **assumption** as the story starts to unfold.

Lester Burnham (Spacey) is the quintessential middle-class white American male, trapped in a life that has leached him of all passion and zeal. **5** ***Despite*** the outward display of prosperity, it isn't long before we are shown, as we delve beneath this surface, that all is not roses in the Burnham household, **5** ***regardless*** of the great house and fancy lifestyle. **6 The deterioration of his marriage into a campaign of snide comments and sarcasm** and his daughter's ambivalence towards him add to Lester's depression. And so, when he catches the eye of his daughter's beautiful friend Angela (Sunari), his life starts changing **7** ***in earnest***.

8 Lester's midlife sexual obsession with Angela is more wake-up call than realistic chase, **9 giving him** **10 the whiff of excitement he once experienced**. Meanwhile, his wife embarks on an affair with a sleazy real estate agent and his daughter becomes involved with the **11** ***camcorder-obsessed*** boy, Ricky, across the road. Gradually, the apparently quiet neighbourhood is revealed in all its ugly nakedness.

Arriving on the scene in 1999, *American beauty* was the archetypal nineties film that examines themes such as non-conformity, beauty, and repressions in American suburbia, delving into characters' lives in an intrusive manner. The premise of the film is the search for Lester's murderer. However, **12** ***it is the road that takes each character toward the motive that is the real issue of the movie***. In the end, Lester provides **13** ***voice-over to the retrospective on the events leading up to his death and to his eventual satisfaction with his situation***.

3rd year source text.

Translations of the 1st year ST chunks yielded the 1st set of product and process data, and translations of the 3rd year ST chunks the 2nd set. The description of students' TC will start with general trends in skill acquisition. As could be expected, the number of TT chunks implying sufficient TC increased from the 1st to the 3rd year, as the numbers in Table 10 below show. Out of 91 total TT chunks, 36 (39.6%) implied sufficient TC in the first year while in the 3rd year the corresponding number was 59 (64.8%).

Table 10. The distribution of TT chunks implying sufficient/insufficient TC in the 1st and 3rd year translations.

TT CHUNKS	1st year		3rd year	
implying sufficient TC	36	39.6%	59	64.8%
implying insufficient TC	55	60.4%	32	35.2%
total	91	100.0%	91	100.0%

The following section will look beyond these numbers. First, it presents general trends implied by the analysis of the all TT chunks in both years: which skill types seem insufficient in the light of the 1st set of data, and which in the light of the 2nd set of data. In addition, general remarks about students' knowledge about translation and regulative knowledge will be offered. Following the general trends, results of each student's individual analyses will be presented.

7.1 GENERAL FINDINGS

7.1.1 SL skills for translation

In both sets of data, students' SL skills for the purpose of translation seemed mostly sufficient, which was to be expected: an "easy" text was purposefully chosen for the study. According to the translation commentaries, students themselves (with few exceptions) also found the texts to be easy to understand. However, some skills could be identified on the basis of a few content inaccuracies. **Dealing with polysemy** in translation seemed to be a shared challenge in this data; five students out of seven misinterpreted the polysemous lexical item *apparent* in the 1st year text. The misinterpretation may be explained by beginners' tendency to focus on short segments of ST (e.g. Dragsted 2004, 2005; Angelone 2010), which naturally also influences the way the ST is understood: they fail to take the context into account in the interpretation of polysemous lexical items. Naturally, students may simply be unaware of the polysemous nature of the word *apparent*; they choose the meaning they are familiar with without giving it a further thought. Insufficiencies in other specified SL skills needed for translation – **understanding idioms and terms** –were one-off instances and as such allow little evidence for any actual skill description: translation of *camcorder* into a *videonauhuri* ('videorecorder') is more likely to be a simple mishap rather than evidence of a lack of skill to use correct terminology. Since the above SL skills needed for translation seemed mostly sufficient from early on, they will not be discussed in the individual analyses.

Critical ST analysis skill, which also arose from the 1st stage analysis as one SL skill element needed for understanding the text for the purpose of translation, potentially underlies six TT chunks in the first and two in the second set of data. This skill is implied by the category TT=ST (despite omission). This skill seems to be one of the skills typical of translation experts: that of improving the TT in relation to the ST (cf. e.g. Tirkkonen-Condit 2005).

7.1.2 ST influence monitoring skills

7.1.2.1 Monitoring skills in the light of the focused product data

Out of a total of 91 TT chunks in the 1st set of data, 35 (38.5%) chunks showed observable ST influence, implying an insufficiency in skills to monitor the TT for negative transfer. Out of **55 inaccurate** TT chunks in the first set of data, 63.6% showed observable ST influence; thus, most inaccuracies in the first year seem to be linked with lacking ST influence monitoring skills. Out of the total 91 TT chunks in the second year data, in turn, 15 (16.5%) chunks showed observable ST influence. Out of the **32 inaccurate** TT chunks in the second set of data, 15 (46.9%) showed observable ST influence; at the end of BA studies, then, negative transfer is no longer the most frequent explanation for inaccuracy. Figure 13 below shows the distribution of ST influence into different categories, each implying a different skill insufficiency.

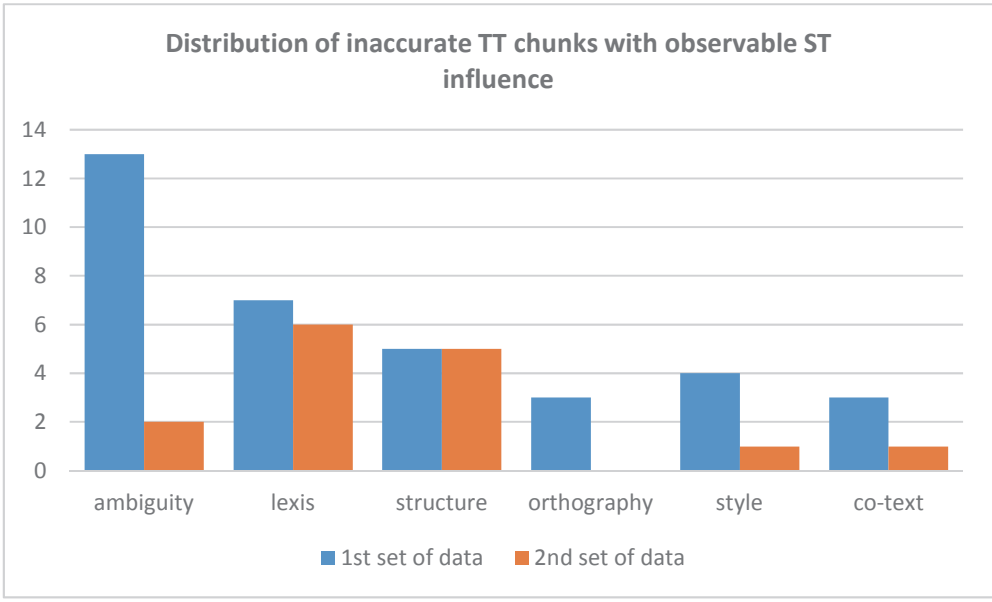


Figure 13. Distribution of inaccurate TT chunks with observable ST influence in the whole product data.

As Figure 13 shows, observable ST influence decreases in the second set of data: the change is most apparent in the category of **ambiguity**, pointing to the **skill to monitor TT for meaning**. In the first set of data, 14.3% of the total 91 TT chunks showed insufficiency in this specific skill, whereas in the second, the corresponding percentage was 2.2%. In this data, negative transfer leading to TT ambiguity was lexical interference by nature: students followed the wording of the ST, regardless of the fact that the emerging TT chunk was ambiguous. By the third year of studies, monitoring skills seem to have developed to block word-for-word renderings that result in ambiguous TT chunks. However, the columns showing the number of TT chunks in the category of **lexis** imply that it takes longer to develop the **skill to monitor the TT for ST influ-**

ence that affects the TT idiomaticity, conventionality, or naturalness: the number of TT chunks in the category of lexis shows a minimal decrease in the second set of data (7.7%/6.6% of the total 91 TT chunks in the 1st/2nd sets of data).

The number of TT chunks in the category of **structure** remains the same in the two sets of data: 5.5% (5 out of the total 91) of all TT chunks imply an insufficiency in the **skill to monitor the TT for ST-influenced structures**. Apparently, the ST chunks with structural interlingual differences were relatively easy for the students to translate and they recognized, most often at an early stage of processing, that a similar structure will not do in Finnish.

The categories of **orthography** and **cotext** both contain three TT chunks in the first set of data, which makes 3.3% of the total 91. Four TT chunks of the total 91 (4.4%) belong to the category of **style** in the first set of data. In the second set of data, the number of TT chunks in those categories is 0, 1 and 1 respectively. Thus, the second set of data shows practically no insufficiency in the **skills to monitor TT for ST-influenced orthography, style and cotextual inaccuracy**.

7.1.2.2 Balancing aspect of the ST influence monitoring skill

The balancing skill is a type of ST influence monitoring skill that is not necessary for an accurate translation to emerge in a translation situation in the present study. However, a look into this **balancing skill** serves to describe students' overall skill to work in between two languages, showing the extent to which interlingual text production is guided – restricted or supported – by the ST form. Figures 14 and 15 below show the level of ST motivation in **accurate** (Figure 14) and **inaccurate** (Figure 15) TT chunks in both sets of data.

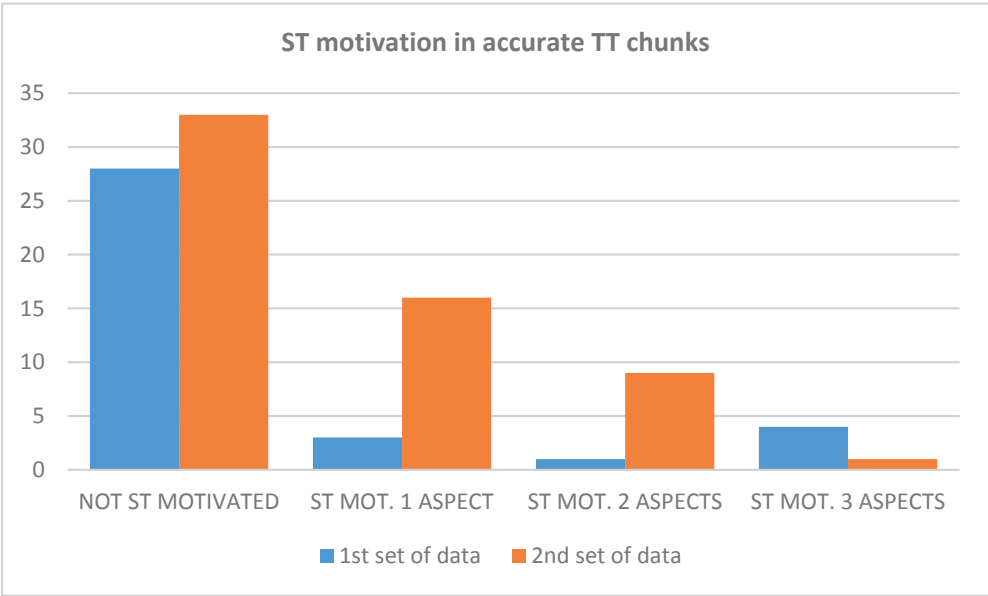


Figure 14. The level of ST motivation in accurate TT chunks in both sets of final product data. The blue column refers to the 1st set of data (1st year of studies) and the orange column refers to the 2nd set of data (3rd year of studies).

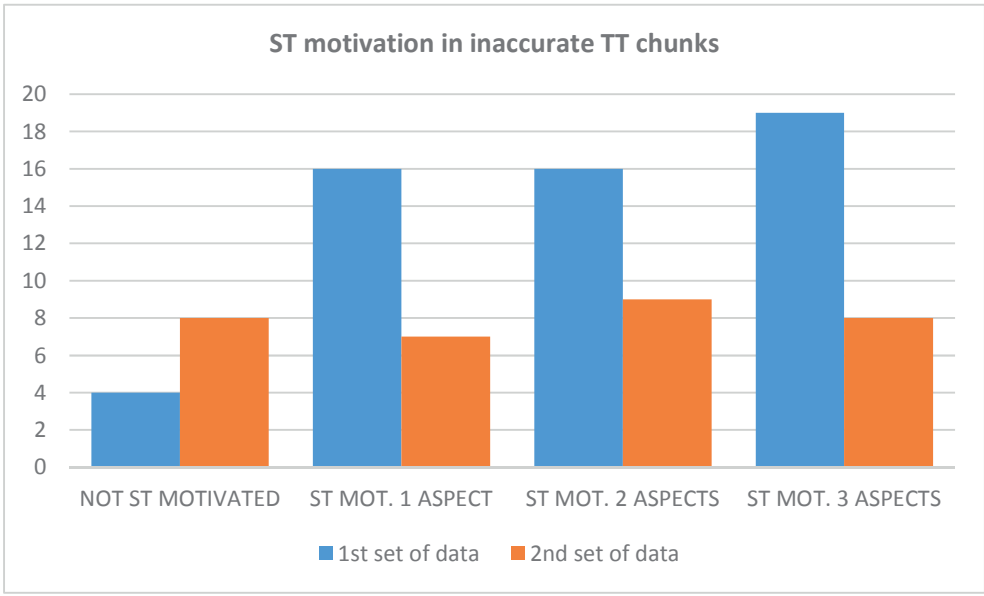


Figure 15. The level of ST motivation in inaccurate TT chunks in both sets of focused product data.

As Figure 14 shows, a **clear majority of accurate TT chunks is not ST-motivated** in both sets of data: 28 out of 36 (78%) of accurate TT chunks in the first and 33 out of 59 (56%) in the second set of data are not ST-motivated. Conversely, 51 (93%) of the 55 **inaccurate** TTs are **ST-motivated in at least one aspect** (Figure 15). This result suggests that at the beginning in particular, a clear **deviation from the ST is a more successful way to carry out the obligatory shifts than a ST-motivated solution.** Considering this finding in parallel with the instances of observable ST influence in the first set of data (Figure 13), it can be deduced that **ST motivation** often shows as **negative rather than positive transfer** in the first year performance: the **balancing skill** is yet to be developed.

In the second set of data, the proportion of **ST-motivated, accurate** TT chunks grows (Figure 14): 16 out of 59 (27%) of the 3rd year accurate TT chunks are ST-motivated in one aspect and 9 out of 59 (15%) in two aspects, whereas the corresponding 1st year figures are 8% and 3%. **In the third year, then, students seem more capable to benefit from ST motivation, showing more balancing skill.** Moreover, in the second set of data, the proportion of not ST-motivated, inaccurate TT chunks also grows, which implies that at this stage, students have proportionally more problems with TL text production than they had at the beginning. The relatively high number of inaccurate TT chunks that are not ST-motivated seems to imply that by the 3rd year, the challenges in interlingual text production shift from transfer-related problems to TL text production-related challenges.

The process data showing the level of ST motivation in interim solutions prior to the final TT chunks provides another window to the extent of balancing between ST

motivation and deviation. As a rule, the level of ST deviation does not vary considerably in students' processes; interim solutions tended to be either **consistently ST-motivated** or **completely not-ST-motivated** throughout the process. In general, then, balancing did not show in the process. Translation students in Englund-Dimitrova's (2005) study showed similar behaviour; their revisions most often did not make the TT structurally more similar or more dissimilar in relation to the ST.

7.1.3 Skills for TL text production in a translation situation

A TT chunk that is inaccurate without observable ST influence is linked with skills needed in TL text production. In the 1st set of data 26 TT chunks out of the total 91 show this type of inaccuracy (28.6%), whereas in the second set of data the corresponding number is 19 (21.0%). Out of **55 inaccurate** TT chunks in the first set of data, 47.3% involved linguistic inaccuracy without showing observable ST influence. Out of the **32 inaccurate** TT chunks in the second set of data, 59.4% involved linguistic inaccuracy without showing observable ST influence. In the third year, then, **proportionally more inaccuracies seem to arise from insufficient TL text production skills than ST influence monitoring skills**. Figure 16 below shows the total number of TT chunks that are linguistically inaccurate without observable ST influence in both sets of data.

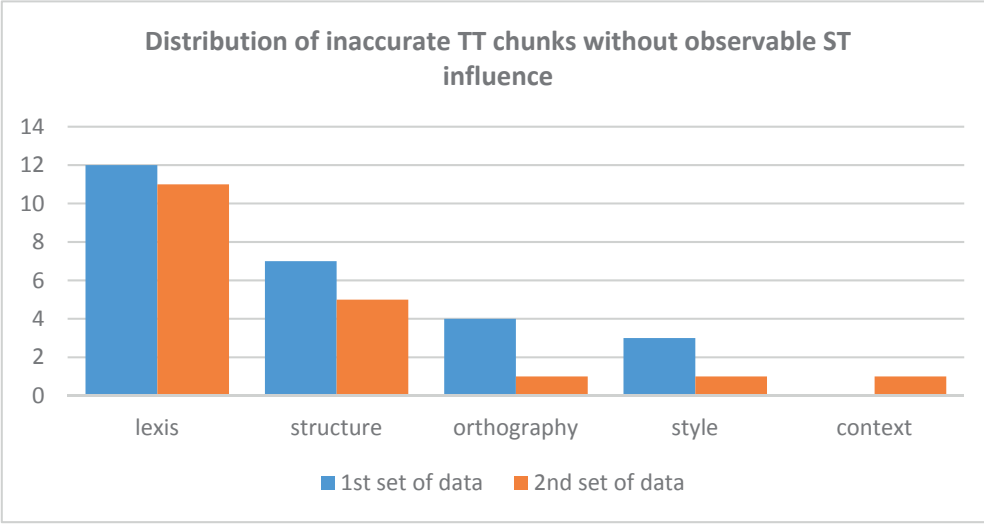


Figure 16. Number of TT chunks indicating insufficient TL text production skills. The blue column represents the 1st set of data (the 1st year) and the orange column the 2nd set of data (3rd year).

The data shows that TL text production skills – even when the TL is one's mother tongue – is not something that can be taken for granted. As the high number of TT chunks in the category of **lexis** suggests, the **skill to produce exact, idiomatic TL text** shows most insufficiencies in both sets of data: 12 and 11 of the total 91 TT chunks (13.2% and 12.1%) imply an insufficiency of this skill. In the second set of data, this is

the most frequent skill insufficiency. **Skill to produce text that applies to TL syntactic and structural rules,** implied by the category of **structure,** appears insufficient in 7 out of the total 91 TT chunks in the first and 5 in the second set of data (7.7% and 5.5%, respectively).

The categories of **orthography** and **style** point to some insufficiencies in skills to produce **orthographically and stylistically accurate TL text** in the first year: there are 4 (4.4%) and 3 (3.3%) TT chunks out of 91 that represent those categories. Those skills seem practically sufficient on the basis of the second set of data. Similarly, students seem to have the skill to produce **TT chunks** that are **accurate in their cotext** from the 1st year on, based on the number of TT chunks in the category of **cotext**. The change in the first two skills resembles that noted in ST influence monitoring skills, which is not surprising; becoming more skilled in recognizing good TL style and knowledge of TL orthographical rules is necessary for ST influence monitoring to be possible in the first place. Hence, the occurrence of both ST-influenced and not ST-influenced stylistic and orthographical inaccuracies are likely to decrease with growing TL skills, provided that students indeed also have the contrastive skills needed for monitoring.

It should be remembered that the interdependency of ST influence monitoring skills and TL text production skills means that whenever a performance shows a large amount of observable ST influence, not much can be said about the TL text production skills per se in that case: the latter are in a way 'hiding' behind the curtain of ST influence. Some students' performances are indeed very strongly influenced by the ST in the 1st year. In the 3rd year the ST influence is typically less frequent and TT chunks implying insufficient TL production skill become more prominent: ST influence monitoring skills seem improved, but TL text production skills still need further improvement.

7.1.4 Changes in knowledge of translation and regulative knowledge

Table 11 below shows how students' answers to the closed questions about translation mirror their knowledge of translation and how that knowledge has changed during training. The change is not dramatic; students' answers imply that their implicit theories about translation are, for the most part, towards dynamic rather than static to begin with, with a few exceptions. This may be due to the fact that students have had to read some basic translation theory for the university entrance examination; their implicit theories may have been influenced (reconstructed?) by input of statable knowledge. However, most implicit theories seem to have become more solid by the third year; the answers point more coherently towards dynamic understanding. PACTE (2014: 103–104) made a similar finding, noting that the most dramatic change in students' static vs. dynamic understanding of translation takes place between the 1st and 2nd years of studies. Quite surprisingly, however, four students fully or partly agreed with the first statement (THE LINGUISTIC STRUCTURE AND FORM OF A TRANSLATION SHOULD BE AS CLOSE TO THE ORIGINAL AS POSSIBLE) in the third year still. Some of them nevertheless clearly acted against the statement when translating, and expressed a dynamic view of translation in all other answers. This might imply that the question is actually poorly formulated, and the student understands the "structure and form of a translation" more broadly than referring to clause structures and forms, for example.

Table 11. Students' knowledge of translation, based on the closed statements about translation.

See appendix 4 for the statements
agree/partly agree with statements 4 and 5 > dynamic/towards dynamic
disagree/partly disagree with statement 4 and 5 > static/towards static
agree/partly agree with statements 1, 2, 3 and 6 > static/towards static
disagree/partly disagree with statements 1, 2, 3 and 6 > dynamic/towards dynamic
cannot say > ?

	Statement 1	Statement 2	Statement 3	Statement 4	Statement 5	Statement 6
STU 1st year	STATIC	STATIC	TOWARDS DYNAMIC	TOWARDS DYNAMIC	?	DYNAMIC
3rd year	STATIC	TOWARDS DYNAMIC	DYNAMIC	TOWARDS DYNAMIC	TOWARDS DYNAMIC	DYNAMIC
LEE 1st year	TOWARDS STATIC	?	DYNAMIC	?	DYNAMIC	TOWARDS DYNAMIC
3rd year	TOWARDS STATIC	DYNAMIC	DYNAMIC	TOWARDS DYNAMIC	DYNAMIC	DYNAMIC
IAN 1st year	TOWARDS DYNAMIC	DYNAMIC	TOWARDS DYNAMIC	TOWARDS DYNAMIC	DYNAMIC	TOWARDS DYNAMIC
3rd year	TOWARDS DYNAMIC	DYNAMIC	DYNAMIC	TOWARDS DYNAMIC	DYNAMIC	DYNAMIC
MIA 1st year	?	TOWARDS DYNAMIC	DYNAMIC	TOWARDS DYNAMIC	?	DYNAMIC
3rd year	TOWARDS DYNAMIC	TOWARDS DYNAMIC	DYNAMIC	TOWARDS STATIC	DYNAMIC	DYNAMIC
PAUL 1st year	?	DYNAMIC	DYNAMIC	TOWARDS DYNAMIC	DYNAMIC	DYNAMIC
3rd year	TOWARDS DYNAMIC	DYNAMIC	DYNAMIC	STATIC	DYNAMIC	DYNAMIC
SAM 1st year	TOWARDS STATIC	DYNAMIC	DYNAMIC	TOWARDS DYNAMIC	DYNAMIC	?
3rd year	TOWARDS STATIC	TOWARDS DYNAMIC	DYNAMIC	DYNAMIC	DYNAMIC	DYNAMIC
HARRY 1st year	TOWARDS STATIC	TOWARDS STATIC	TOWARDS STATIC	TOWARDS DYNAMIC	TOWARDS DYNAMIC	DYNAMIC
3rd year	TOWARDS STATIC	TOWARDS STATIC	TOWARDS STATIC	DYNAMIC	DYNAMIC	TOWARDS STATIC

Concerning the level of regulative knowledge (i.e. the question **Does the student know what she knows and what she does not know?)**, this data provides rather little information. However, some assumptions can be made on the basis of students' overall performance and their self-reflections on their translation, satisfaction with their work as well as self-evaluations as translators; what they themselves regard as their weaknesses and strengths[30]. In general, students seem to be very cautious in their self-evaluations at the beginning, the usual comment being "I am sure there is plenty of room for improvement" without further analysing what aspects in their opinion need improvement. In the 3rd year, the evaluation seems to be more in line with their performance, although there is a lot of variation between students in this

[30] This self-estimation was only asked in the 3rd year.

respect and the answers are rather general in the 3rd year as well. The group-level changes in the knowledge of translation and regulative knowledge will be discussed in more detail in section 7.2.4.5.

7.1.5 Summary of general findings

The number of TT chunks linkable to SL skills needed for translation was small in this study. Therefore, those particular skills are not focused on in the individual analyses.

The most noticeable change during BA training seems to take place in ST influence monitoring skills. Balancing skill seems improved by the third year as well. In both sets of data, skills needed to produce lexically exact TL seem insufficient more often than others. In the light of sheer numbers, little change takes place in the skills needed for TL text production in a translation situation: both sets of data suggest a similar amount of insufficiencies (apart from the skills to produce orthographically and stylistically accurate TL). Concerning the knowledge about translation, the initial understanding seems to turn more solid and coherent towards the end of BA training (with one exception). Students also seem to become more realistic about their own knowledge, although there is individual variation in this respect, too.

The individual variation is emphasized in the following section in which the results of individual analyses will be given. It is assumed that the skills in the complemented situation-based TC model are distributed unevenly in students' performance. Individual analyses are expected to bring out differences in students' TC in these specific translation situations and in this way, to shed light on different learning needs of students.

7.2 INDIVIDUAL PATHS TOWARDS TC

In this section, students' individual performance will be described, with an emphasis on the skills that seem insufficient in the two sets of data. A **performance profile** is compiled for each student on the basis of both the 1st and the 2nd set of data, showing the distribution of categories of content and TL expression in/accuracy. Since each category mirrors a specific skill, the distribution indicates which skills the students seem to possess and which not. Interim solutions prior to the final TT chunks are also analysed from the skill perspective: the profile specifies the accuracy of interim solutions as well. The level of ST motivation in interlingual processing and in the final TT chunks is also included in the profile since it reflects the balancing skill. To allow a more controlled comparison of students' skills at the beginning and towards the end of BA studies, the way students deal with the six ST chunks that were **similar** both years will also be discussed.

All students' performance profiles based on the 1st and 2nd sets of data can be found as appendices 8–14 in this report. These performance profiles form the backbone of this section; here, the information entailed in the profile is described in detail. To get a more comprehensive view on the overall competence, each students' knowledge of translation and regulative knowledge is discussed on the basis of questionnaire data.

In the following, the 1st and the 2nd set of data from individual students is discussed in parallel to gain an insight of what has changed in students' skills and knowledge.

The section is organized around three students who appeared to have a distinctive set of skills at the beginning; their process profiles set them apart from others in the first set of data. These three students – Stu, Lee and Paul – form focal points against whom the rest of the students are mirrored.

7.2.1 Stu: from faithful rendering towards balanced performance

Stu's 1st year performance was distinctive in the sense of showing highly ST-motivated performance, which often showed as negative transfer (observable ST influence) in the TT chunks he produced. Stu's full performance profiles are given in Appendix 8. In this subsection, what the performance profiles together with the auxiliary data imply about (the change and development of) Stu's interlingual text production skills will be discussed in detail.

Figure 17 below shows the distribution of inaccuracy categories in Stu's TTs. The categories arising from the 1st and the 2nd sets of data are set in parallel. It is to be noted that each TT chunk may belong to more than one category, i.e. entail more than one type of inaccuracy. Therefore, the total number on the bottom line in the figure may exceed the total number of analysed TT chunks (13 both years). The number of inaccurate TT chunks in the 1st set of data from Stu is ten, and the total number of inaccuracies was fourteen. The corresponding numbers in the second set of data were six and six.

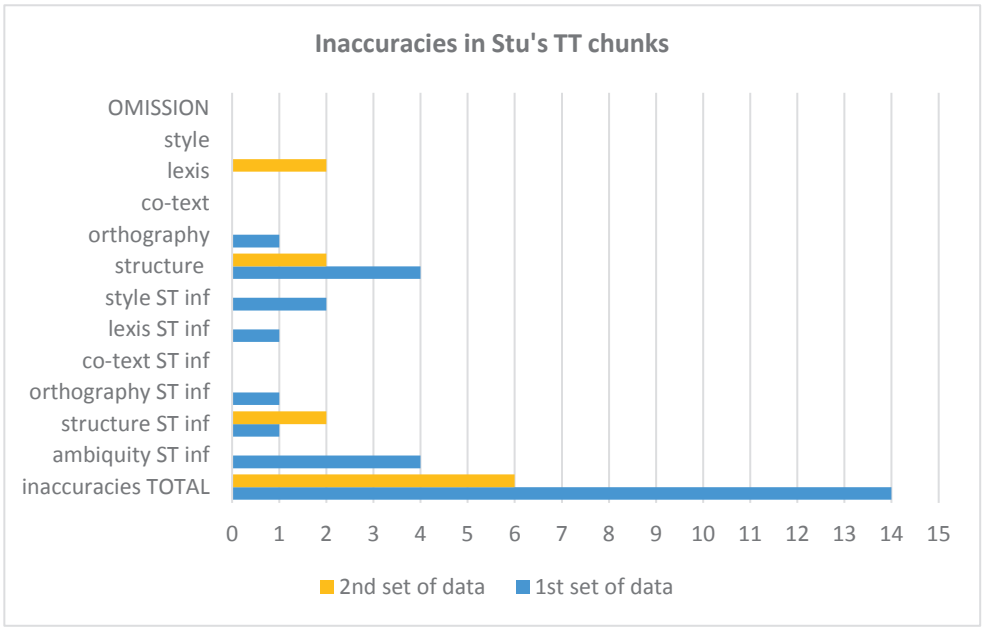


Figure 17. Inaccuracies in Stu's TT chunks. The blue columns in the figure refer to the 1st and the yellow to the 2nd set of data. The bottom line shows the total amount of inaccuracies in the products. The top row shows whether omission is adopted as the strategy to carry out the shift, in which case no linguistic equivalent for the ST chunk exists.

7.2.1.1 ST influence monitoring skills

As Figure 17 suggests, the most notable feature in Stu's 1st set of data is observable ST influence, implying insufficiency in monitoring ST influence. Table 12 below shows which types of ST influence monitoring skills seem insufficient both years, also giving the number of TT chunks that imply insufficiency.

Table 12. Stu: Skill insufficiencies implied by inaccuracy categories with observable ST influence, 1st and 3rd year.

category of inaccuracy with ST inf	**skill**	**frequency**	
		1st set of data (1st year)	**2nd set of data (3rd year)**
ambiguity	skill to monitor TT for meaning	4	-
structure	skill to monitor TT for TL structural/syntax norms/ rules	1	2
orthography	skill to monitor TT for punctuation and spelling	1	-
lexis	skill to monitor TT for idiomaticity, conventionality, naturalness	1	-
style	skill to monitor TT for the level of formality/informality	2	-
cotext	skill to monitor TT for textual cohesion and coherence	-	-

In the 1st set of data, four TT chunks suggest a deficiency in the **skill to** monitor TT for meaning. Example 32 below illustrates such a case.

Example 32.

Stu 1/2:
ST: This **supposition** swiftly becomes **assumption**
TT: **Epäilystä** tulee yleinen **olettamus**
'**Suspicion** becomes a common **supposition**.'

Process[31]:
Tästä ~~epäil~~ ~~**olettamuksesta**~~ ~~tulee pian~~
'This ~~suspic~~ ~~**supposition**~~ ~~becomes soon~~'

Tästä ~~**olettamuksesta oletuksesta**~~ **epäilystä tulee** ~~**pian**~~ päätelmä ~~**oletus olettamus**~~ **yleinen olettamus**

'This ~~**supposition supposition**~~ (syn.) s**uspicion becomes** ~~**soon**~~ ~~conclusion~~ ~~**supposition supposition**~~ **(syn.) common supposition**'

[31] A ~~strikethrough~~ means that a suggested piece of text is abandoned, and **bold** means a new suggestion. ~~**Strikethrough and bold**~~ in the same piece of text means that a suggestion is abandoned immediately.

The process preceding the final TT chunk in Example 32 shows that Stu seems to monitor the TT for ST influence on a lexical level. He revises the TT corresponding to the ST item *supposition* repeatedly, hesitating between the dictionary equivalent and alternative equivalents. All interim solutions are nevertheless ambiguous in meaning, implying that no ST influence monitoring for meaning takes place. In the final solution, *supposition* is translated into Finnish as *epäilys* ('suspicion'), a noun derived from the verb *epäillä* ('to suspect'). However, *assumption* is translated into its typical equivalent *olettamus* ('supposition/assumption'). The MOT dictionary of the Finnish language defines the verb *epäillä* as 'to think, *to assume* something negative'. In effect, then, Stu's TT chunk states that a (negative) assumption turns into a (neutral) assumption. It does not imply that the supposition grows stronger in the light of the emerging evidence. According to one of the Finnish language evaluators, this is "an odd expression, does not sound like Finnish." The meaning of the expression is ambiguous.

The process towards the final TT chunk in Example 33 below suggests the same: monitoring for ST influence takes place on the level of single lexical items but not on the level of clause meaning. When translating the word q*uietly* in the collocation *arrived quietly,* Stu seems to go for the typical dictionary equivalent *hiljaa* or *hiljaisesti* first*,* typing the beginning *hi,* but this is immediately changed into *huomaamatta* ('unnoticed'). However, since the verb *arrived* is translated into its typical dictionary equivalent *saapua,* the resulting collocation *saapua huomaamatta* ('arrive unnoticed') is, according to the external evaluators, "unclear" and "a strange expression". Stu acts according to the monitor model (cf. Tirkkonen-Condit 2005), but the ST influence is monitored on the level of single lexical items only.

Example 33.

Stu 1/12:
ST: The Shawshank Redemption **arrived quietly**
TT: Rita Hayworth – avain pakoon **saapui huomaamatta**
'The Shawshank Redemption **arrived unnoticed'**

Process:
saapui ~~hi~~ **ääneti huomaamatta**
'arrived ~~qu~~ **silently unnoticed'**

Insufficiency in other types of monitoring skills is implied less frequently. The TT chunk in Example 34 suggests **insufficient skill to monitor TT for idiomaticity, conventionality and naturalness**, and Example 35 demonstrates how word-for-word (and 'comma for comma') translation may affect the TT style and go against TL orthography rules, implying **insufficient skills to monitor TT for style and orthography**. There were no interim solutions preceding the final TT chunks.

Example 34.

ST: a **certain** status
TT**: tiettyyn** arvoasemaan

In Example 34, the lexical item *certain* is translated into its typical dictionary equivalent *tietty*, which does not really blur the meaning of the expression but makes the TT chunk somewhat imprecise. The Finnish word *tietty* refers to something that is *commonly known, specific*, whereas the English *certain* in this ST only wishes to express that Andy's situation was slightly improved.

Example 35.

> **ST: Despite** (the obvious display of equality)**,** … **regardless of** (his brain).
> **TT: Huolimatta** tästä näennäisestä tasa-arvosta**,**…, että hän tulee älykkyydestään **huolimatta** aina olemaan…
> 'Despite this seeming equality**,…,** that he will **despite** his intelligence always be…'

In Example 35, the typical dictionary equivalents of *despite* and *regardless of* result in style issues, since the same lexical item is used for the function of organizing clauses twice within one sentence. Moreover, a change in punctuation is also needed here: in Finnish, a non-finite clause starting with *huolimatta* is not separated from the following main clause by a comma. The TT is not monitored for ST-influenced orthography.

The most radical difference between the two sets of data is in the number of TT chunks implying insufficient ST influence monitoring skills; only two TT chunks in the 2nd set of data imply that, both linked with the ST influence monitoring for the TT structure. Example 36 below shows how certain ST-influenced word choices result in a TT chunk that is structurally inaccurate: *kuolemaansa* ('to his death') now refer to the death of the *ääni* ('voice'), not Lester. The process preceding the final TT chunk was extremely heavy and complex. This structural inaccuracy emerged only after various revisions, and interim solutions included accurate solutions as well.

Example 36.

> ST: Lester provides **voice**-over to the retrospective on the events leading up to **his death** and to his eventual satisfaction with his situation.
> TT: Lesterin **ääni** käy läpi **kuolemaansa** johtaneita tapahtumia ja pääsee loppujen lopuksi sinuiksi **kuolemansa** kanssa.
> 'Lester's **voice** goes through to death-POS leading events and finds in the end peace with death-POS.'

7.2.1.2 Balancing skill

Table 13 below shows the change in the level of ST motivation in the two sets of data. In the 1st year, most TT chunks are ST-motivated with regard to grammar, order and lexis. The 3rd year performance, in turn, shows more attempt towards not ST-motivated solutions. The number of solutions that are ST-motivated in one or two aspects, showing balancing between the languages, does not show a drastic change.

Table 13. Stu's TT chunks in terms of ST motivation.

END SOLUTION	NOT ST-MOTIVATED	ST-MOTIVATED ONE ASPECT	ST-MOTIVATED TWO ASPECTS	ST-MOTIVATED THREE ASPECTS
1st set of data (1st year)	1	2	3	7
2nd set of data (3rd year)	5	3	3	2

Table 14, in turn, shows the level of ST motivation in the strings of interim solutions in both years. In other words, it shows the way ST-TT linguistic relation takes form and to what extent ST seems to guide the TT production process.

Table 14. Stu: Level of ST motivation in the strings of interim solutions.

	NOT ST MOT ALL ALONG	DECREASING ST MOTIVATION	INCREASING ST MOTIVATION	ST MOT ALL ALONG
1st year	1	2	6	2
3rd year	1	2	3	2

In the 1st year, Stu revises his text frequently: out of thirteen instances, the final TT chunk is preceded by one or more interim solutions in eleven cases. Strong ST motivation is apparent throughout the processing: the string of solutions is either ST-motivated in **three** aspects all along, or there are minor changes from ST-motivated in two aspects to ST-motivated in **three** aspects. Three strings of interim solutions suggest that Stu initially goes for a clearly less ST-motivated solution, but in the end chooses a more ST-motivated one. The only not ST-motivated solution emerges as a result of not ST-motivated interim solutions – this is the translation of the idiom *in earnest*. The high level of ST motivation and the fact that ST motivation is shown as negative transfer (observable ST influence) in nine instances implies that Stu prefers staying close to ST in the beginning. The following Example 37 illustrates how strongly ST can influence and guide translation, although in the end, Stu comes up with a TT chunk that is ST-motivated in one aspect only. This example, then, shows decreasing ST motivation, which is uncharacteristic of Stu in the 1st set of data. The process, however, shows also increasing ST motivation between the interim solutions.

Example 37.

1/5:

ST: However, it is human resilience that is lingered on throughout the film

TT: Elokuvan kantavana ja koko elokuvan läpi viipyilevänä teemana on silti ihmisen lannistumattomuus

'Movie's supporting and whole movie through lingering theme is still human being's resilience'

Process:
Ihmisen sitkeys joka ~~viivy~~ **viipyilee** elokuvan läpi
'Human resilience that ~~ling~~ **lingers** the movie through'

Kuitenkin, se >Kuitenkin~~,~~ **se** ihmisen sitkeys joka viipyilee elokuvan läpi
(adds: 'However, the' > removes the comma)

the first complete drafting version:
Kuitenkin se ihmisen sitkeys, joka viipyilee elokuvan läpi
'However the human resilience, that lingers movie through'

(In revision stage, starts anew:
Kuitenkin, se on ('However, it is')
but deletes and gets back to first version, deletes the first version, too):
Kuitenkin se ihmisen sitkeys, joka viipyilee elokuvan läpi
'However the human resilience, that lingers movie through'

Elokuva ~~tut n~~ n kantavana ~~ajatuksena~~ teemana on ~~ihmisen~~
'Movie ???? 's supporting ~~idea~~ theme is ~~human beings~~'

Elokuvan kantavana ja **~~koko elokuvan~~ koko elokuvan läpi ~~kantavana~~ viipyilevänä** teemana on **~~ihmisen~~ silti ihmisen ~~sinnikk~~ lannistumattomuus**
'Movie's supporting and **~~whole movie~~ whole movie through ~~supporting~~ lingering** theme is **~~human being's~~ still human being's ~~resilien~~ resilience** (syn.)

When translating this ST chunk, Stu starts with a TT that is motivated by the ST order and lexis. The next interim solution is ST-motivated also in grammar. The first TT chunks are not, however, complete. At the revision stage, Stu starts completely anew, still with the same strongly ST-motivated approach. He abandons it immediately, changing the approach to a not ST-motivated one, coming up with *elokuvan kantavana teemana on ihmisen* ('movie's supporting theme is human being's'). At this point he turns back to the ST, reintroducing the lexical item *lingering* into his otherwise reconstructed clause: he cannot let go of the lexical item *linger,* and he also ends up keeping the time adverbial *throughout the film*, although he has incorporated its meaning already to the beginning of his TT, *elokuvan kantavana teemana* ('Movie's supporting theme'). Hence, the lexical (and phrasal) ST motivation makes the TT repetitive and semantically overlapping, affecting the style of TL expression. By leaving out the lexically ST-motivated *whole movie through lingering* Stu would have arrived at an idiomatic expression, which even introduces a typical phrase for movie discourse: *Elokuvan kantava teema*. It seems to me that Stu, who is clearly inclined to produce ST-motivated TT's in the 1st year, does not dare to completely 'abandon' the ST in this case either. He deviates from the ST structure but keeps some lexical items, introducing repetition and semantic overlapping.

In the 2nd set of data, Stu's TT chunks are less ST-motivated. Of the final TT chunks, two are ST-motivated in all three aspects, two in two aspects and four in

one aspect. Moreover, five solutions are not ST-motivated. In other words, nine solutions are ST-motivated either in one aspect or not at all. Decreasing ST motivation in text production is apparent also when looking at interim solutions, which precede eight final solutions in the 3rd year performance. Three strings of interim solutions are either not ST-motivated all along or go from ST-motivated in one aspect to not ST-motivated. A slight change makes one solution from ST-motivated in one aspect to ST-motivated in another aspect. There are three strings in which the final solution is more ST-motivated than interim solution(s): in one, omission is adopted as an interim solution but a linguistic solution is provided in the end. In the other, a longish ST chunk is made partially ST-motivated by revision. The third case is similar to the prevailing pattern in the 1st year: the solution is ST-motivated in two or three aspects throughout the processing.

Moreover, a significant change takes place from the 1st to the 2nd set of data: in the 1st, accurate translations emerged – with the exception of the idiom *in earnest* – only where the Finnish language allows a closely ST-motivated solution, as illustrated in Example 38 below. In Example 38, a PP starting with *to* is typically translated into either the illative or allative case. That alone would make the translation structurally imprecise: in Finnish, one cannot be *alempiarvoinen ('lowerworthy)* + NP in illative/allative case. However, one can be *alempiarvoinen* ***verrattuna*** (*'lowerworthy* ***compared*** + illative case). A structural shift is also unavoidable in the formation of the adjective equivalent for *inferior,* since there is no corresponding lexical item in Finnish that transfers the comparative meaning of the ST item; Finnish must, if the adjective is retained, build the comparative meaning by grammatical means, which is exactly what Stu does. As can be noted, the TT is strongly motivated by the ST: structural changes are minimal but *enough* to result in an accurate translation.

Example 38.

1/11:
ST: **inferior to** all but fellow cons
TT: **alempiarvoinen** kaikki**in** mui**hin** paitsi tois**iin** vankei**hin verrattuna**
'lowerworthy all-ILL others-ILL except fellow-ILL cons-ILL compared'

In the 2nd set of data, four accurate TT chunks are not ST-motivated, two are ST-motivated in one aspect and one in two aspects. This indicates that Stu has not only adopted a wider variety of ways to deal with interlingual differences but does also produce norm abiding Finnish text on the basis of another text when the ST cannot be leaned on for 'guidance'. Example 44 further below illustrates such a case; the obligatory shift arising from the *despite-regardless* issue in translation into Finnish is difficult to carry out by producing a strongly ST-motivated TT chunk, but Stu is able to deal with the shift in the 3rd year nevertheless (see 7.2.1.4).

7.2.1.3 TL text production skills

The TT chunks that can be linked with insufficient **TL text production skills** are almost the same in number in the 1st and the 2nd set of data, five and four, respectively. This does not automatically lead to the conclusion that Stu's TL text production

skills have not improved during BA studies; the apparent development of ST influence monitoring skills implies that they have, since monitoring skills do not materialize in the performance unless one possesses sufficient TL skills. Table 15 below shows the number of TT chunks implying a skill insufficiency in TL text production skills in sets of data. Producing structurally/syntactically accurate TL text seems particularly challenging for Stu at the beginning, and still to some extent in the 3rd year of BA studies. All TT chunks in the 2nd data suggest sufficient skill to produce orthographically accurate text in the TL, whereas in the 1st set of data one TT chunk implied insufficiency. The skill to produce exact, idiomatic language seemed sufficient on the basis of the 1st set of data, while in the 2nd set there are two TT chunks suggesting an insufficiency in that specific skill.

Table 15. Stu: TT chunks implying a skill insufficiency in TL production.

category of inaccuracy	**skill insufficiency implied**	**frequency**	
		1st set of data (1st year)	**2nd set of data (3rd year)**
structure	skill to apply TL syntactic and structural rules in text production	4	2
orthography	skill to apply TL orthography rules in text production	1	-
lexis	skill to use exact, idiomatic language in text production	-	2
style	skill to produce TL text with appropriate level of formality/informality	-	-
cotext	skill to produce coherent and cohesive text	-	-

Examples 39 and 40 below show on which level the TL text production skill falters in the 1st year. In Example 39, the structure of the TT chunk is inaccurate in its textual environment, while in Example 40, both the structure and orthography go against the norms in Finnish.

Example 39.

1/6:
ST: for this **to be fully explored**, (Andy is paired up with…)
TT: jota läpikotaisin **tutkiskellakseen** (Andy tapaa)
'which thoroughly to explore (Andy meets)'

In Example 39 the shift is carried out by translating the original non-finite clause into a non-finite relative sublause. However, the Finnish subclause takes the same subject as the following main clause (***Andy*** *tapaa –* ***Andy*** *meets*). In other words, Andy is turned into an active agent in the Finnish formulation, which makes the sentence somewhat illogical: Andy is unlikely to 'meet' Andy *in order to* explore 'human resilience' (which is the reference of *this*); it is not Andy who chooses to be paired up with Red and to explore human resilience. Thus, the expression *jota läpikotaisin tutkiskel-*

lakseen is regarded as structurally inaccurate in this textual environment, implying insufficiency in the skill to produce a structurally accurate TL text.

Example 40.

1/1:
ST: are found **murdered**, having been **shot** in bed
TT: löydetään **murhattuina ammuttuna** vuoteeseensa
'are found **murdered**-PL **shot**-SG to their bed'

The TT chunk in Example 40 has a structural issue in that *murhattu* ('murdered') and *ammuttu* ('shot') should, if used in succession like in this TT chunk, appear in the same number; in Finnish, participle forms of verbs that function as adjectives are conjugated in number. In this case, the first is in plural and the second in singular. This TT chunk also entails an orthographic inaccuracy: if both lexical items are retained in translation, they should be separated by a comma in Finnish, too. In fact, according to the external evaluators, retaining both lexical items in a similar structure as in the ST is problematic: "The same case of the successive lexical items is disturbing". Thus, this TT chunk is also deemed structurally inaccurate with observable ST influence: lexical ST influence is shown as a disturbing TT structure (since the lexical items are used in the same case).

The 2nd set of data also point to the need to further refine the structural skill, as can be seen in Example 41. This solution, according to one evaluator, "sounds somewhat non-Finnish". Another evaluator says, "more Finnish and therefore a more suitable structure would be *elokuvan alku* ('movie's beginning')".

Example 41.

2/3:
ST: we are in for something different
TT: Ei mikään tavallisin **alku elokuvalle**.
'Not the most usual **beginning to a movie**.'

Example 42, in turn, illustrates a TT chunk implying insufficiency in the skill to produce lexically precise TL. The problem lies in the idiom *kareilla* ('on the rocks'), which Stu uses in the plural form although the fixed form of the idiom in Finnish is in singular: *olla karilla* ('be on the rock').

Example 42.

2/6:
ST: the **deterioration** of his marriage into a campaign of snide comments and sarcasm
TT: Avioliitto on **kareilla** ja pariskunnan kanssakäyminen on liuta häijyjä kommentteja ja sarkasmia.
'Marriage is on the rocks and couple's interaction is a series of snide comments and sarcasm.'

In fact, the two TT chunks in examples 41 and 42 raise the question of whether Stu's Finnish production is actually somewhat influenced by the source *language* (rather than source *text*). One can hear the echo of English structures in Stu's solutions, even though these specific structures were not used in the ST (the plural *kareilla* vs. *on the rock**s***, *alku elokuva**lle*** – beginning **to** a movie). The difference between source **language** and source **text** influence has been acknowledged for example by Mauranen (2004).

7.2.1.4 Skills implied by interim solutions

Interim solutions were also analysed for **linguistic and content accuracy.** The question here is whether the interim solutions can suggest skills that seem insufficient on the basis of the final TT chunk. Stu's strings of interim solutions seem very much alike in both sets of data, although there is slightly more processing in the 1st year. Typically, Stu's interim solutions do not vary with regard to accuracy; most often, what starts as an inaccurate – or accurate – solution remains that way throughout the process. His revisions resemble the pattern found in Malkiel's study (2009), in which most self-corrections were word and phrase replacements with synonyms and only 20% of self-corrections corresponded to phenomena that usually posit difficulties in that language pair.

Figure 18 below shows the ways in which interim solutions vary with regard to accuracy. If interim solutions were **incomplete**, they were not analysed for accuracy. The patterns **accurate all along** or **inaccurate all along** describe processes in which all interim solutions represent the same category of (in)accuracy and do not bring out skills that are no implied by the final TT chunk. The first case rather mirrors students' confidence and trust in her skills; the skills are not perhaps strong enough and a student is therefore unable to judge the success of the solution (cf. Angelone 2010: 33, Hansen 2006: 203), therefore revising what actually does not need revision. The latter pattern may imply inability to identify the actual problem; in Angelone's (2010: 34) words, "solution evaluation has deteriorated into a kind of casting about for answers to an inadequately diagnosed problem". The process given in example 32 earlier serves as an example of such behaviour. The pattern **from inaccurate to accurate**, in turn, makes observable some of those skills that are needed for an accurate TT: some skills seem to be lacking in the initial solution(s) but are not lacking on the basis of the final TT chunk. Patterns involving omission, **omission to inaccurate** and **accurate all along with omission** refer to processes during which omission is considered as a solution at some point but linguistic solution is preferred to it in the end. These patterns do not bring out any linguistic skills, but they do imply translator's awareness of other than linguistic translation solutions. The patterns **from accurate to inaccurate**, and **changes but none accurate** are of specific interest here, since **they may suggest interlingual text production skills that seem lacking on the basis of the final TT chunk only.** The pattern **from accurate to inaccurate** describes a process in which an accurate TT chunk turns inaccurate due to revision; hence, the interim solution suggests a skill that is not suggested by the final TT chunk. The pattern **changes but none accurate** in turn means that interim solutions are **different** with regard to the category of content or TL **in**accuracy. Even though all interim solutions are deemed

inaccurate in some aspect throughout the process, the accurate aspects vary, and the student **may** show some specific skill during the process that seems to be missing on the basis of the final TT chunk.

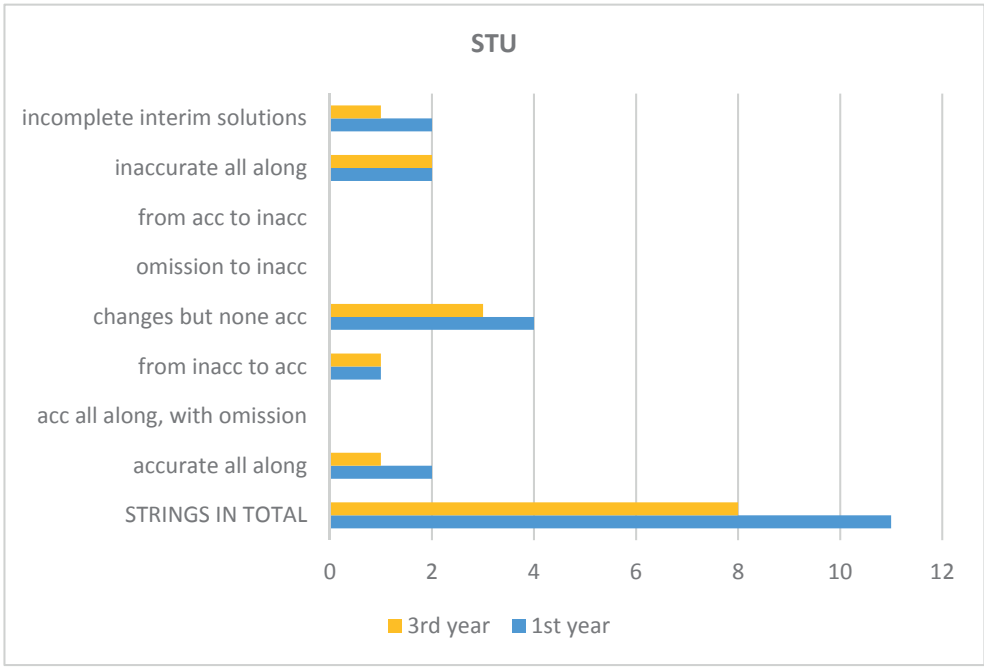


Figure 18. Strings of interim solutions with regard to accuracy in Stu's performance. The blue column refers to the 1st year and the yellow to the 3rd year performance. The columns on the bottom indicates the total amount of strings of interim solutions.

As Figure 18 suggests, four of Stu's processes in the 1st and three in the 2nd set of data represent the pattern **changes but none accurate.** Example 43 below illustrates this pattern. In this process, the second component of the sentence is first completely omitted from the translation and hence, the repetition that follows from the typical translations of *despite* and *regardless of* is avoided. This solution is inaccurate only with respect to TL orthography: there is a ST-influenced comma after *huolimatta tästä XXX*. However, Stu seems to show critical ST analysis skill by omitting the final constituent of the sentence – *regardless of his brain* – from the TT. The constituent does not bring new information to the text as a whole. In the end, Stu decides, albeit hesitatingly, to keep the final constituent, translating *regardless of* into *huolimatta*, too, which then introduces repetition to the sentence. The final TT chunk implies insufficient ST influence monitoring skill for the TT style and orthography. The process, however, points to some skills that are not suggested by the final TT chunk. In addition to this example, one 1st year and two 3rd year processes contain interim solutions that are accurate with regard to structure while the final TT chunks are not. Obviously, then, Stu *can* produce structurally accurate expressions. The fact that he abandons them, replacing accurate structure with an inaccurate one, however suggests that the knowledge underlying the skill is not solid enough.

Example 43.

1/9:
ST: **Despite** the XXX, xxx, **regardless of** xxx.
Process:
~~Tästä~~ **Huolimatta tästä** XXX, xxx. (omitted)
~~'This~~ **Despite this** XXX, xxx.'

(addition)
Huolimatta tästä XXX, xxx, ~~**, huol**~~ xxx **huolimatta** xxx
'Despite this XXX, xxx, ~~**desp**~~ xxx **despite** xxx.'

7.2.1.5 Development of skills in the light of similar ST chunks

To conclude the report of changes in Stu's interlingual text production skills, the ST chunks containing similar interlingual differences are set in parallel. Closer examination of the translation of similar ST chunks provides a more controlled view into Stu's progress. Table 16 below shows the similar ST chunks in the 1st and the 2nd ST, and the skills implied by the corresponding TT chunks in both sets of data.

Table 16. Stu: similar ST chunks and skills implied by the corresponding TT chunks in both sets of data.

SIMILAR ST CHUNKS in the two sets of data	**skill implied by the TT chunk in the 1st set of data**	**skill implied by the TT chunk in the 2nd set of data**
1st: supposition swiftly becomes assumption 2nd supposition becomes assumption	**insufficient ST influence monitoring for TT meaning** INCREASING -> DECREASING -> INCREASING ST MOTIVATION (STRUCTURE, ORDER, LEXIS)	**insufficient skill to produce structurally accurate TL text** ST MOT(LEXIS)-> ST MOT (ORDER)
1st alcohol-fuelled 2nd camcorder-obsessed	**all skills sufficient** ST-MOTIVATED ALL ALONG (STRUCTURE, ORDER, LEXIS)	**all skills sufficient** INCREASING -> DECREASING -> INCREASING ST MOTIVATION (ORDER, LEXIS)
1st in earnest 2nd in earnest	**all skills sufficient** NOT ST-MOTIVATED	**all skills sufficient** ST-MOTIVATED (ORDER)
1st However, it is human resilience that is lingered on 2nd However, it is the road that takes each character toward the motive that is the real issue of the movie	**insufficient ST influence monitoring for TT style** INCREASING -> DECREASING -> INCREASING ST MOTIVATION (LEXIS)	**insufficient skill to produce lexically accurate TL text** NOT ST-MOTIVATED ALL ALONG
1st the voice-over to Andy's silent initiation and eventual apparent resignation to his situation 2nd voice-over to the retrospective on the events leading up to his death and to his eventual satisfaction with his situation	**insufficient ST influence monitoring for TT meaning** DECREASING -> INCREASING ST MOTIVATION (STRUCTURE, ORDER, LEXIS)	**insufficient ST influence monitoring for TT structure** ST-MOTIVATED ALL ALONG (LEXIS, STRUCTURE)
1st despite…, regardless of 2nd despite…, regardless of	**insufficient ST influence monitoring for TT orthography and style** INCREASING ST MOTIVATION (STRUCTURE, LEXIS)	**all skills sufficient** INCREASING -> DECREASING ST MOTIVATION (NONE)

Stu's development in the light of his translations of these six ST chunks is very similar to that suggested by the change taking place in the handling of all 13 ST chunks. Therefore, Table 16 provides a neat summary of his skills. The way Stu deals with the interlingual challenge of *despite/regardless of* at the beginning and towards the end of his BA studies seems indicative of the change that takes place in his interlingual text production skills in general. Example 44 shows how Stu translates these textual elements both years. In the 1st year, Stu's process shows increasing **ST motivation which results in negative transfer**. ST influence shows as a stylistic inaccuracy in TT: *huolimatta* appears twice within the same sentence. In the 3rd year, the long sentence has been split into two, and there are no non-finite complementary clauses in the TT chunk; the shift arising from the use of *despite–regardless of* within the same sentence is carried out by building all subclauses within the sentence anew. The process shows increasing ST motivation first but decreasing in the end so that the final TT chunk is not-ST-motivated.

Example 44.

9/1:	5/2:
ST:	ST:
Despite the obvious display of equality, …, **regardless of** his brain.	**Despite** the outward display of prosperity, … , **regardless of** the great house and fancy lifestyle.
TT:	TT:
Huolimatta tästä näennäisestä tasa-arvosta,…että hän tulee älykkyydestään **huolimatta** aina olemaan…	Ulkoisesti kaikki näyttää olevan mallillaan, mutta totuus piilee pinnan alla. Burnhamien elämä ei olekaan aivan niin ruusuista, kuin iso talo ja kallis elämäntapa antavat olettaa.
'Despite this seeming equality,…that he will **despite** his intelligence always be…'	'On the outside everything seems to be fine, but the truth hides beneath the surface. Burnhams' life is not as rosy as the big house and an expensive lifestyle let us assume.'

The TT chunks in Example 45 below provide another illustration of change in Stu's skills. The first year solution is ST-motivated in all three aspects and shows ambiguity which stems from negative transfer. This implies **insufficiency in the rudimentary ST influence monitoring skill,** that of monitoring TT on the level of meaning. The 3rd year solution is ST-motivated in order, but this motivation can be considered as positive transfer, which in turn implies **balancing skill**. Although the 3rd year solution is inaccurate, too, it points to an **insufficiency of TL text production skills** rather than ST influence monitoring skills, to **the skill of producing structurally accurate TL text** in particular (the use of passive in this expression is deemed as inaccurate in this context by two external evaluators).

Example 45.

2/1:	4/2:
supposition swiftly becomes **assumption**	**supposition** swiftly becomes **assumption**
Epäilystä tulee **yleinen olettamus** '**Suspicion** becomes a **common supposition**.'	**ensivaikutelmalle** saadaan **vahvistusta** **'first impression** gets **strengthened'**

Producing structurally accurate TL text seems somewhat challenging for Stu still near the end of BA training; both his ST influence monitoring skills and TL text production skills show insufficiencies in this respect. However, the structural inaccuracies are minor in the 3rd year TT chunks: often the Finnish experts had a different opinion on whether the TT chunks were in fact inaccurate or not. In other words, it is less simple to give an objective reason for not approving Stu's 3rd year solutions than it was with the 1st year. The justification is more often based on one's intuition on the proper or correct use of language rather than on specific rules that are being broken. The same applies to the 3rd year TT chunks that imply some insufficiency of the skill to produce lexically exact TL text. It can be said that what Stu still needs is strengthening skills for structural and lexical 'fine-tuning'.

7.2.1.6 Knowledge of translation and regulative knowledge: perceptions arising from the questionnaires

Table 17 shows what Stu's answers to the questions about translation imply about his knowledge of translation. He seems to have a rather contradictory, or unorganized, idea about translation in the beginning, which then turns more clearly towards dynamic understanding in the 3rd year. His 1st year performance seems to align with this contradictory view; he attempts to deviate from the ST at times, but in the end, chooses the ST-motivated strategy.

Table 17. Stu's closed answers to statements about translation.

STU	statement 1	statement 2	statement 3	statement 4	statement 5	statement 6
1st year	agree STATIC	agree STATIC	partly disagree TOWARDS DYNAMIC	partly agree TOWARDS DYNAMIC	cannot say ?	disagree DYNAMIC
3rd year	agree STATIC	partly disagree TOWARDS DYNAMIC	disagree DYNAMIC	partly agree TOWARDS DYNAMIC	partly agree TOWARDS DYNAMIC	disagree DYNAMIC

In the 1st year open questions, Stu's hesitation with regard to the ST-TT relation is also present in the following statement: "…clause structure does not **probably** have to be the same as in the original… but for example in literary texts one has to be faithful to the original **also with regard to structure**." In summary, he seems unsure of what

type of ST-TT relation is preferred, or 'allowed' in translation. Hence, some of his apparent 'shortcomings' in ST influence monitoring skills may be explained by the idea of structural faithfulness as the guideline for translation at the beginning.

Stu's open answers to the question "What is translation?" seems to reveal a change during training. In the 1st year, Stu states that (translation is) "…transferring **written information** from one language into another, **keeping it as close to the original as possible**, i.e. not changing the original idea", and in the 3rd year, (translation is) "… transferring **a message, an idea**, from one language to another as exactly and completely as possible." The first year answer brings closeness to the original written information to the fore, whereas the third year answer emphasizes the exact transfer of a message, the idea. Closed questions also imply that Stu's understanding of translation has become more clearly dynamic (despite him still agreeing with the first statement, the usability of which was discussed in section 7.1.4). The change is observable also in his performance.

Finally, some observations can be made about Stu's regulative knowledge, i.e. the knowledge of his own knowledge. This involves knowledge of one's own shortcomings as well as strengths. Within this study, assessing this knowledge comes down to the question: Does the translator seem to know that he does not know? In Stu's self-evaluation of his 1st year translation, **he seems to acknowledge his translation-related limitations in the situation,** saying that "I think I translated word-for-word a bit too often. Nevertheless, it is (hopefully) not totally lousy." His 3rd year evaluation of his performance was more confident (and as in the 1st year, realistic), his reply to the question **Are you satisfied with your translation** being: "More or less, yes. I think I managed to solve a few spots really well, although there were more difficult spots, too." Also, when evaluating how difficult the text was to translate, Stu picked 'average' in the 1st and 'average, towards difficult' in the 3rd year answers, which implies that he recognized the interlingual challenges in the task in both years. Perhaps it is indeed his increased knowledge about the activity that made him add 'towards difficult' in the 3rd year evaluation – a speculation supported by the so called 'translation does not get easier' phenomenon (Gerloff 1988: 54).

7.2.2 Lee: in the search for originality

Lee's performance could be described as the exact opposite of Stu: the distinctive feature in his 1st year performance is tendency to deviate strongly. Lee's full performance profile from both years is given in Appendix 9. In this subsection, what the performance tables imply about Lee's interlingual text production skills in the 1st and the 3rd year of his studies will be discussed in detail.

Figure 19 below shows the distribution of inaccuracy categories represented in Lee's TT production. The categories arising from the 1st and the 2nd sets of data are set in parallel. Lee's TT chunks imply sufficient interlingual text production skills more often than insufficient in both sets of data. The number of inaccurate TT chunks in the 1st set of data is six, and in the 2nd , two. In addition, the 2nd set of data involved three omissions.

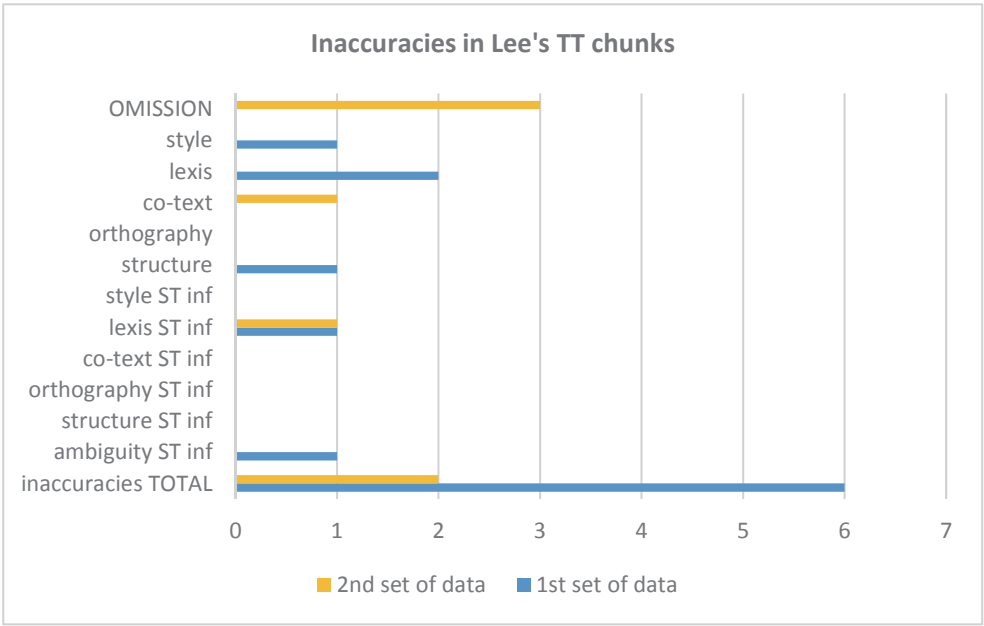


Figure 19. Inaccuracies in Lee's TT chunks. The blue columns in the figure refer to the 1st and the yellow to the 2nd set of data. The bottom line shows the total amount of inaccuracies in the products. The top line shows whether omission is adopted as the strategy to carry out the shift, in which case no linguistic equivalent for the ST chunk exists.

In the following, the category distribution depicted in Figure 19 is analysed in terms of skills.

7.2.2.1 ST influence monitoring skills

Based on the analysis of the final product data, Lee's ST influence monitoring skills are sufficient almost throughout the 1st year translation: only two TT chunks represent a category of inaccuracy with observable ST influence. In the 2nd, merely one TT chunk implies insufficient monitoring skills (see Table 18).

As Table 18 suggests, in one instance Lee does not seem to monitor the TT for ST-influenced ambiguity, and in one instance, in both sets of data, monitoring skills are insufficient to detect a lexical item that is not quite exact, apparently due to ST influence. In all instances, Lee deviates in some aspects but translates one or two lexical items with their typical dictionary equivalents, and these ST-motivated lexical choices result in negative transfer. These instances are given in examples 46, 47 and 48 below. The first implies insufficiency in the skill to monitor the TT for meaning and the following two for exact lexis.

Table 18. Lee: Skill insufficiencies implied by inaccuracy categories with observable ST influence, 1st and 3rd year.

category of inaccuracy with ST inf	skill insufficiency implied	frequency	
		1st set of data (1st year)	2nd set of data (3rd year)
ambiguity	skill to monitor TT for meaning	1	-
structure	skill to monitor TT for TL structural/syntax norms/ rules	-	-
orthography	skill to monitor TT for punctuation and spelling	-	-
lexis	skill to monitor TT for idiomaticity, conventionality, naturalness	1	1
style	skill to monitor TT for the level of formality/ informality	-	-
cotext	skill to monitor TT for textual cohesion and coherence	-	-

Example 46.

1/7:
ST: provides the **voice**-over **to** Andy's **silent** initiation and eventual apparent resignation to his situation
TT: antaa **äänen** Andyn **hiljaiselle** tilanteen hyväksymiselle ja siitä irtautumiselle
'gives voice Andy's silent-ALL situation's acceptance-ALL and detachment-ALL from it'

Example 46 is deemed by one external evaluator as "an unsuccessful clause: the meaning of *giving the voice* and the rest is in the dark". Another external evaluator says: "A confusing metaphor. What does it mean?" Two lexical items within this expression are transferred as their typical dictionary equivalents into the TT: *voice* as *ääni* and silent as *hiljainen.* These ST-influenced items combined with a ST-motivated structure (allative case in Finnish as the equivalent to the English *to*-prepositional phrase) makes the TT chunk ambiguous as a TL expression: *antaa äänen Andyn hiljaiselle tilanteen hyväksymiselle* ('gives voice to Andy's silent acceptance of the situation') is difficult to understand. In this single instance Lee shows insufficient skill to monitor the TT for meaning.

Example 47.

1/12:
ST: **arrived** quietly
TT: ei ollut heti **saapuessaan** suuri hitti
'not was right away when **arriving** a big hit'

In Example 47 the ST chunk is reformulated quite radically except for the lexical item *arrive*, which is translated into its dictionary equivalent *saapua.* In Finnish, a movie cannot *arrive* without the adverbial complement denoting the place of arrival; the expression is understandable, but the lexis is not exact, implying an insufficiency to monitor the TT for conventional, idiomatic lexis.

Example 48.

2/11:
ST: camcorder-**obsessed**
TT: videonauhurin kanssa **pakkomielteisesti touhuava**
'with a videorecorder obsessively bustling'

The solution in Example 48, in turn, is commented on as follows: "This kind of formulation, *pakkomielteisesti touhuava*, ('obsessively bustling'), brings the wrong kind of connotations to mind." Here, too, the lexis is inaccurate; the typical equivalent of *obsess*, although used in different word class in the TT chunk, is not deemed appropriate here.

7.2.2.2 Balancing skill

Table 19 below shows the level of ST motivation in the two sets of data. In the 1st, six TT chunks are completely not ST-motivated and seven show some balancing, being ST-motivated in one (five instances) or two aspects. Tendency to deviate is even more pronounced in the second set of data, in which 10 TT chunks are completely not ST-motivated and only three show balancing.

Table 19. Lee's TT chunks in terms of ST motivation.

END SOLUTION	NOT ST-OTIVATED	ST-MOTIVATED ONE ASPECT	ST-MOTIVATED TWO ASPECTS	ST-MOTIVATED THREE ASPECTS
1st set of data (1st year)	6	5	2	-
2nd set of data (3rd year)	10	2	1	-

Table 20, in turn, shows the level of ST motivation in the strings of interim solutions in both years.

Table 20. Lee: Level of ST motivation in the strings of interim solutions.

	NOT ST MOT ALL ALONG	DERCREASING ST MOTIVATION	INCREASING ST MOTIVATION	ST MOT ALL ALONG
1st set of data (1st year)	1	2	1	4
2nd set of data (3rd year)	6	3	1	2

As Table 19 shows, **the first set of data suggests more balancing between languages than the 2nd set of data:** seven of the thirteen TT chunks are ST-motivated in one or two aspects. However, this strategy is not very successful, since six out of Lee's seven 1st year **accurate** TT chunks are **not ST-motivated** and one is ST-motivated in one aspect. As a rule, ST-motivated strategies tend to result in inaccurate TT chunks, as in Example 46 above. More often than not, however, they do not entail negative transfer, but are otherwise inaccurate as TL expressions (c.f. 7.2.2.3 below). In other

words, Lee **does better when totally reorganizing the ST than when using some aspects of ST as a motivation in his text production**. In the 3rd year Lee shows less attempt to balance, clearly preferring completely not ST-motivated translation strategy. This strategy is also successful: nine out of eleven accurate TT chunks are not ST-motivated while two are ST-motivated in one aspect.

Although Lee often resorts to a not ST-motivated strategy from early on, the following Example 49 shows how he seems to aim at **deviating even more radically from the ST in the 2nd set of data**. In the example, the same ST chunk from the 1st and the 2nd set of data and their translations are set in parallel.

Example 49.

1/2:	2/4:
ST:	ST:
This **supposition** swiftly becomes **assumption**	This **supposition** becomes **assumption**
	TT:
TT:	Tarinan edetessä **ei tarvitse enää arvailla**.
Nämä **epäilykset vahvistuvat** entisestään	'As the story continues **there is no need to guess anymore**.'
'These **suspicions strengthen** further'	

Both TT chunks in Example 49 are deemed not ST-motivated, but the 2nd translation deviates from the ST even more strongly than the 1st. The 1st solution deviates with regard to structure, order and lexis while the 2nd solution involves a textual reorganization as well: in effect, it is completely rewritten to make a lexical cohesive link to what the previous TT chunk entails: *katsoja **arvaa** jotain erilaista olevan luvassa* ('the spectator **guesses** something different is to be expected'). It seems that at the end of BA studies, Lee aims at originality more clearly than at the beginning, reformulating the expressions more strongly.

While deviation from the ST is a necessary skill in translation, the tendency to deviate strongly as the prevailing strategy to deal with interlingual differences is not necessarily only a positive thing when it comes to TC, especially from the effectiveness point of view. As pointed out in the expertise studies, knowing when deviation is necessary and when ST-motivated solution is perfectly functional to be used in translation is a key element in translation expertise (e.g. Englund-Dimitrova 2005). Having to reorganize every single ST chunk is presumably a huge, time-consuming cognitive task. Indeed, a **strongly deviating strategy only tells a partial story of the balancing aspect of ST influence monitoring skills**: it may be that interlingual differences are not really identified, and to be on the safe side, all ST motivation is evaded on purpose and the TT is built from completely different elements. **Angst vor Interferenz** ('fear of interference') was indeed identified as one source of disturbance in the translation process in Hansen's study into *Störquellen* in translation; some of the students participating in her study mentioned in the retrospection that they "wage es nicht, direct zu übersetzen" ('dare not translate directly') (Hansen 2006: 222).

As Table 20 shows, Lee revises quite a lot, especially in the 3rd year: while the 1st set contains eight strings of interim solutions, in the 2nd all but one solution, i.e. twelve final solutions, are preceded by interim solutions. Similar to most students**, Lee seems to stick to whatever ST-TT structural relation he first chooses**: the level of ST motivation rarely changes within a string of interim solutions. This means that **his solutions tend to be not ST-motivated from the first interim solution onward.** In the 1st set of data this tendency is less pronounced than in the 2nd. In the 1st year, five solutions are initially not ST-motivated, three of them being the only suggested solutions and one remaining not ST-motivated through the processing. In the 3rd year, nine solutions are not ST-motivated from the first interim solution to the final one. In two strings, interim solutions that are slightly ST-motivated are suggested but rejected. Hence, rather than acting according to what literal translation hypothesis suggests, Lee acts the other way around: **for him, the default procedure seems to be not ST-motivated translation rather than a ST-motivated one,** which he then changes if need be. Apparently, he does the major linguistic restructuring in his mind for the first written solution, keeping to this initial solution throughout the process. When he revises his TT chunks, the revision tends to stay on the micro level, not changing the level of ST motivation. His translation behaviour seems to point towards a translation process suggested by the **deverbalization hypothesis** (Seleskovitch 1975). Deverbalization refers to a stage in a translation or interpreting process during which a translator forgets the linguistic structure of the ST and keeps only its sense in mind before reformulating it in the target language (Gile 2009: 260). In such a process, a translator *interprets* the ST, *deverbalizes* it for its sense and *reformulates* it in the TL.

One manifestation of a not ST-motivated approach is omission. The 1st set of data suggests that in the beginning Lee always sought for a (often not ST-motivated) **linguistic** solution, whereas the 2nd set of data shows that in the 3rd year he resorts to complete or partial **omission** three times. This also implies a stronger deviation from the ST. Example 50 from the 1st year shows that Lee initially carries out the shift with *alcohol-fuelled* by omitting the chunk altogether, thus providing less information for the TT reader than there was in the ST chunk. In the end, he decides against omission, bringing the fact that alcohol was consumed before the couple's argument into the TT. This implies that in the 1st year Lee is cautious not to leave any information out of the TT: he deviates on the linguistic level but not on the level of information content.

Example 50.

1/3:
ST: the couple had a heated, **alcohol-fuelled** argument
TT: pariskunta oli **juotuaan** riidellyt
'the couple had after having drunk argued'
Process:
pariskunta oli riidellyt kiihkeästi paria tuntia murhia aiemmin
'the couple had argued heatedly a few hours before the murders'

pariskunta oli **juotuaan** riidellyt
'the couple had **after having drunk** argued'

In the 3rd year, the process goes the other way around, as Example 51 suggests, and ends up with quite an extensive omission.

Example 51.

2/13:
ST: (In the end, Lester provides) the voice-over to the retrospective on the events leading up to his death and to his eventual satisfaction with his situation.
TT: OMITTED
Process:
~~Lester~~ Jo elokuvan alussa ~~tulev~~ **~~äänessä ollut~~ kuolemastaan kerto**
'~~Lester~~ Already at the movie's beginning ~~comi~~ **~~speaking~~ about his death telli'**

~~Jo elokuvan alussa kuolemastaan kerto~~
'Already at the movie's beginning about his death telli'

As Example 51 shows, Lee initially offers several not ST-motivated beginnings for the ST chunk but gives up, deleting the TT chunk altogether and leaving the information of the ST out of the translation. It seems that in this case, due to not being able to come up with a (not ST-motivated) solution, Lee prefers not to transfer the ST chunk at all. However, as this was the final sentence of the ST, it may just as well be that he did not have the energy to think about the solution anymore, and he simply gave up at this point.

The other two omissions in the 2nd set of data are not that extreme, as Example 52 illustrates, but make the TT chunk less informative than the ST nevertheless. In Example 52 below, Lee carries out the obligatory shift by reorganizing the whole sentence that entails the *despite – regardless of* problem in translation. In doing so, he ends up omitting much of the semantic content of the original subclauses starting with those prepositions: the signs of outward prosperity – the big house and the fancy lifestyle – comes down to *kaunis koti* ('a beautiful home') in the Finnish TT. Hence, some of the original information is missing here, too. In the third omission case, the ST chunk *the deterioration of his marriage into a campaign of snide comments and sarcasm* simply becomes *kuihtunut avioliitto*, 'withered marriage'.

Example 52.

2/5:
ST: **Despite** *the outward display of prosperity, …,* **regardless of** *the great house and fancy lifestyle.*

TT: Ulkopuolisen silmissä kaikki näyttää olevan *täydellistä Burnhamien kauniissa kodissa*. Todellisuus paljastuu kuitenkin nopeasti.
'In outsider's eyes everything seems to be perfect in Burnhams' beautiful home. Reality reveals-REF however fast.'

Whether omissions of this scale have a negative influence on the communicative aim in this translation situation is a matter of debate; a short text such as the ones here can tolerate a limited amount of omissions without losing its communicative function. In this type of a text, however, there is no clear rule on how much the TT can differ from the ST in terms of information content. The ethical professional norm of **accountability** can provide some guideline in the use of omission; this norm relates to integrity, stating that "a translator should act so that the demands of loyalty are met with regard to the original writer, the commissioner of the translation, the translator herself, the prospective readership or other relevant parties" (Chesterman 1997: 68). Accountability norm implies that omissions are to be used with care, since they can be considered as violation of loyalty. Jarvella et al. (2002: 179) argue that while tactics such as omission may avoid effort and reduce cognitive load (cf. Faerch and Kasper 1983; Mondalhl and Jensen 1996), it may not enhance quality or completeness.

Finally, one notion on the relation of ST motivation and negative/positive transfer is worth discussing in the context of Lee's 1st year performance. Some solutions seem to suggest that even though the ST motivation does not directly show in the translation as negative transfer (observable ST influence), it may still partially explain the inaccuracy in the TT chunk, since it is bound to restrict the variety of possible solutions a translator considers for translation. Example 53 below, in which the translator keeps to the ST order in translation, illustrates this.

Example 53.

1/3:
ST: …had a heated, **alcohol-fuelled** argument
TT: …oli **juotuaan** riidellyt
'…had **after having drunk** argued'

The solution in Example 53 is deemed ST-motivated by order: *juotuaan* ('having drunk') appears in the same place in the TT expression as *alcohol-fuelled* does in the ST. Lee, characteristic of him, deviates from the ST structure and lexis, yet producing a solution that takes the same slot in the TT as it did in the ST. The solution is structurally incomplete since an object is required in Finnish; as the external evaluators say, "this seems to need a complement – after having drunk what?" The question is whether the ST order played a role in formulating the TT chunk: did Lee (consciously or unconsciously) search for a solution that would fit the same slot in the TT as the ST chunk did in the ST, and if he did, did this restrict his thinking and searching for possible solutions?

The TT chunk in Example 54, in turn, is motivated by the ST order and, to some extent, structure.

Example 54.

1/5:
ST: However, it is human resilience that **is lingered on** throughout the film
TT: Kuitenkin ihmisen sitkeys ja lannistumattomuus on aiheista se, **joka tuntuu** elokuvan taustalla eniten
'However human toughness and resilience is the topic **which is felt on** movie's background most'

The inaccuracy here stems from the lexis: the solution is, according to the external evaluators, "semantically empty. *Tuntuu taustalla eniten* ('is felt on the background') does not really mean anything." It could be argued that here, too, sticking to the ST order (and structure) sets some limits to lexical choices, and finally, the translator comes up with an expression that is not quite exact. Hence, it could be hypothesized that the ST may limit translator's strategies and can in this way be partly to blame for inaccurate solutions even when ST influence is not clearly observable. Recognizing when ST motivation is more of a hindrance than a benefit in a translation process is one part of the balancing skill.

7.2.2.3 TL text production skills

Four (out of six) inaccurate TT chunks in the 1st set of data and only one (out of two) inaccurate TT chunks in the 2nd set of data point to insufficient **TL text production skills**. Table 21 below shows what skill insufficiencies are implied. **Skill to produce lexically exact TL** expressions appeared insufficient in two TT chunks whereas one TT chunk pointed to insufficient skills to produce norm-abiding **style and structure**.

Table 21. Lee: TT chunks implying a skill insufficiency in TL production.

category of inaccuracy	skill insufficiency implied	frequency	
		1st set of data (1st year)	2nd set of data (3rd year)
structure	skill to apply TL syntactic and structural rules in text production	1	-
orthography	skill to apply TL orthography rules in text production	-	-
lexis	skill to use exact, idiomatic language in text production	2	-
style	skill to produce appropriate TL style with regard to the level of formality/informality	1	-
cotext	Skill to produce coherent and cohesive text	-	1

Examples 53 and 54 in the previous subsection already presented the TT chunks implying insufficiency in the skill to produce lexically exact TL text, suggesting that the apparent skill insufficiency may be partially explained by ST motivation. Example 55 below points to insufficient skill to produce structurally accurate TL text.

Example 55.

1/9:
ST: Despite the XXX, xxx, **regardless of** xxx.
TT: XXX **huolimatta** ei kestä kauaa,xxx, **koulutettu tai ei.**
'XXX **despite** it does not take long, xxx, **educated or not**.'

In this TT chunk, the non-finite clause with *regardless of* is translated into *koulutettu tai ei* ('educated or not'). This, however, is commented as being "otherwise ok but in

need of a predicate". In Finnish, ***oli*** *x jotakin tai ei* ('**were** x something or not'), can be regarded as a fixed structure; hence, the missing verb makes Lee's expression incomplete. In addition, one 1st year TT chunk implies an insufficiency in the skill to produce appropriate style in TL.

Lee's second set of data entails only one TT chunk that implies a skill insufficiency, namely in the skill to produce coherent and cohesive TL text. Obviously, a strongly not ST-motivated strategy, when applied on the clause or sentence level, involves a risk of introducing cotextual inaccuracy in translation. Lee eludes the risk, with the exception of this one instance. As shown in Example 56, Lee deals with the obligatory shift involved in the translation of the ST chunk *giving him* by adding a colon and turning the participle clause of the ST into a main clause with the subject *se* ('it') and a copular verb *on* ('is').

Example 56.

2/9:
ST: …more wake-up call than realistic chase, **giving him** the whiff …
TT: Tytön oikean tavoittelun sijaan kyse on kuitenkin Lesterin heräämisestä**: se on** muistutus…
'Instead of really chasing after the girl it is more about Lester's waking**: it is** a reminder…'

However, as the external evaluator comments, "the pronoun *se* ('it') has no reference in the preceding piece of text", which makes the TT chunk inaccurate in the cotext. Lee's first suggestion was to leave *se on* ('it is') out, which would have resulted in an incomplete structure. Lee apparently recognizes that and completes the structure, ignoring the cotext beyond the sentence level.

The process data – interim solutions preceding the final TT chunks – also seem to point to some insufficiencies in TL text production skills. Example 57 below illustrates this. Lee shows several TL text production problems in this process: he has trouble deciding in which case *pakkomielle* ('obsession') should appear in the clause, and he also seems to be unhappy with the word in general, suggesting *pakkomielteenomainen kiehtymys**, ('obsession-like fascination+intrigue*[32]') as its translation. *Kiehtymys* is not, however, a Finnish word but Lee's own creation, which is abandoned after looking it up in Google and finding no matches. He also has trouble deciding whether *pakkomielteenomainen* is a compound or two separate words.

Example 57.

2/8:
ST: Lester's midlife sexual obsession with Angela
TT: Angela kiehtoo kiihkottomassa avioliitossa elävää keski-ikäistä Lesteriä
'Angela intrigues in a passionless marriage living middle-aged Lester.'

[32] *Kiehtymys* could be regarded as a blend of the Finnish words *viehtymys 'fascination'* and *kiehtoa 'intrigue'*. The word sounds like a Finnish word and is, in its context, understandable.

Process:
Keski-ikäisen <- [**Lesterin**][33] keski-~~ikäisen~~**iän** ?
'Middle-aged <- [**Lester's**] middle-age~~d~~**'s ?**
Keski-ikäisen Lesterin ~~keski-iän ?~~ **~~pakkomielle pakkomielteestä pakkomielle pakkomielteen omainen pakkomielteenomainen~~ pakkomielteen omainen ~~kiehtymys~~** Angelaan
'**Middle-aged** Lester's ~~middle-age's ?~~ **~~obsession obsession-ELA obsession obsession like obsessionlike~~ obsession like ~~intriquism~~*** with Angela'

~~Keski-ikäisen Lesterin pakkomielteen omainen~~ Angela~~an~~ **kiehtoo keski-ikäistä Lesteriä**
'~~middle-aged Lester's obsession like~~ ~~with~~ Angela **intrigues middle-aged Lester**'

Angela kiehtoo **kiihkottomassa avioliitossa elävää** keski-ikäistä Lesteriä
'Angela intrigues **in a passionless marriage living** middle-aged Lester.'

7.2.2.4 Skills implied by interim solutions

Few strings of interim solutions in Lee's data point to the existence of such skills that seem to be missing on the basis of the final TT chunk. As Figure 20 below suggests, the pattern from **accurate to inaccurate** appears only once, in the 1st set of data. The pattern **changes but none accurate**, in turn, appears twice in both sets of data.

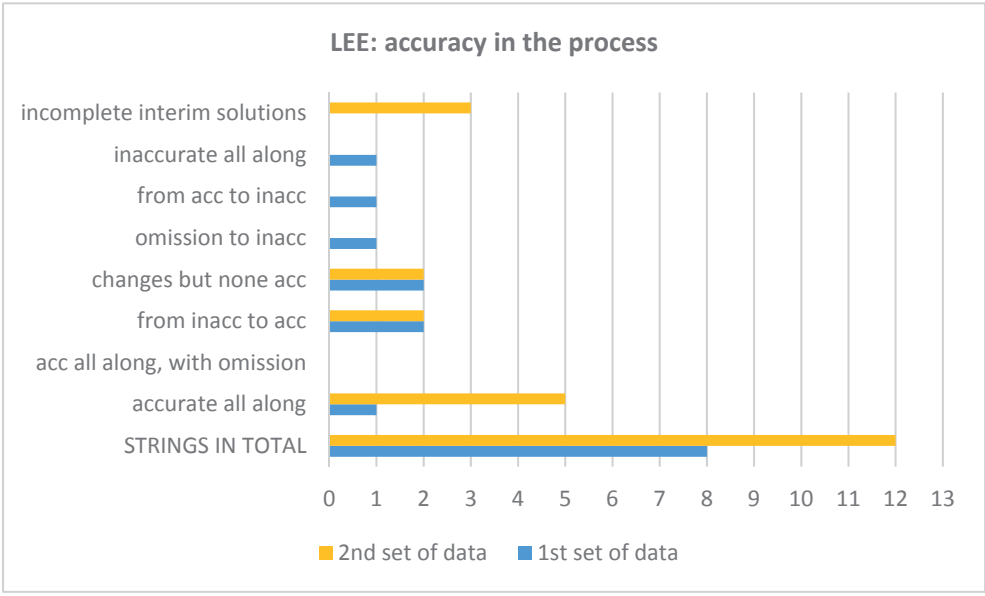


Figure 20. Strings of interim solutions with regard to accuracy in Lee's performance.

[33] The word in square brackets added in front of the word written first.

Example 58 from the 1st set of data shows what happens in the string of interim solutions with pattern **from accurate to inaccurate**. The two interim solutions are both accurate both in content and as TL expressions, pointing to a skill to produce structurally accurate TL text. However, Lee ends up with a structurally inaccurate solution. This shows that Lee **can** produce structurally accurate TL text but cannot necessarily tell the difference between accurate and inaccurate Finnish structures; the skill is not solid enough.

Example 58.

1/9:
ST: Despite the XXX, xxx, **regardless of** xxx.
Process:
XXX huolimatta**…,** xxx, ~~oli hän kuinka fiksu tahansa~~**.**
'XXX despite…, xxx, ~~no matter how smart he was.'~~

~~**Oli hän sitten älykäs tai ei.**~~
'~~were he intelligent or not.'~~

koulutettu tai ei.
'educated or not.'

Changes but none accurate pattern in the 1st set of data does not bring out skills that seem insufficient in the final TT chunk. In the 2nd set of data, the interim solutions in one string showing this pattern shows a trace of the skill that seems insufficient on the basis of the final solution: the final TT chunk *videonauhurinsa kanssa pakkomielteisesti touhuava* ('with a videorecorder obsessively bustling') points to an insufficient skill to monitor the TT for ST influence on lexis, because the wording brings "strange connotations to mind". The interim solutions show that Lee himself is also hesitating with regard to the use of *pakkomielteisesti* ('obsessively), marking it with a question mark during the process. In the end, however, he accepts the word as appropriate.

The pattern **accurate all along** is noteworthy in the 2nd set of data, since five strings of interim solutions show this pattern. The pattern is illustrated in examples 59 and 60 below. All interim solutions in these examples are accurate, showing sufficient TL text production skills. In that sense, the revision is superfluous. However, it could be assumed that such a pattern is typical for beginning translators: the skills are there, but one may feel unconfident with regard to these skills. The level of confidence has been found to vary on different levels of translation expertise: interestingly, confidence in the process has been found to characterize both professional translators (e.g. Künzli 2004, Tirkkonen-Condit 1997) and novice translators (e.g. Quinci 2015: 193) alike. In the latter case, however, confidence is excessive and is not supported by a corresponding positive assessment of translation acceptability (ibid.). Growing confidence accompanied with translation acceptability probably characterizes the development between the two poles. In Lee's case, skills needed for translation have developed, but Lee does not seem to dare to trust in them yet.

Example 59.

2/3:
ST: This supposition becomes assumption (as the story starts to unfold)
Process:
~~Tarinan edetessä~~ **Tarinan edetessä** ~~asiasta ei jää epäilystäkään~~ **ei tarvitse enää arvailla**.
~~'As the story continues~~ **As the story continues** ~~there is no doubt about it~~ **there is no need to guess anymore'**

Example 60.

2/2:
ST: in a year from now he'll be dead
Process:
~~kuolevansa~~ ~~**ettei ole elossa**~~ **kuolevansa** vuoden päästä.
~~'he'll die~~ ~~**that he won't be alive**~~ **he'll die** in a year'

7.2.2.5 Development in the light of similar ST chunks

Finally, the ST chunks containing similar interlingual differences are set in parallel to allow a more controlled view into Lee's development. The comparison of skills implied by the translation of similar TT chunks is shown in Table 22. Table 22 contains the similar ST chunks in the 1st and the 2nd STs, and the skills implied by the corresponding TT chunks in both sets of data.

This comparison summarizes the change that seems to have taken place in Lee's skills during BA training. **The most notable change takes place in TL text production skills**, whereas **ST influence monitoring skills show little insufficiency to begin with**. This is a natural consequence of Lee's dominatingly not ST-motivated TT production: Lee shows little attempt to balance between languages and benefit from positive transfer (especially in the 2nd set of data), deviating strongly from the ST. Therefore, the TT is unlikely to show negative transfer in the form of observable ST influence either. The strongly not ST-motivated TT production allows **no view to the balancing skill in the 3rd year**. The first year TT chunks imply some balancing, but it turns out that ST-motivated TT chunks are inaccurate as a rule, either due to negative transfer or due to TL-related problems. Hence, **the balancing does not show as a skill in the first year either**, due to insufficient skill to monitor TT for ST influence or due to insufficient skill to produce accurate TL text.

Table 22. Lee: similar ST chunks and skills implied by the corresponding TT chunks in both sets of data.

SIMILAR ST CHUNKS in the two sets of data	**skill implied by the TT chunk in the 1st set of data**	**skill implied by the TT chunk in the 2nd set of data**
1st: supposition swiftly becomes assumption 2nd supposition becomes assumption	**all skills sufficient** DECREASING ST MOTIVATION (NOT ST-MOTIVATED)	**all skills sufficient** NOT ST-MOTIVATED ALL ALONG
1st alcohol-fuelled 2nd camcorder-obsessed	**insufficient skill to produce lexically accurate TL text** INCREASING ST MOTIVATION (ORDER)	**insufficient ST influence monitoring for TT lexis** INCREASING ST MOTIVATION (ORDER, LEXIS)
1st in earnest 2nd in earnest	**all skills sufficient** NOT ST-MOTIVATED	**all skills sufficient** NOT ST-MOTIVATED (OMISSION, SAME INFO)
1st However, it is human resilience that is lingered on 2nd However, it is the road that takes each character toward the motive that is the real issue of the movie	**insufficient skill to produce lexically accurate TL text** ST-MOTIVATED ALL ALONG (STRUCTURE, ORDER)	**all skills sufficient** DECREASING ST MOTIVATION (NOT ST-MOTIVATED)
1st the voice-over to Andy's silent initiation and eventual apparent resignation to his situation 2nd voice-over to the retrospective on the events leading up to his death and to his eventual satisfaction with his situation	**insufficient ST influence monitoring for TT meaning** ST-MOTIVATED (STRUCTURE, LEXIS)	**OMISSION** DERCEASING ST MOTIVATION (NOT ST-MOTIVATED)
1st despite…, regardless of 2nd despite…, regardless of	**insufficient skill to produce structurally accurate TL text** ST-MOTIVATED ALL ALONG (ORDER)	**OMISSION** DECREASING ST MOTIVATION (NOT ST-MOTIVATED)

A further notable change in Lee's performance is the **adoption of omission** as a translation strategy in the 3rd year. This is not linked with any interlingual skills as such, nor does it imply enhancement of TC as a whole. In Lee's case, adoption of omission may also be a consequence of a not-ST-motivated TT production in general: he imitates neither the linguistic structure of the ST nor the information content of it. The 'overuse' of omission may, however, imply insufficiency in the overall TC, since in most translation situations the purpose of translation is to transfer the contents of the ST over to the TT as it is. A frequent use of omission may imply that a translator chooses the easy way out to carry out the shift; in earlier studies, novices are found to resort to omission more often than experts as coping tactics (Jarvella et al. 2002).

7.2.2.6 Knowledge of translation and regulative knowledge: perceptions arising from the questionnaires

Similarly to Stu, Lee's knowledge of translation in the beginning seems to be slightly contradictory, or unorganized, turning more clearly towards dynamic understanding in the 3rd year, as Table 23 below shows.

Table 23. Lee's closed answers to statements about translation.

LEE	statement 1	statement 2	statement 3	statement 4	statement 5	statement 6
1st year	partly agree TOWARDS STATIC	cannot say ?	disagree DYNAMIC	cannot say ?	agree DYNAMIC	partly disagree TOWARDS DYNAMIC
3rd year	partly agree TOWARDS STATIC	disagree DYNAMIC	disagree DYNAMIC	partly agree TOWARDS DYNAMIC	agree DYNAMIC	disagree DYNAMIC

Lee's performance in both years, however, seems to reflect more his answer to the third question than to the first; a further hint towards the first question being ambiguous, allowing for varying interpretations. In other words, Lee's performance seems more dynamic than could be expected on the basis of his answers. Lee's answers to the open question about the nature of translation are rather general, yet reveal a change: in the 1st year he says translation to be "…transferring text from one language into another, keeping the original meaning as intact as possible", whereas in the 3rd year he simply states that in translation, "a text is brought to another culture." Hence, it seems that for Lee, translation has changed from a *language* transfer procedure into a *culture* transfer activity. Moreover, quite interestingly, in the 3rd year Lee expresses an idea that is close to what dynamic equivalence in translation (e.g. Nida and Taber 1969) is taken to mean: "…a translator wants to produce the same feelings and content to the target text reader than the source text reader has experienced."

Lee did not provide any translation commentary of the 1st year task. Therefore, no assumptions can be drawn on his regulative knowledge, whether he knows what his strengths and weaknesses are in this specific translation situation. The 3rd year task he found **average** to understand and **difficult** to translate, explicating that the text involved "very difficult and complex sentences. I couldn't however split them in a sensible way into small sentences." And further: "I understood the content of these sentences but saying the same in Finnish is difficult." Consequently, he is not satisfied with his 3rd year translation: "No. In earlier translations in which Camtasia has been used the translation situation was such that I cannot act normally. I need more time so that I can translate without a rush. Now my translation feels as though it is really low quality." These answers point towards a kind of over-criticism; Lee seems to think he performs worse than he in fact does. However, some of his remarks are clearly reflected in his performance: the fact that he finds Finnish formulation difficult may explain solutions in which he adopts omission as a strategy as well as the recurrent non-productive or unnecessary processing. It seems that he has become sensitive to the problems in the Finnish text production towards the 3rd year and is (over-) critical of his Finnish. He says himself that he believes in his translation skills but is less secure about the Finnish. When asked about his strengths and weaknesses as a translator, Lee replies, "I believe **I can produce good translations**. **Finalising the TT and polishing it causes trouble**." In the 3rd year Lee nevertheless states that "mostly I feel confident about my mother tongue skills."

7.2.3 Paul: from boldness to consideration

The distinctive feature in Paul's 1st year performance is the frequent adoption of omission to carry out obligatory shifts. He seems to possess a bolder approach to translation at the beginning than the rest of the students.

Paul's performance profile from both years is given in Appendix 10. Figure 21 below shows the distribution of inaccuracy categories represented in Paul's TT production. The categories arising from the 1st and the 2nd sets of data are set in parallel. The number of inaccuracies in the 1st set of data is six (in five TT chunks). Out of the remaining seven TT chunks four involve complete or partial omission. The 2nd set of data contains three inaccurate TT chunks and one omission.

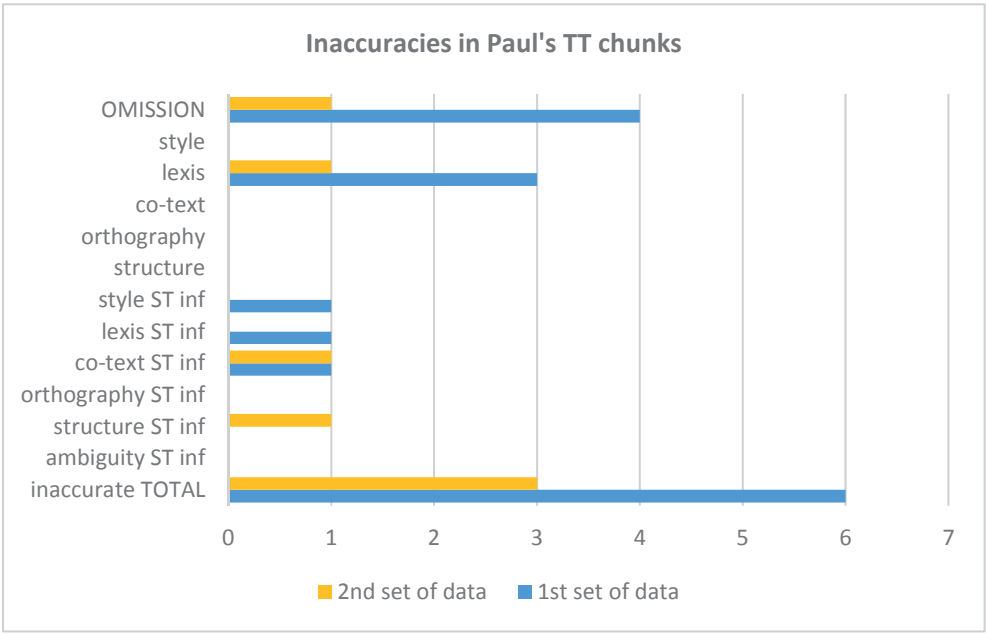


Figure 21. Inaccuracies in Paul's TT chunks. The blue columns in the figure refer to the 1st and the yellow to the 2nd set of data. The bottom line shows the total amount of inaccuracies in the products. The top line shows whether omission is adopted as the strategy to carry out the shift, in which case no linguistic equivalent for the ST chunk exists.

In the following, the category distribution depicted in Figure 21 is analysed in terms of skills.

7.2.3.1 ST influence monitoring skills

Three TT chunks imply insufficient ST influence monitoring skills in the 1st and two in the 2nd set of data, as illustrated in Table 24 below. Paul's performance points to no clear lack of any specific type of skill; each TT chunk implies insufficiency of different type of skills, which seems insufficient in one TT chunk only. This means that these particular skills are sufficient in the rest of the TT chunks. In Paul's case, however, the frequent use of omission in the 1st year decreases the number of TT chunks from

which ST influence monitoring skills can be analysed, therefore making the comparison of these skills at the beginning and towards the end of BA studies difficult.

The following examples shows where Paul's ST influence monitoring skills seemed insufficient to come up with an accurate TT chunk. The TT chunk in example 61 shows two types of ST influence. The underlined part shows a problem in deictic item: translating the demonstrative pronoun *this* with its typical equivalent *tämä* (here in partitive case *tätä*) results in an unclear reference in the Finnish formulation[34]. The bolded clause as a whole is deemed "superfluously formal for this text" by external evaluators; therefore, the TT style is also regarded inaccurate as a result of ST influence.

Table 24. Paul: Skill insufficiencies implied by inaccuracy categories with observable ST influence, 1st and 3rd year.

category of inaccuracy with ST inf	**skill insufficiency implied**	**frequency**	
		1st set of data (1st year)	**2nd set of data (3rd year)**
ambiguity	skill to monitor TT for meaning	-	-
structure	skill to monitor TT for TL structural/syntax norms/ rules	-	1
orthography	skill to monitor TT for punctuation and spelling	-	-
lexis	skill to monitor TT for idiomaticity, conventionality, naturalness	1	-
style	skill to monitor TT for the level of formality/informality	1	-
cotext	skill to monitor TT for textual cohesion and coherence	1	1

Example 61.

1/6:

ST: it is human resilience that is lingered on throughout the film and, **for <u>this</u> to be fully explored**

TT: Kuitenkin koko elokuvan ajan läsnä on ihmisen sitkeys koettelemusten edessä, ja **jotta <u>tätä</u> voitaisiin tarkastella perusteellisesti**

'However the whole movie through is present human being's resilience in front of ordeals,' and so that this could be explored thoroughly'

Example 62 from the 3rd year, in turn, shows that some structures are especially vulnerable to subjective judgment when translated from English into Finnish; the future verb tense is the case in point here. In Finnish, there is no specific future verb form

[34] Grammatically, both pronouns are correct. According to the instructions on the use of pronouns by the Institute for the Languages of Finland, both can refer to a NP in the previous clause, but *se* ('it') is more common in this use. (http://www.kielitoimistonohjepankki.fi/haku/pronominit/ohje/552). Since two external evaluators nevertheless found *tämä* inappropriate in its cotext, it was deemed inaccurate here.

but the future tense is usually expressed with the present verb form. However, a so-called *tulla* (*come*) -passive form is occasionally used to mark the reference to the future. While this usage is willingly accepted by some experts of Finnish, it is regarded as unacceptable and superfluous by others. This was the case in the evaluation of the TT chunk in Example 62, also: one external evaluator accepted the solution, saying "I accept the *tulla*-future knowingly, because I've always spoken for its usability in the Finnish language". Two others, however, found the form "superfluous" and "weird sounding". For this reason, the solution is regarded as being inaccurate due to structural ST influence. This example shows that structural/syntactic accuracy, too, is also sometimes hard to justify with rules and explicit norms.

Example 62.

2/2:
ST: in a year from now he**'ll be dead**
TT: vuoden kuluttua hän **tulee olemaan kuollut**
'after a year has passed he **comes to be dead**'

The TT chunk in Example 63, in turn, is inaccurate in the cotext (with observable ST influence) because the translated pronoun (*his* into *hänen*) does not refer to Lester in the TT as it does in the ST, but to the *katsoja* ('spectator') that is the subject of the previous TT clause. The changes made in the translation of the previous clause are not taken into account in the translation of this ST chunk, which then results in a TT chunk that is inaccurate in cotext.

Example 63.

2/5:
ST: Despite the outward display of prosperity, it isn't long before we are shown, as we delve beneath this surface, that all is not roses in the Burnham household, regardless of the great house and fancy lifestyle. The deterioration of **his** marriage into a campaign …
TT: Katsoja saa pian tietää, ettei Burnhamien elämä ole näkyvästä vauraudesta huolimatta ruusuilla tanssimista. **Hänen** avioliittonsa hajoaminen ivailuksi…
'A spectator finds out soon that Burnhams' life is not despite the observable wealth dancing on the roses. **His** marriage's falling apart into sneering…'

As the examples show, Paul's ST influence monitoring skills need fine-tuning; there seem to be no major lack of any skill on the basis of the TT chunks analysed. The following examples 64 and 65 show the working of Paul's ST influence monitoring skills from the 1st year on: Paul can deal with interlingual differences and find solutions that are not observably ST-influenced and comply with Finnish norms.

Example 64.

1/13:
ST: The Shawshank Redemption arrived quietly **then escalated**
TT: sittemmin tämä … elokuva **on kerännyt enemmän ja enemmän katsojia**
'later on this… movie has gathered more and more spectators'

Example 65.

1/11:
ST: he will always be a con, **inferior to all but fellow cons**, …
TT: hän tulee aina olemaan **pelkkä vanki muiden joukossa**
'he will always be a mere con among others'

7.2.3.2 Balancing skill

Table 25 below shows the level of ST motivation in the two sets of data. Similarly to Lee, Paul prefers the not ST-motivated strategy in his TT production. Contrary to Lee, Paul's process turns slightly more ST-motivated in the 2nd set of data: the number of completely not ST-motivated TT chunks decreases from 10 to 8, and the number of TT chunks that are ST-motivated in one aspect increases from one to three.

Table 25. Paul's TT chunks in terms of ST motivation.

END SOLUTION	NOT ST-MOTIVATED	ST-MOTIVATED ONE ASPECT	ST-MOTIVATED TWO ASPECTS	ST-MOTIVATED THREE ASPECTS
1st set of data (1st year)	10	1	-	2
2nd set of data (3rd year)	8	3	1	1

The 1st set of data shows little attempt at balancing between the two languages. In the rare cases in which TT chunks are ST-motivated, they also show negative transfer, implying insufficient balancing skill: Paul does not benefit from the ST motivation. The fact that Paul usually deals with textual chunks involving interlingual differences by deviating strongly implies that in the two 1st year cases in which he does not do so, he does not recognize the difference. Alternatively, he recognizes a problem but cannot identify it and deal with it. The latter seems likely in the case of *certain* which is transferred into the TT as its typical translation *tietty*. This solution is marked with a question mark during the process but in the end, Paul does not change it. The other TT chunk that is strongly ST-motivated and deemed inaccurate with observable ST influence was given in the example 61 above. In the example, Paul carries out the shift by introducing minimal changes in comparison to the ST chunk, imitating the order, lexis and grammar of the ST as closely as possible. Although passive infinitive does not exist in Finnish, another passive form can be applied here, and this is what Paul does. Such a minimal change to the expression results in a structurally fine but in other aspects inaccurate TT chunk. The fact that there is no observable processing involved in this TT chunk and that the minimal changes seem to emerge quite automatically imply that Paul does not detect the need to monitor his TT chunk any further.

All accurate TT chunks in the 1st set of data are not ST-motivated (four of them, however, due to omission). In the 3rd year the tendency is less pronounced but still clear: six accurate TT chunks are not ST-motivated while three are ST-motivated in one aspect (lexis). Nevertheless, Paul shows **some balancing skill** on the basis of the 2nd set of data.

Table 26 below shows the level of ST motivation in the strings of interim solutions. In the 1st set of data, only five final solutions are preceded by some interim solutions. In the 2nd set of data the number is eight.

Table 26. Paul: Level of ST motivation in the strings of interim solutions.

	NOT ST MOT ALL ALONG	DECREASING ST MOTIVATION	INCREASING ST MOTIVATION	ST MOT ALL ALONG
1st set of data (1st year)	3	2	-	-
2nd set of data) 3rd year	3	3	2	-

In the 1st set, two strings of interim solutions show a pattern of decreasing ST motivation; the final solution in both cases is omission. The remaining three strings of interim solutions are not ST-motivated all along. Hence, the 1st year process does not show any balancing in the TT production either.

The 2nd set of data shows more balancing in the process: three strings of interim solutions show decreasing ST motivation and in two, the level of ST motivation increases. In the 3rd year, then, Paul does not automatically go for a not ST-motivated solution, although it is still the dominating strategy in the final TT chunks.

Paul's 1st year performance bears much resemblance to that of Lee's in the 3rd year: a clearly not-ST-motivated strategy involves the use of **omission** as a relatively frequent TT production strategy. Noteworthy in Paul's strings of interim solutions is the change in the way he balances between linguistic translation solution and omission. While in the 1st year, **omission** is **the final solution** in the string of interim solutions in two cases, in the 3rd year **omission occurs at an early stage** in two strings of solutions but in the end, the ST chunk gets translated with a linguistic solution. In addition, two more omissions take place in the 1st set of data without any alternative (linguistic) interim solutions. In other words, at the beginning Paul uses omission quite extensively whereas at the end of BA studies he seems more cautious in its use, favouring a linguistic solution. For Lee, it was the other way around: he seemed cautious at the beginning, growing bolder towards the end.

Example 66 below shows a process from the 2nd set of data in which omission is adopted as the initial solution and replaced by a linguistic solution in the end revision.

Example 66.

2/6:
ST: the deterioration of his marriage into a campaign of snide comments and sarcasm
Process:
Hänen avioliittonsa hajoaminen
'His marriage's falling apart'

Hänen avioliittonsa hajoaminen **ivailuksi ja sarkasmiksi**
'His marriage's falling apart into sneering and sarcasm'

Initially, the PP *into a campaign of snide comments and sarcasm* is left out from the TT, but it is then introduced in the final solution as *ivailuksi ja sarkasmiksi* ('into sneering and sarcasm').

7.2.3.3 TL text production skills

Three TT chunks in the 1st and one in the 2nd set of data imply insufficient **TL text production skills**. All instances point to **the skill to produce lexically precise Finnish** (Table 27 below).

Table 27. Paul: TT chunks implying a skill insufficiency in TL production.

category of inaccuracy	skill insufficiency implied	frequency	
		1st set of data (1st year)	2nd set of data (3rd year)
structure	skill to apply TL syntactic and structural rules in text production	-	-
orthography	skill to apply TL orthography rules in text production	-	-
lexis	skill to use exact, idiomatic language in text production	3	1
style	skill to produce TL text with appropriate level of formality/informality	-	-
cotext	Skill to produce coherent and cohesive text	-	-

Examples 67 and 68 from the 1st set of data are considered as inaccurate because, in Example 67, "*alun perin* ('from the start', 'originally') does not go together with *hiljainen vastaanotto* ('quiet reception'). *Aluksi/ensin* ('first') would do, but *alun perin* is not in the similar manner possible but requires a specific context." The second example is inaccurate due to the verb choice *ottaa todesta* ('take for truth') "because [in this context] there is no person who suspects and then another person who takes the suspicion for the truth"; rather, the suspicion grows stronger in the minds of the same people. Hence, the word choice is not quite precise.

Example 67.

1/12:
ST: The Shawshank Redemption **arrived** quietly
TT: sai **alun perin** hiljaisen vastaanoton
'got **from the start** a quiet reception'

Example 68.

1/2:
ST: This **supposition** swiftly becomes **assumption**
TT: Ei kauaakaan kun **epäilykset otetaan jo todesta**
'Before long the suspicions are taken for the truth'.

Examples 67 and 68 are typical representatives of solutions a translation teacher often struggles with: she may have a feeling that the expression is not quite right but has a hard time to put a finger on what is the problem. There is no specific rule that is being violated; rather, it is the evaluator's sense of appropriate language use these solutions may go against. Some readers may find such solutions perfectly fine, especially if such solutions do not occur repeatedly in a text. The only 3rd year TT chunk implying insufficient TL text production skill is also of such a nature. Hence, the inaccurate TT chunks in Paul's translation imply insufficiency in the type of TL text production skills that are needed to polish or fine-tune the TL expressions.

7.2.3.4 Skills implied by interim solutions

The strings of interim solutions in Paul's process data do not point to the existence of such skills that seem to be missing on the basis of the final TT chunk. As Figure 22 below suggests, the tentative solutions in the strings rarely differ with regard to accuracy: solutions are inaccurate all along, accurate all along, or incomplete; once the revision turns the TT chunk from inaccurate to accurate. The patterns **from accurate to inaccurate** and **changes but none accurate** do not occur in Paul's processes at all. However, the pattern **accurate all along with omission** – a pattern consisting of accurate solutions and omission at some point of the process – is interesting since it suggests that Paul's omissions in the 1st set of data are not, at least in these two cases, a result of not knowing how to deal with interlingual difference; he provides accurate linguistic solutions in the process but abandons them in the end, choosing omission as the final solution.

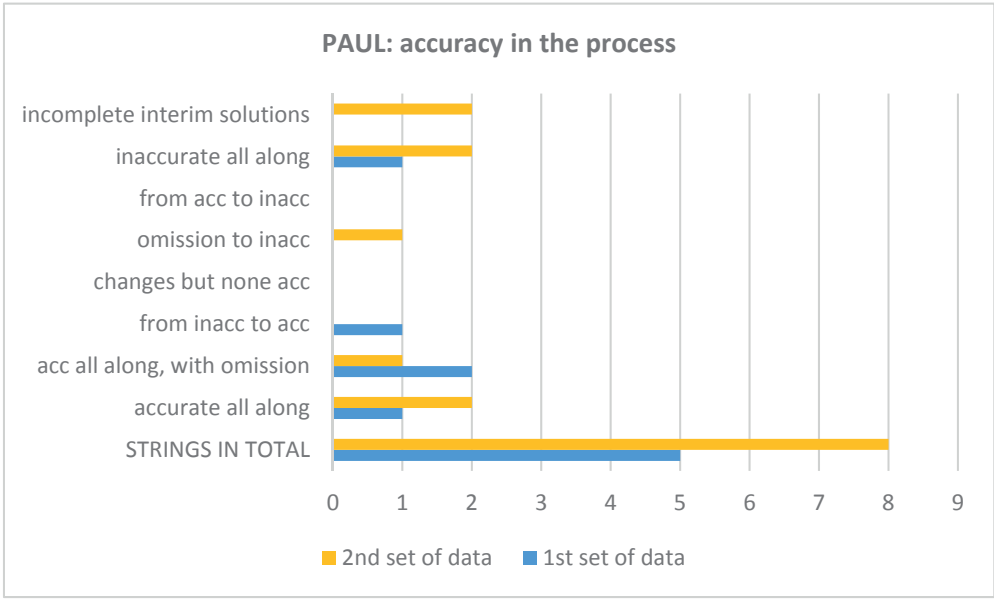


Figure 22. Strings of interim solutions with regard to accuracy in Paul's performance.

The two 1st year cases introduced in examples 69 and 70 below show a string of interim solutions in which all tentative solutions are accurate as TL expressions all along. Nevertheless, omission is adopted as the final solution, making the TT chunk less informative, for no obvious reason.

Example 69.

1/1:
ST: are found murdered, having been shot **in bed**
process:
löytyvät ~~sängystä~~ murhattuina
'are found ~~from~~ ~~bed~~ murdered'

In Example 69, the 1st solution retains the ST chunk *in bed*, transferring the item after the verb *find*, which is translated into Finnish as a reflexive *löytyä* ('to be found'). The complement that is governed by this verb is to be in the elative case (rather than in the inessive case, which is the typical equivalent for the PPs with *in*). Paul suggests just that, but rejects and omits *sängystä* ('from bed') in the end.

Example 70.

1/3:
ST: the couple had a heated, **alcohol-fuelled** argument
process:
pari oli riidellyt ~~alkoholin siivittämänä~~
'the couple had argued ~~fuelled by alcohol~~'

In Example 70, Paul keeps the ST item *alcohol-fuelled* in the first solution, but decides to leave it out from the final translation. It could be that Paul was insecure about the accuracy of the Finnish expressions and felt more secure to omit, or he simply thought that minor details do not matter and therefore leaves them out. Be that as it may, these changes are, from the accuracy point of view, unnecessary. These two cases, then, show that Paul does have the interlingual text production skills to provide linguistic solutions, too, even though that is not observable on the basis of the final solution. As shown in Example 66 earlier, the pattern **accurate all along with omission** materializes differently in the 2nd set of data: it occurs during the process and is replaced by an accurate linguistic solution in the end.

7.2.3.5 Development in the light of similar ST chunks

Finally, the ST chunks containing similar interlingual differences are set in parallel to allow a more controlled view into Paul's development. The comparison of skills implied by the translation of similar TT chunks is shown in Table 28 below. The Table shows the similar ST chunks in the 1st and the 2nd ST, and the skills implied by the corresponding TT chunks in both sets of data.

Examples 71 and 72 below illustrate the clearest change that takes place in Paul's performance: the adoption of omission as the translation strategy is abandoned by the 3rd year, and linguistic solutions are preferred. The data implies few skill insufficien-

cies other than those needed for fine-tuning or polishing the TL lexis; the number of TT chunks implying those decreases by the 3rd year. The six similar ST chunks did not imply any skill insufficiencies in ST influence monitoring skills in either year; however, the additional seven TT chunks did, showing some insufficiency in those skills in both sets of data (three and two TT chunks, respectively).

Table 28. Paul: similar ST chunks and skills implied by the corresponding TT chunks in both sets of data.

SIMILAR ST CHUNKS in the two sets of data	**1st set of data**	**2nd set of data**
1st: supposition swiftly becomes assumption 2nd supposition becomes assumption	insufficient skill to produce lexically accurate TL text NOT ST-MOTIVATED ALL ALONG	all skills sufficient NOT ST-MOTIVATED ALL ALONG
1st alcohol-fuelled 2nd camcorder-obsessed	OMISSION DECREASING ST MOTIVATION (NOT ST-MOTIVATED)	all skills sufficient NOT ST-MOTIVATED ALL ALONG
1st in earnest 2nd in earnest	all skills sufficient NOT ST-MOTIVATED	all skills sufficient NOT ST-MOTIVATED
1st However, it is human resilience that is lingered on 2nd However, it is the road that takes each character toward the motive that is the real issue of the movie	insufficient skill to produce lexically accurate TL text NOT ST-MOTIVATED	insufficient skill to produce lexically accurate TL text NOT ST-MOTIVATED ALL ALONG
1st the voice-over to Andy's silent initiation and eventual apparent resignation to his situation 2nd voice-over to the retrospective on the events leading up to his death and to his eventual satisfaction with his situation	OMISSION NOT ST-MOTIVATED	all skills sufficient ST-MOTIVATED (LEXIS)
1st despite…, regardless of 2nd despite…, regardless of	all skills sufficient NOT ST-MOTIVATED	OMISSION DECREASING ST MOTIVATION (NOT ST-MOTIVATED)

Example 70 earlier showed the use of omission for the translation of *alcohol-fuelled* in the first set of data; Example 71 shows how the similar interlingual difference was handled in translation in the 2nd set of data. In the 1st year, the shift was carried out by omission while the 3rd year solution is linguistic.

Example 71.

2/11:
ST: camcorder-obsessed
TT: joka ei halua päästää videokameraansa käsistään.
'who does not want to leave the camcorder off his hands.'

Example 72, in turn, shows the way the complex NP with embedded PPs is treated in translation both in the 1st and the 2nd set of data.

Example 72:

1/6:	2/13:
ST:	ST:
who provides **the voice-over to Andy's silent initiation and eventual apparent resignation to his situation**	In the end, Lester provides **the voice-over to the retrospective on the events leading up to his death and to his eventual satisfaction with his situation.**
TT:	TT:
joka toimii myös **elokuvan kertojana** 'who acts also as **movie's narrator**'	(Lester tarjoaa katsojalle) vielä **mietteensä kuolemaansa johtaneista tapahtumista ja toteaa olevansa tilanteeseen tyytyväinen**. '(Lester provides) the spectator his thoughts of to his death leading events and states he is to the situation satisfied.'

In the 2nd set of data, Paul resorts to omission only once. He carries out the obligatory shift arising in the *despite–regardless of* chunk by leaving out the latter part of the sentence, i.e. *regardless of the big house and fancy lifestyle*, coming up with the solution presented in Example 73 below.

Example 73.

2/5:

ST: Despite the **outward display of prosperity**, …, regardless of **the great house and fancy lifestyle.**

TT: Katsoja saa pian tietää, ettei Burnhamien elämä ole **näkyvästä vauraudesta** huolimatta ruusuilla tanssimista.

'Spectators find out soon that Burnhams' life is not, despite the obvious prosperity, dancing on the roses.'

While the ST chunk with *regardless of* explicitates *the outward display of prosperity*, the TT chunk mentions *näkyvä vauraus* ('visible prosperity'), leaving implicit what it in Burnhams' case means. Hence, the TT chunk is regarded as less informative than the ST. However, spectators can probably imagine what *visible prosperity* in an American setting might mean, whereas in the case of omissions in the 1st set of data, such as the one illustrated in Example 72 above, they cannot. In this sense, the omission in the 2nd set of data is more justified.

7.2.3.6 Knowledge of translation and regulative knowledge: perceptions arising from the questionnaires

Paul's answers to closed questions suggest that his understanding (or implicit theory) of translation is strongly towards dynamic from the 1st year on, as can be seen in Table 29 below.

Table 29. Paul's closed answers to statements about translation.

PAUL	statement 1	statement 2	statement 3	statement 4	statement 5	statement 6
1st year	partly agree, partly disagree ?	disagree DYNAMIC	disagree DYNAMIC	partly agree TOWARDS DYNAMIC	agree DYNAMIC	disagree DYNAMIC
3rd year	partly disagree TOWARDS DYNAMIC	disagree DYNAMIC	disagree DYNAMIC	disagree STATIC	agree DYNAMIC	disagree DYNAMIC

Although his 3rd year answer to the fourth closed question points to another direction[35], his open answers point clearly to the dynamic understanding. In the 1st year, he states that translation is "transferring meaning/information from one language, culture and time to another", and mentions that translation requires "knowledge about the methods of translation and the ability to use them" – a point that is not raised by any other student at the beginning. A further comment from the 1st year states: "When a specific way in one language is used to express an idea, another way is used in another language to express the same idea." In the 3rd year Paul says that translation is "rewriting, and a part of target culture". Paul's performance in both years aligns with his answers to the questionnaires; for him, deviating from the ST structure and lexical choices seems to be the prevailing approach from early on. In the beginning, however, Paul seems more willing to sacrifice content for the sake of fluency in the TT, perhaps. In the 3rd year, the performance is more balanced in this respect, conforming to the accountability norm in translation (Chesterman 1997).

In his 1st year translation commentary, Paul expresses that he is satisfied with his translation and that he is not – "translation seemed still a bit of a draft". He did not elaborate further at which points exactly he felt that way, but in any case, he appears to acknowledge that he may not have shown a sufficient level of interlingual text production competence throughout the translation. When asked about the level of difficulty of the translation task, Paul answered it was 'average', although he thought the text was 'easy' to understand. This also suggests that he was aware of the translation challenges. In the 3rd year, Paul felt the level of difficulty to be average both for un-

[35] When presenting these answers at the annual Symposium on Translation and Interpretation KäTu in Turku, 12 April, 2013, a translator among the audience pointed out that in the professional market, a translator is not always informed about the purpose of translation, and a translation must be produced nevertheless. Hence, this statement may be interpreted in the light of reality rather as the ideal nurtured in translator education.

derstanding and translating the text. With regard to the satisfaction to his translation Paul says: "It will do for a class translation. Could be better. I like to use at least two days for a translation, even for shortish source texts. Then I can focus on the target text after the first draft, without looking at the source anymore, and produce more fluent text." This may imply that fluent Finnish text production is something Paul feels somewhat unsure of, and that he needs more time to make sure his Finnish is fluent. Alternatively, the answer may mirror what is often told to the students during training: that translation benefits from 'resting overnight' (or 'drawer time', as Shih 2006 calls it) before final revision. The assumption that it is Finnish text production (rather than other elements of interlingual text production skills) that is most challenging for Paul in translation can also be derived from his own estimate of his language skills: while in the 1st year he assesses both his English and Finnish skills to be 'good', in the 3rd year he thinks his English is 'excellent' while Finnish is 'rather good'. This may point to his growing sensitivity to the nuances and variety of Finnish usage in various communication situations; he has realized that being a native speaker of Finnish does not equal being able to produce accurate Finnish TT in every translation situation. Paul's Finnish language mark in the matriculation examination was average.

As Paul's 3rd year TT chunks are mostly accurate, it seems he is being over-critical of his own performance at this point. His own evaluation of himself as a translator is as follows: "Summarizing is both a strength and weakness. I aim at fluent, functional target text." This implies that he has recognized that summarizing (i.e. omissions) is not always desirable, and in his 3rd year performance he acts accordingly. In short, Paul seems to know what he knows and what he does not know; only in the 3rd year he seems to know even more than he gives himself credit for. In other words, he seems to lack confidence in his skills rather than the skills as such.

7.2.4 Performance and skills of other students

In the following subsections, the performance of the rest of the group is mirrored against Stu, Lee and Paul, and the similarities between the performances as a mirror of skills as well as each student's individual features will be discussed briefly. Harry's, Mia's, Ian's and Sam's full performance profile can be found in appendices 4, 5, 6 and 7.

7.2.4.1 ST influence monitoring skills

Table 30 below summarizes the inaccuracies with observable ST influence in each students' TT chunks, implying insufficiency in different types of ST influence monitoring skills.

With regard to the ST influence monitoring skills, Harry seems to bear close resemblance to Stu. The TT is not monitored for meaning in three instances, and ST influence is shown as negative transfer in six further instances. While observable ST influence is less frequent in the 2nd set of data, the change is not as pronounced as in Stu's performance. However, the ST influence is less obvious and less distracting from the reader's point of view than it was at the beginning: ambiguity in the TT is monitored in all but one TT chunk in the 2nd data set. Insufficiency in the skills to monitor the TT for exact lexis and structure are implied by both sets of data. Mia and Sam seem to be between Stu and Paul/Lee when it comes to the ST influence monitoring

skills at the beginning. The differences between these five students have levelled off in the 2nd set of data, although there is some variation in the type of ST monitoring skill that seems lacking in dealing with single ST chunks. For example, Stu's 2nd set of data implied insufficiency in monitoring the TT for structure, whereas Mia's and Sam's imply insufficiency in monitoring for meaning and lexical exactness. However, eleven TT chunks out of 13 in the second set of data imply sufficient ST influence monitoring skills for Mia, Sam, Stu and Paul.

Table 30. Skill insufficiencies implied by inaccuracy categories with observable ST influence in the 1st and 2nd sets of data from Harry, Mia, Ian and Sam.

category of inaccuracy with ST inf	skill insufficiency implied	no. of TT chunks implying insufficiency													
		Harry 1st	Harry 2nd	Mia 1st	Mia 2nd	Ian 1st	Ian 2nd	Sam 1st	Sam 2nd	Stu 1st	Stu 2nd	Lee 1st	Lee 2nd	Paul 1st	Paul 2nd
ambiguity	**skill to monitor TT for meaning**	3	1	3	1	-	-	2	-	4	-	1	-	-	-
structure	**skill to monitor TT for TL structural/syntax norms/ rules**	1	2	2	-	1	-	-	-	1	2	-	-	-	1
orthography	**skill to monitor TT for punctuation and spelling**	-	-	1	-	-	-	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	-
lexis	**skill to monitor TT for idiomaticity, conventionality, naturalness**	2	2	-	1	1	-	1	2	1	-	1	1	1	-
style	**skill to monitor TT for the level of formality/informality**	2	1	-	-	1	-	-	-	2	-	1	-	1	-
cotext	**skill to monitor TT for textual cohesion and coherence**	1	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	1	1

Ian's starting point with regard to the ST influence monitoring skills resembles that of Lee's and Paul's. There is observable ST influence in three TT chunks in his first set of data, all implying a different ST influence monitoring skill insufficiency. Similar to Lee but unlike Paul, Ian's 1st year translation shows no omissions, which means that 10 out of 13 TT chunks imply sufficient ST influence monitoring skills to begin with. The 2nd set of data implies no insufficiency of ST influence monitoring skills. However, similar to Lee, Ian also adopts omission in the translation of three ST chunks.

7.2.4.2 Balancing skill

Stu, Lee and Paul all showed little balancing between the working languages in the first set of data. Lee showed even less in the 2nd set of data, while Stu and Paul showed some more in the 2nd, and the balancing resulted in accurate TT chunks, too. In the 1st year data, a not-ST-motivated strategy was clearly more successful. Table 31 below shows the level of ST motivation in Harry's, Mia's, Ian's and Sam's final TT chunks.

Table 31. Level of ST motivation in the TT chunks of Harry, Mia, Ian and Sam.

END SOLUTION		NOT ST-MOTIVATED	ST-MOTIVATED ONE ASPECT	ST-MOTIVATED TWO ASPECTS	ST-MOTIVATED THREE ASPECTS
Harry	1st set of data (1st year)	2	2	4	5
	2nd set of data (3rd year)	1	4	5	3
Mia	1st set of data (1st year)	3	3	2	5
	2nd set of data (3rd year)	5	3	3	2
Ian	1st set of data (1st year)	7	2	4	-
	2nd set of data (3rd year)	9	3	-	1
Sam	1st set of data (1st year)	3	4	2	4
	2nd set of data (3rd year)	3	4	6	-

Harry's 1st year way to deal with obligatory shifts resembles that of Stu's, appearing slightly less ST-motivated. All in all, his 3rd year TT chunks show little change in the level of ST motivation, although a slightly smaller number of TT chunks are ST-motivated in three aspects and conversely, a slightly bigger number of TT chunks are ST-motivated in one or two aspects. However, the 3rd year product shows some successful balancing, too: four out of Harry's five accurate 3rd year solutions are ST-motivated either in one or two aspects.

Ian's 3rd year solutions are almost identical to those of Paul's in ST motivation: his approach is strongly not ST-motivated especially in the 3rd year. He seems to balance more in the 1st year, but all his six 1st year accurate solutions are not ST-motivated which implies that balancing skill does not work yet. In the 3rd year, all solutions showing some level of ST motivation are accurate, which implies some change in the way Ian can utilize interlingual similarities while also changing what needs changing.

Of all students, Sam's and Mia's TT chunks show most balancing between ST motivation and deviation from the 1st year on. They both turn slightly towards less ST-motivated solutions by the 3rd year, but the change is not drastic. Out of six of Sam's 1st year accurate solutions, three are not ST-motivated and the remaining three ST-motivated in one, two and three aspects. In the 3rd year, the number of not ST-motivated accurate solutions remains the same while three are ST-motivated in two aspects and two in one aspect. Hence, Sam seems to show balancing skill from early on. Mia's 1st year accurate solutions are mainly not ST-motivated; only one out of her four accurate TT chunks is ST-motivated (in one aspect). In the 3rd year, four accurate solutions are not ST-motivated while two are ST-motivated in two aspects and one in one aspect. Her 3rd year product, too, seems to suggest some balancing skill.

Mia and Sam also seem to **search for the level of ST motivation** they can be con-

tent with more than Stu, Lee or Paul: the level of ST motivation varies approximately in half of the strings of interim solutions both years. However, there is no clear tendency in either year in the direction of change: sometimes the TT chunk turns more ST-motivated and sometimes less ST-motivated after a revision.

Ian seems to process his solutions from more ST-motivated to less ST-motivated; the first interim solution is generally more ST-motivated than the following solutions. Alternatively, the solutions are (not) ST-motivated all along. Quite interestingly, in the 1st year five out of Ian's six accurate and not ST-motivated solutions emerge as the first solutions with no revision, whereas the 3rd year performance involves substantial revision. This seems to imply that at the beginning, Ian relies more on the first instinct, whereas in the 3rd year his problem awareness seems to have grown, and he puts more thought into the solutions. Harry, in turn, seems to follow his first instinct both years: There are no strings of interim solutions that bring any changes to the ST-TT relation while processing. He makes a solution and sticks to it.

Omission resulting in information loss is used as a strategy in TT production in Ian's and Mia's 2nd sets of data; in this sense, they come close to Lee, who also became more courageous in the use of omissions towards the end of his BA studies. There seems to be a stage in the acquisition of TC in which omission, once its potential as a translation strategy has been recognized, gets overused in translation; at least from the perspective of the accountability norm. Paul seemed to be at that stage in the 1st year, and Lee, Ian and Mia in the 3rd. Harry and Stu do not omit textual chunks in either set of data, being similar in that sense as well. Sam is the only student adopting omission only when it results in no information loss, which might imply critical ST reading skill.

7.2.4.3 TL text production skills

Table 32 summarizes the inaccuracies without observable ST influence in each students' TT chunks, with the link to the skill insufficiency in the TL text production implied.

At the beginning, Harry and Stu are also similar with regard to overall **TL text production skills**, although there are differences in the types of skills that seem insufficient: while Stu seems to have more problems coming up with structurally accurate solutions in particular, Harry's 1st year product suggests different types of insufficiencies but less consistently. The 2nd set of data implies a more drastic change in Harry's skills: only one TT chunk implies a TL text production insufficiency. However, Harry's translation entails a considerable number of ST-influenced TT chunks, which means that no definite statements can be made about TL production skills, bearing in mind that the apparent ST influence may in fact stem from insufficiencies in TL production skill rather than in ST influence monitoring skills. Mia also resembles Stu in that they both have insufficiencies in basic Finnish skills such as spelling of compounds and punctuation in the beginning but not in the 3rd year. The 3rd year TL text production skill profile is also similar; skills to produce lexically and structurally exact TL text seems insufficient for both in one or two TT chunks.

Table 32. TT chunks implying insufficient TL text production skills.

category of inaccuracy	skill insufficiency implied	no. of TT chunks implying insufficiency													
		Harry 1st	Harry 2nd	Mia 1st	Mia 2nd	Ian 1st	Ian 2nd	Sam 1st	Sam 2nd	Stu 1st	Stu 2nd	Lee 1st	Lee 2nd	Paul 1st	Paul 2nd
structure	skill to apply TL syntactic and structural rules in text production	-	1	1	1	1	1	-	-	4	2	1	-	-	-
orthography	skill to apply TL orthography rules in text production	1	-	2	-	-	1	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-
lexis	skill to use exact, idiomatic language in text production	1	-	-	2	3	3	3	3	-	2	2	-	3	1
style	skill to produce TL text with appropriate level of formality/informality	2	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-
cotext	skill to produce coherent and cohesive text	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-
TOTAL		4	1	3	3	4	6	3	3	5	4	4	1	3	1

For Ian, in turn, **TL text production** seems to be the challenge from the beginning, rather than avoiding observable ST influence; in this sense Ian resembles Lee. Not only the final TT chunks but also some strings of interim solutions show that Ian really struggles with TT production. Example 74 below is representative of Ian's performance as a whole. While he can successfully deal with interlingual differences in translation in general, he is occasionally trapped by the ST formulation, which makes his processing heavy and complex – even more so since some Finnish language rules seem to be unclear to him. The challenges with the exact Finnish usage are present in the 3rd year translation as well, even more clearly than in the 1st year.

Example 74.

Ian 1/7:
ST: Red, who provides the voiceover to Andy's silent initiation and eventual apparent resignation to his situation
Process:
Red esittelee Andyn ensiaskeleet vankilassa ja ~~hänen ilmeisen tyytymisen kohtaloonsa~~. **ennenpitkää tapahtuvan kohtaloon tyytymiseensä**
'Red introduces Andy's first steps in prison and ~~his apparent resignation destiny-ILL, POS~~ **before long happening destiny-ILL resignation-ILL, POS**

hänen ennen pitkää tapahtuvan kohtaloon tyytymiseensä
'his before long happening destiny-ILL resigna**a**tion-ILL, POS'

~~Red esittelee~~ **Redin kerronnan siivittämänä esitetään** Andyn ensiaskeleet vankilassa ja hänen ennenpitkää tapahtuvan kohtaloon**sa** tyytymise**e**nsä.

~~'Red introduces~~ with **Red's narration are shown** Andy's first steps in prison and his before long happening destiny-ILL, **POS** resignation-ILL, POS'

kohtaloonsa tyytymi~~sensä~~**nen**
'destiny-ILL, POS resignation-~~**ILL, POS'**~~

hänen ennenpitkää ~~tapahtuvan~~ **seuraavan** kohtaloonsa tyytyminen
'his before long ~~happening~~ **following** destiny-ILL, POS resignation'

~~hänen ennenpitkää seuraavan~~ kohtaloonsa tyytyminen
'~~his before long following~~ destiny-ILL, POS resignation'

hänen kohtaloonsa tyytyminen
'his destiny-ILL, POS resignation'

hänen **ennen pitkää tapahtuva** kohtaloonsa tyytyminen
'his **before long happening** destiny-ILL, POS resignation'

As can be seen, Ian seems determined to keep the NP structure in the latter part of the original expression, even though he changes the structure of the beginning. This determination seems to be the cause of his struggle with the Finnish text formulation, yet he seems unwilling to let go of the NP structure, not attempting any other Finnish formulations. The linguistic uncertainty here has to do with the proper place of the possessive suffix, and whether to use the possessive pronoun or not. Moreover, Ian struggles with the adjectives within this NP. On a further note, this is a revealing example of a process in which the determination to stick to ST-motivated solution (in grammar) seems to narrow down translator's choices, hence possibly complicating the process. In this case the NP structure as such is perfectly possible in Finnish, too, but alternative formulations may have resolved the possessive suffix issue Ian is struggling with.

Sam's TT chunks show no change in his skills at the TL text production stage; all skills needed for this task except the skills to produce lexically exact TL expressions seem sufficient already at the beginning. The skill to produce lexically exact, idiomatic TL text seems insufficient in dealing with three ST chunks in both sets of data.

7.2.4.4 Skills implied by interim solutions

On the basis of my data, all students except for Stu produce more interim solutions in the 3rd year of their BA studies than they do in the 1st. As a rule, however, the patterns **from accurate to inaccurate** and **changes but none accurate** are rare; in other words, the inaccuracy that is observable in the final TT chunk is present from the first interim solution on. Only Ian's interim solutions can bring out skills that seem insufficient on the basis of the final solution of that particular ST chunk. The pattern from accurate to inaccurate appears twice: in one instance, revision turns the TT chunk from accurate to inaccurate due to an introduction of lexical inaccuracy, and in another, an accurate solution is changed into a stylistically inaccurate one. In other

words, Ian **can** produce accurate TL language but cannot always tell the difference between what is accurate and what is not. In this sense, the process features seem to support what the final TT chunks imply of his skills: that it is precisely exact TL text production Ian needs to work on. Also the strings of interim solutions that eventually result in an accurate solution entail tentative solutions that imply some insufficiency in Ian's use of Finnish.

The dominating pattern in Sam's third year performance is **accurate all along**; this is also the clearest change in relation to the 1st year process. In this sense Sam's processing resembles that of Lee's. These solutions suggest that Sam is capable of accurate interlingual text production but definitely has trouble choosing between the various accurate alternatives. To describe Sam's and Lee's translation skill with Pym's definition of TC (Pym 2003: 489), Sam seems capable of "generating a series of more than one viable target text (TT_1, TT_2 … TT_n) for a pertinent source text (ST)" but has difficulties in "selecting only one viable TT from this series, quickly and with justified confidence".

Harry revises hardly at all in the 1st set of data and slightly more in the 2nd, but revisions do not point to existence of any such skills that seem missing on the basis of the final TT chunk. The same applies to Mia, who nevertheless revises considerably more than Harry, especially in the 2nd set of data.

7.2.4.5 Knowledge of translation and regulative knowledge

Based on the questionnaires, Harry's knowledge of translation seems similar to that of Stu's at the beginning. However, unlike Stu's, it does not seem to turn more dynamic by the 3rd year, but rather vice versa: Harry's 3rd year answers to the closed questions suggest even more static understanding of translation: in the 3rd year Harry thinks, for example, that translation is a mechanical code switching process by nature. Harry, then, seems to provide an example of a person whose implicit understanding is not easily changed – at least not into the direction implied by the statable input during training; as Bereiter (2002: 155) stated, one may stick to one's original understanding persistently.

Mia seems to have a more dynamic understanding of translation in the 3rd than in the 1st year, whereas Ian's as well as Sam's answers consistently point to a dynamic view of translation from the very beginning; Ian's view in particular seems clear from the beginning.

Based on the translation commentaries, selected items in the background information questionnaire as well as the students' overall performance, Harry stands out from the other students with regard to **regulative knowledge**. Harry seems quite confident as far his performance is concerned. He did not recognize any limitations in his skills to come up with an accurate translation in this case, but felt quite confident about the quality of his translation, in this sense resembling the novice students in Quinci's (2015: 193) study. Harry considered both texts to be 'easy' to translate. He does not seem to acknowledge any problems in his interlingual text production. Mia, in turn, found the 1st year text to be 'difficult' to translate. She found the 3rd year text of 'average' difficulty to translate. Nevertheless, Mia is unable to say whether she is satisfied with her translation or not in both years. The question *Does she know what*

she knows and what she does not remains unanswered. She suspects she could have done better but does not give any specifics on how. However, her self-estimate of her Finnish skills seem to support what the 3rd year product implies; that it is the TL text production skill that is the biggest challenge for her: "I think that I am better at identifying different styles and genres than producing speech or text myself… The more I study (translation), the less I feel at ease with it. I don't think I'm especially talented in linguistic expression, but I'm more of a visual person."

In addition to Harry, Ian was the only one who regarded the 1st year task as 'easy' to translate. He is, all in all, satisfied with his translation: "I think I managed to produce an understandable text. All word choices were perhaps not the most natural, though." This was indeed the case: there were TT chunks that were stylistically, lexically or morphologically somewhat imprecise Finnish expressions. It seems, then, that he has some idea of his own knowledge and skills in the situation. In the 3rd year, Ian finds the ST to be of 'average' difficulty to translate. He seems to acknowledge the need to gain even stronger Finnish text production skills at this point, too, as he says: (My Finnish skills)…"are really good, but there is still room for improvement. Thanks to our Finnish courses, I have improved in that respect (especially with regard to orthographical matters and conventions of various genres)." What he also needs to learn, in his own opinion in the 3rd year, is "translation confidence, trust in my own skills"; this uncertainty can be seen in the 3rd year performance with a lot of repetitive solutions and in the amount of processing in general. He seems more confident at the beginning than he does in the 3rd year, which is probably a result of growing knowledge of translation in general as well as gain in one's regulative knowledge.

Similarly to Lee and Paul, Sam cannot say whether he is satisfied or not with his 1st year translation, and is more critical in the 3rd year: "One is seldom satisfied with a translation which is done as quickly as this one." He considers both texts as being 'easy' to understand and 'average' to translate – despite the amount of processing (which may also be part of his translation style rather than an indicator of perceived problems; see Carl et al. 2010). Sam does not provide further comments on what makes him unsatisfied, except that when evaluating his Finnish skills in the background information questionnaire he says he "would not brag about it". In the 3rd year he says that English sometimes shines through in his translations, being of the opinion that Finnish–English translation is better for him than translating into his mother tongue. Hence he seems to acknowledge that his ST-motivated approach may sometimes cause inaccuracy. All in all, Sam is overcautious rather than overconfident in his comments, and in this respect the opposite of Harry.

7.3 SECOND-STAGE ANALYSIS: SUMMARY OF VARIATION BETWEEN STUDENTS

To sum up the results of the second-stage analysis, changes in the students' TT chunks with regard to the different skills are depicted in the tables of this subsection. Since the data appeared – expectedly – to show little insufficiencies in ST comprehension, it will not be discussed here. Table 33 shows the level of observable ST influence in the

students' TT chunks, which mirrors ST influence monitoring skills. Tables 34 and 35 show the extent to which students seem to balance between the working languages and how successful this balancing is. Omissions leading to information loss are depicted in Table 36. Table 37 in turn shows to which extent the students' TT chunks were inaccurate without showing observable ST influence, which was assumed to mirror their TL text production skills. Table 38 focuses on the changes in the knowledge of translation while the final Table 39 depicts the level of students' regulative knowledge, i.e. whether they seemed to have a realistic view of their performance or not.

Table 33. Observable ST influence in students' 1st and 3rd year TT chunks, mirroring monitoring skills needed for transfer.

1st set of data	Harry Stu	Mia Sam	Lee	Ian Paul	
	CLEAR, FREQUENT ST INFLUENCE	**CLEAR BUT LESS FREQUENT ST INFLUENCE**	**SUBTLE AND LESS FREQUENT ST INFLUENCE/ LITTLE BUT CLEAR**	**SUBTLE AND LITTLE ST INFLUENCE**	**NO ST INFLUENCE**
2nd set of data		Harry	Mia	Lee Sam Paul Stu	Ian

As Table 33 suggests, most students move from left to right in the 2nd set of data, which suggests that different ST influence monitoring skills have developed during their BA studies and variation in skill insufficiencies has diminished. 'Clear' ST influence in this table is linked to the insufficient skill to monitor the TT for meaning; students showing insufficiencies in this specific skill often also lacked more subtle types of monitoring skills. 'Clear' can also mark ST influence resulting in a TT chunk that clearly breaks an explicit rule or norm in the TL, implying an insufficiency in the skill to monitor TT for ST influence in orthography, syntax/structure and cotext in particular. 'Subtle' ST influence refers to instances in which ST influence results in TT chunks that do not break a specific, explicit language rule or norm but are nevertheless considered inaccurate by the external evaluators in this study. The 'harmfulness' of subtle ST influence on the TT chunk is typically subjective, since its inaccuracy can only be justified by the evaluators' pragmatic knowledge about language. Subtle ST influence in TT implies insufficiencies in the skills to monitor TT for lexis and style in particular, although in some cases structural/syntactic inaccuracies are also difficult to justify by explicit rules (see example FF).

Table 34 below summarizes the number of TT chunks showing how students attempt to balance between the languages in the 1st and 3rd year of their BA studies. The Table shows the frequency of TT chunks that are ST-motivated in **one** or **two** aspects, since they imply balancing between the languages.

Table 34. Balancing between the working languages in the 1st and 2nd sets of data.

1st set of data	Paul		Stu Harry Mia Ian Sam	Lee
	RARE (0-1)	**OCCASIONAL (2-4)**	**FREQUENT (5-6)**	**DOMINANT (≥7)**
2nd set of data		Paul Lee Ian	Stu Mia	Harry Sam

As Table 34 above suggests, with the exception of Paul, all students attempt balancing between languages frequently in the first year. Lee and Ian show less balancing in the 3rd year and all others show the same amount or more. Table 35 below, in turn, shows how often the balancing is successful in both years, i.e. implies a balancing skill.

Table 35. Frequency of accurate TT chunks that are ST-motivated in one or two aspects, implying balancing skill, the 1st and 2nd sets of data.

1st set of data	Stu Lee Paul Harry Mia Ian	Sam	
	RARELY (0-2)	**OCCASIONALLY (3-4)**	**OFTEN (≥5)**
2nd set of data	Lee	Stu Paul Mia Ian	Harry Sam

As Table 35 above suggests, only Sam's TT chunks occasionally imply balancing skill in the first year. For others, attempts to balance result in inaccurate TT chunks, either due to negative transfer or other TL-related inaccuracies. By the 3rd year, all students' except for Lee's TT chunks imply balancing skill at least occasionally. For Harry and Sam balancing between the working languages is often a successful interlingual text production strategy.

Table 36 below shows the adoption of the most extreme manifestation of a not ST-motivated interlingual text production strategy, that of omission.

Table 36. Number of omissions resulting in the loss of information in the 1st and 2nd sets of data.

	Number of omissions resulting in TT<ST	
	1st set of data	**2nd set of data**
Stu	-	-
Lee	-	**3**
Paul	**4**	1
Harry	1	-
Mia	-	**2**
Ian	-	**3**
Sam	-	-

As Table 36 shows, as a rule omission is more common in the 3rd year, and it is adopted more often by those students whose strategy is generally not ST-motivated, i.e. Lee and Ian in the 3rd year and Paul in the 1st year. Mia is an exception; she adopts omission twice but shows frequent balancing, too.

Table 37 below shows the changes that can be observed in TT chunks pointing to different types of TL text production skills.

Table 37. Students' inaccurate TT chunks without observable ST influence in the 1st and the 2nd set of data, mirroring the TL text production skills in a translation situation.

1st set of data	Stu	Mia Paul Harry Sam Lee Ian	
	VARIOUS TL INACCURACIES ≥ 5	**SOME TL INACCURACIES 3-4**	**FEW TL INACCURACIES ≤ 2**
2nd set of data	Ian	Stu Sam Mia	Lee Paul Harry

The fact that some students' TT chunks implied no change in TL text production skills (Mia, Sam) or even suggested more insufficiencies in these skills in the 3rd year may (Ian) have a simple explanation: in the 1st year, observable ST influence may hide the problems in TL text production skills. When students learn to recognize interlingual differences and deal with them in translation, the product no longer shows ST influence – but it may still imply problems in TL text production.

The following Table 38 illustrates students' knowledge about translation in both sets of data.

Table 38. Students' perceptions of translation in the two sets of data, mirroring their ***knowledge of translation.***

1st set of data	Harry	Lee Stu Mia Sam	Ian Paul
	(TOWARDS) STATIC	**UNCLEAR/CONTRADICTORY**	**(TOWARDS) DYNAMIC**
2nd set of data	Harry		Stu Lee Paul Mia Sam Ian

Table 38 also shows a shift from left to right and hence implies that students implicit or explicit theories about translation have been dynamic from early on (Ian, Paul), or became more dynamic towards the 3rd year of studies (Lee, Stu, Mia and Sam), with the exception of Harry.

The final Table 39 illustrates students' level of regulative knowledge on the basis of the two sets of data.

Table 39. Students' level of regulative knowledge in the 1st and 3rd year.

1st year	Harry	Mia Sam Lee	Ian Paul? Stu
	does not know that does not know	**is not certain whether knows or does not know**	**knows what knows and what does not know**
3rd year	Harry	Paul Mia Lee Sam	Ian Stu

With regard to the regulative knowledge, changes from the 1st and the 2nd sets of data are not radical in the light of this data; only Paul seems to change in this respect. Students' self-regulative knowledge could be roughly divided in three categories as Table 39 suggests; there is one student who does not seem to know that he does not know, and in the other end, there are students who seem to have a rather realistic view of their performance. Even if the data allows a somewhat superficial analysis of this knowledge, some notions are nevertheless worth discussing. Table 39 implies that regulative knowledge develops slowly. In the 1st year, students typically could not say whether they were satisfied with their translation or not. Despite the clear development of skills, this remains to be the case in the 3rd year when students in fact utter more, even over- critical attitudes towards their performance; their performance is often better than they give themselves credit for.

Due to the narrow set of data that was used in the second-stage analysis as a window into the students' skills, no strict evaluation about any individual students' overall TC can be made. The second-stage analysis does, however, show what kind of differences there may be in the skills of students who, based on their all being beginning students, could be labelled as 'novices' in translation. Different starting points and development paths that resulted from the analysis seem to fit the learning model which is adopted into translation studies by Gonzalez Davies (2004: 40). According to this model, the first-stage competence acquisition is **unconscious incompetence** (e.g. Harry, to some extent also in the 3rd year), where students are ignorant of the intricacies of the discipline they are engaged in: translation seems easy as long as one has a good dictionary and a fair amount of knowledge in languages. This stage could be taken to define genuine novices in translation who, according to Jääskeläinen (1996: 67), are "blissfully unaware of their ignorance". Gradually, as the first challenges and problems are faced, the stage of **conscious incompetence** (e.g. Stu 1st year) sets in; students become aware of what is actually involved in translation and realize their need for knowledge. At this stage, the learning process can truly begin. As Gonzalez Davies (2004: 40) puts it, students "stall, falter, make mistakes and trudge along, but gradually make out the similarities, differences, and relation patterns that can be established concerning the knowledge acquired up to this point", thus reaching the stage of **conscious competence**. At this stage, students can evaluate and justify their own performance realistically, and start developing their own ideas instead of simply following rules. Problem spotting and solving skills are developed along with the general understanding of the profession and translation process. The fourth and final stage is that of **unconscious competence**, which is characterized by apparent easiness leading to top performance. The knowledge needed to perform the action is internalized, in some cases beyond the ability to justify one's solutions. As Gonzalez Davies (ibid.) points out, this stage corresponds to the expert-level performance.

The results of this study suggest two further, identifiable steps to this model: that of **uncertain incompetence** and that of **uncertain competence**. Before reaching the stage of conscious incompetence, students seem overly cautious and uncertain about their solutions, even repeatedly checking lexical items they most probably know. The level of uncertain incompetence could be characterized by insecure, cautious, repetitive and painstaking processing, and by a translator's uncertainty about the quality of the end result (e.g. Mia 1st year). The same characteristics also apply to the stage of **uncertain competence** (e.g. Paul 3rd year)**,** which to me seems to precede the stage of conscious competence; the difference lies in the end product, which in the latter case implies competence rather than incompetence.

7.4 SHARED FEATURES IN SKILL DEVELOPMENT FROM KNOWLEDGE POINT OF VIEW

The group-level results suggested that of **ST influence monitoring skills**, skill to monitor TT for lexical and structural precision shows most insufficiencies still in the second set of data. Of **TL text production skills,** producing lexically and

structurally accurate TL text also appeared most challenging in the second set of group-level data. The individual analyses show that the TT chunks implying these insufficiencies are distributed among many students, not being specific features of a single student's performance. The two types of lexical skills in particular – monitoring TT for idiomatic, conventional and exact lexis, and producing lexically exact TL – still show some insufficiencies in several students' 2nd set of data (4 and 5 students, respectively). On the basis of this data, then, these two skills seem to be the ones whose development takes the longest. These skills contribute to the polishing of TT; without them, the TT is understandable but does not sound quite natural, fluent, conventional or idiomatic TL.

This finding is not surprising to a translation teacher who comments on student translations, often finding the solutions to be "not quite right", perhaps being unable to pinpoint what exactly is the problem. The finding is not surprising in the light of Bereiter's (2002) typology of knowledge either, which recognizes the significance of experience-based knowledge in the acquisition of competence. Advanced-level interlingual text production skills – and arguably any high-level linguistic skills – are bound to involve skills that cannot be gained by any other means but experience. By this I mean experience of language use rather than experience in translation. Skills to monitor TT for ST-influenced lexis, as well as to produce lexically exact TL, provide examples of such skills. The way various individual words behave – their nuances, connotations and collocations – in all possible different contexts cannot be covered by written rules which could be acquired in the form of statable (or declarative) knowledge from books or lectures. As Mäntynen (2012: 381–383) states, language-related norms are different in nature, and only a fraction of them are explicitly given in various guidebooks on correct language use or school books. In addition to these explicit rules and norms, any language can be deemed to have natural, fundamentally language-specific norms as well as stylistic and situational norms.

Subtleties and nuances of one's L1 arguably require knowledge of language that is largely tacit in nature; it cannot be fully covered in explicit teaching. Instead, one needs experience as a member of a linguistic community, as an **attentive** user of language. As suggested by Schmidt's (1990, 2010) **noticing hypothesis**, linguistic input does not become intake for language learning unless it is noticed, that is, consciously registered. As Schmidt (2010: 721) puts it, "people learn about the things that they pay attention to and do not learn much about the things they do not attend to". Although the hypothesis has arisen in the context of second language learning, it seems to apply to the way one's L1 is enhanced, as well; not all native speakers have an equal command of their L1. The more experience one has from a wide variety of discourse situations, the deeper is one's intuitive knowledge of how language and words behave in different situations. This knowledge may be partly *episodic* or *impressionistic* in nature, or it may be *implicit understanding* of language use (see section 4.1.6). This experience-based knowledge contributes to the skill to use language in different situations. One may call it 'linguistic sense' or 'intuition' or 'understanding of correct language use'; in any case, it is a vital knowledge element of a professional language user (such as a professional translator), to differentiate between such a professional and a 'mere' native speaker of a language.

It can be hypothesized that skills that cannot be reinforced by statable knowledge take longer to develop; gaining knowledge of language use as an attentive participant of a linguistic community is assumedly a slow method of learning. Hence, skills that can be learnt with this method *only* take more time to develop. The 3rd year products showed few insufficiencies in skills that can be reinforced by an input of statable knowledge. For example, the amount of orthographical inaccuracies in students' products was small to begin with, concentrating on a couple of students' products, and by the 3rd year it was practically zero. This implies that aspects that can be "put straight" by giving straightforward rules are simpler to tackle.

It is not only skill to monitor the TT for lexis and to produce lexically exact language that require experience-based knowledge; the same applies to the skills to produce stylistically appropriate text. Of course, issues related to style can also be taught explicitly. One can definitely learn about different registers and linguistic means to express formality or informality, for example. This is essential in becoming a professional language user. However, to know how these rules and principles are to be applied in different situations does, in my view, require sophisticated pragmatic knowledge of language, a refined implicit understanding of what is appropriate in the given situation and what linguistic means are to be applied. Structural/syntactic, orthographical and cotextual accuracy are more clearly rule-based; one can find explicit descriptions of Finnish syntax, punctuation and spelling, and the use of deictic items (which formed cotextual challenges in the present translation situation) from different sources and they are also taught during training. Naturally, no language rules are set in stone. For example, the future tense in Finnish is subject to controversy; while some accept the use of explicit future tense in Finnish, others find it inaccurate and superfluous and use the present tense also when referring to the future.

The very fact that external evaluators – all experts of Finnish – may disagree on the accuracy of a TT chunk also implies that all skills needed for interlingual text production cannot arise from knowledge of explicitly declarable rules and norms only; even experts of language use have a slightly different understanding of appropriate language use in different situations. They probably know the same rules and norms, but have different experiences as a language user, which has partly formed their understanding of what they see as appropriate. In this study, some TT chunks were regarded inaccurate with comments such as "*olla läsnä* ('be present') is not in my opinion semantically quite right, I cannot really explain why…" and "this does not sound Finnish". No explicit reason could be given for the inaccuracy, perhaps because there is no explicit rule or norm that is being broken by the solution.

In the following, concluding chapter I will revisit the main findings of the study, discussing them from the didactic point of view.

8 Discussion and conclusion

There were two major aims in this study, one theoretical and one empirical. The theoretical aim was to remodel the concept of TC from the acquisition point of view, with the emphasis on specifically translation-related linguistic skills. The empirical aim was to describe the change that takes place in students' skills during their BA studies. To the latter aim, the first stage in the data analysis complemented the model outlined in the theoretical discussion, specifying some basic skills needed in interlingual text production. The second stage in the data analysis looked at each student's individual performance with regard to the skills identified at the beginning and end of their BA studies.

In this concluding chapter, I will briefly summarize the theoretical outcome and findings of the empirical part, discussing them from the pedagogical perspective. First, the concept of situation-based TC will be revisited as a method/tool to plan translation courses and individual translation tasks. Second, the TC as defined in the translation situations focused on in this study will be retraced. Third, the findings of the longitudinal study into students' (A)TC during their BA studies will be discussed in terms of their implications for translator training. Finally, the research design of this study will be critically reflected, and ideas for further studies will be suggested.

8.1 SITUATION-BASED TC AND TRANSLATOR TRAINING

The recent models defining TC have defined the competence of an expert translator. These models emphasize the extra-linguistic elements of TC, considering the linguistic aspects of TC as **not** translation-specific competences, since it is not only translators who possess language competence. In the model designed to meet the theoretical aim of this study, the concept of TC is approached from a different angle. TC as a concept is detached from expertise, and is taken to denote the competence to deal with the demands and expectations of a specific translation situation. These situations can range from the simplest everyday language mediation practices to complex, demanding translation projects. In this approach, then, TC is a flexible, situation-bound concept: a person may be competent to translate in one situation but not in another.

Each and every translation situation is, in essence, an instance of interlingual text production; therefore, **interlingual text production skills** form the core of TC in the model. They are skills that are needed **to some extent** in all translation situations. All other knowledge and skills that are needed in various translation situations – information mining, subject field related, translation technology, etc. – **serve the purpose of interlingual text production in a given translation situation**. The more complex and demanding the situation, the more well-constructed understanding of translation is also necessary.

When this approach is applied in translator training, acquisition of TC is about learning to handle more and more complex translation situations. Every student is competent to deal with some types of translation situations upon entering the training, and the goal of training is to widen the scope of situations students can manage. TC as such is not something that one either has or does not have; it is determined against the demands and expectations set by the situation. The situation-based TC model concretizes this approach, providing a tool that can benefit both translator trainers and students; the first in different levels of planning and the latter by raising students' awareness of the varying nature of translation and TC.

Translator trainers can use the model to support the planning of individual translation exercises at different stages of training. At the beginning, exercises could focus on enhancing skills needed to work **between** the languages, to make students aware of the different nature of linguistic skills needed in translation in comparison to language competence they possess in their working languages. In each exercise, the translation situation and the expectations it creates – and possible constraints – can be discussed with the students. It is also worthwhile to discuss the depth of knowledge and the level of skills that are needed to comply with the expectations in the situations. The skills needed for the task can also be made explicit in the feedback so that students become aware both of their strengths as well as potential learning needs. Gradually, different task-specific skills can be trained, again, with an initial analysis of the translation situation with the help of the model proposed here. Some exercises or courses can focus on enhancing some specific set of skills, e.g. related to information mining; the translation situation can be created so that interlingual text production is not the task but a student's role in the imaginary translation project is to work as a terminologist, for example.

Making students aware of the various skills needed in translation is of vital importance for students' own self-esteem and professional identity. Some graduating students seem to be blind to their competence, underestimating their potential in the job market; they seem to regard TC as something one either has or does not have, and some seem very sceptical about their own competence at the end of their studies. Conceptualising TC as being situation-bound might help students realise that they in fact can deal with quite a range of translation situations by graduation and make them analyse their skill sets more realistically. Furthermore, splitting TC into explicit skills might help students realise that the skills they possess at the end of training open up various other positions in the field of communication and language expertise.

8.2 TRANSLATOR'S LINGUISTIC SKILLS

The empirical part of this study is divided into two parts: first, specifying interlingual text production skills, i.e. the linguistic skills specific to translation, and second, description of students' performance with regard to these skills at the beginning and end of their BA studies. Interlingual text production skills as an object of study is relevant precisely in the context of BA-level translator training, since the skills needed to work in the interspace between two languages can be considered as one of the

main learning aims of BA-level translator training. Students are to be able to deal with interlingual differences and produce norm-abiding Finnish text by the end of their BA studies. This is what differentiates translation as a linguistic skill from 'mere' bilingualism: translation is in essence about **working between languages,** while bilingualism is mastering two languages in separation. The set of interlingual skills needed for translation is more than the sum of SL and TL skills. It could be claimed that the stronger this set of interlingual skills, the more cognitive capacity is left for task-specific expectations in more complex translation situations. In the institutional context of this study, University of Eastern Finland, training for such situations is provided in MA-level translator training.

The translation situations focused on in this study involved relatively easy, non-specialized texts where little task-specific skills and knowledge are needed. However, the situation called for an advanced level of interlingual text production skills; a high-quality TL text was expected. The analysis zoomed into ST chunks that involved an obligatory shift when translated into Finnish, since they were assumed to provide the greatest challenge to interlingual text production skills. The assumption proved correct, and the analysis yielded various categories of (in)accuracy, each of which pointed to a specific type of skill. This enabled the identification of interlingual text production skills.

Translator's interlingual text production skills were divided into **skills needed for understanding the ST for the purpose of translation**, **skills needed to monitor the TT for negative transfer**, and **skills needed to produce norm-abiding TL text in a translation situation**. The ST influence monitoring skills provide the clearest example of linguistic skills specific to translation in particular, but it is to be emphasized that the passive SL knowledge needed for the purpose of translation (in this situation) is also different in nature that passive SL knowledge needed, for example, for reading a novel in a foreign language. To produce a high-quality TL text with the same information content as in the ST, the ST is to be fully comprehended. Similarly, skills needed to produce a TL text in a translation situation can be considered to be partly different from skills needed to produce TL text from scratch, since in translation, the content is given to the text producer. This can be a constraint or a benefit; in any case, it changes the nature of the text production process. Obviously, strong TL skills underlie both text production processes.

These three types of skills were further specified into subskills. ST influence monitoring skills, for example, were divided into six types of subskills: to monitor the TT for ambiguity, lexical exactness, style, orthography, structure/syntax and cotextual accuracy. This, I think, is important especially for the students; it raises their awareness of the different ways the ST structures and lexical choices can show in the TT as negative transfer, helping them to recognize the many faces of interference. The influence of ST structure can show as a stylistically inaccurate TT, for example. Alternatively, lexical ST influence can show as an ambiguous TT, or less clearly as an unconventional or unidiomatic expression. Therefore, the TT is to be monitored for observable ST influence on various linguistic levels. Even if ambiguity due to negative transfer is consistently monitored, the skill to monitor the TT for negative transfer manifested as unconventional lexis may be lacking. The same goes for TL text pro-

duction skills in a translation situation: one may possess the skill to produce lexically exact and orthographically correct TL text, but lack the skill to produce structurally accurate TL text – or vice versa. Pointing out the various subskills needed for interlingual text production on an advanced level and reflecting them on students' performance – or making students' reflect their own performance on the various subskills – contributes to the identification of students' learning needs as well as strengths.

8.3 ATC: HYPOTHESES AND PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS ARISING FROM THE FINDINGS

The fact that students' interlingual text production skills were analysed on the basis of one task only in both years means that the findings regarding the patterns of ATC are to be treated as hypotheses to be tested in further studies rather than generalizations about ATC. After all, factors such as low motivation, tiredness or anxiety may influence translation performance in a single translation situation. Moreover, the set of data analysed in this study focuses on the skills that became observable in the translation of the 13 ST chunks entailing an interlingual challenge and therefore an obligatory shift in translation. The set of skills specified in this study do not represent the complete set of skills needed in interlingual text production but only those that became observable in the data. However, the findings provide interesting insights into the ATC during BA studies, showing parallels as well as differences in comparison to earlier findings in studies into ATC and those studies into translation expertise that have brought out differences between novices and experts.

First of all, the initial assumption that students differ with regard to the level of TC at the beginning of their studies proved correct, as did the assumption that the differences are levelled at least to some extent by the end of BA studies. The 3rd year performances still suggested some differences in skills. In other words, students appeared to have different learning needs at the beginning in particular but also, to some extent, at a later stage of BA studies. To me, the fact that translating an apparently easy text still seems somewhat difficult for the students at the end of BA studies indicates the complexity of interlingual text production skills. They take a long time to develop and should be paid due attention throughout translator training, not only at the beginning. Reaching the advanced level of interlingual text production skills is a major step in ATC.

8.3.1 Stages in the ATC

The findings suggest some specific **stages** in the process of ATC. Not all students necessarily go through **all** the stages, or they are not observable in the performance. Nevertheless, **one identifiable initial stage is characterized by strong ST motivation evidenced as negative transfer in the TT.** At this stage, ST influence monitoring skills seem mostly lacking. The underlying reason for the apparent lack may be uncertainty about what translation is and what is allowed, i.e. one may think that ST structures must be followed closely, in which case there is no need to avoid ST influence. Alternatively, one's TL skills are insufficient to recognize negative transfer. If

the concept of **novice** in translation is defined on the basis of **performance** (rather than on the basis of translation experience, for example), this could be one characteristic feature of a novice translator. By this definition, not all beginning students in this study are novices but are past this initial stage, monitoring the TT at least for some types of ST influence from the beginning on.

Another identifiable stage in ATC seems to be that of **overdoing.** This stage is characterized by strong deviation from the ST, i.e. a **not ST-motivated strategy in interlingual text production**. At this stage, little attempt to benefit from the ST can be observed; no balancing takes place between the working languages. Another characteristic of this stage is the **(over)use of omission** resulting in the loss of information. It seems, then, that the growing understanding of translation as something else than a word-for-word transfer of the ST lexical items paves way to a more relaxed attitude towards TT–ST content relation, too. One of the students in my study showed the characteristics of this stage at the beginning of his BA studies, showing more balanced performance in the 3rd year with regard to the use of omission in particular. Two students seemed to be on this stage at the end of their BA studies.

The third identifiable stage in ATC on the basis of my data is the stage in which there is little or no negative transfer in the TT but the TT implies **insufficient TL text production skills**. At this stage, TT is monitored for ST influence but the TT violates the TL norms and rules nevertheless, pointing to insufficiency of some type of TL skill. One student is clearly at this stage at the end of BA studies, and one already at the beginning. Most students' performances imply that at the end of BA studies, monitoring TT for ST influence is no longer the problem, but inaccuracies in the TT stem more often from the inability to pay attention to the intricacies of the Finnish language in a translation situation.

Some stages can also be identified with regard to students' knowledge about translation in relation to their performance, and to their regulative knowledge. **There seems to be a point in ATC at which a student possesses a more sophisticated knowledge about translation than emerges as a skill.** In this study, almost all students seemed to consider translation as a communicative, not word-for-word procedure already at the beginning of training (although some seemed less consistent in their understanding); yet some students produced a translation that suggested otherwise. This discrepancy may have many explanations: students may know, in principle, what a translation situation requires and what is expected from them, but their knowledge base as a whole is not integrated enough to actually produce such a translation, i.e. they lack (some of the) interlingual text production skills. Alternatively, they may persist on their implicit understanding of translation that is based on their earlier experiences in translation for example in language classes, voicing pieces of statable knowledge they have learnt merely to please the teachers, although not believing in it themselves.

Concerning the knowledge of one's knowledge, four different stages, or patterns, could be identified. These can be described with four adjectives: **realistic, uncertain/ over-critical** and **over-confident**. As a rule, uncertain and over-critical go together. A comparison of each student's 1st and 3rd year performance show little change in his or her regulative knowledge in this study.

8.3.2 Pedagogical implications

Monitoring the TT for ST influence on various linguistic levels is obviously something the early training needs to focus on. On the basis of the findings of the present study I believe that learning translators would benefit from a language-pair-specific course on contrastive linguistics at the early stage of their training. The goal of such a course would be to raise students' awareness of how differences between languages influence the way a text can be built; to make them realise from early on the various ways the ST influences TT production, both negatively and positively. The course would not only open up the traditional instruction to 'avoid interference' in translation but also bring up the balancing aspect and the notion of positive transfer (Toury 1995).

The findings also show that advanced TL text production skills in one's native language is not a given. Courses in students' native language – Finnish in this case – are of vital importance for learners of translation. These courses can fill students' knowledge gaps in the rules and norms of Finnish. Moreover, and perhaps even more importantly, the courses expose students to different types of texts and language use. The wider experience learners have of the usage of Finnish in different contexts and situations, the better they can grasp the nuances of the language and develop their 'sense of language' that is not based on explicit rules. This aspect of interlingual text production skills has been acknowledged in Finnish translator training; students have compulsory courses in Finnish, at least for the time being. At the University of Eastern Finland, students are required to take a minimum of 15 credits of Finnish during their BA studies.

The concept 'sense of language' brings along the question of the extent to which translation can be taught and to what extent the skills needed for translation are acquired by other means than explicit teaching. This question relates to the nature of knowledge underlying TC. The role of education has traditionally been to provide declarative knowledge along with practice, as a result of which procedural knowledge can emerge. Seen through the lens of Bereiter, the role of translator education is to provide statable knowledge **which complements students' initial understanding** of the topic they are studying, possibly challenging it, possibly changing it partially or completely, possibly providing wider perspectives on it. Bereiter's knowledge typology entails that competence emerges as various types of knowledge complement each other, forming an effective blend.

Practical translation (and writing) exercises as a part of translator education are essential because they serve to build up students' knowledge base in three ways. The first way is what is traditionally referred to as proceduralization. Through exercises, students can learn how a piece of statable, or 'declarative', knowledge (for example a translation-related principle or norm) can be put into practice; statable knowledge emerges as a skill. Secondly, with each task, a student may also gain new pieces of statable knowledge about different translation strategies and different problem types. In addition to these knowledge gains, a student is likely to absorb more implicit kind of knowledge about language use and translation practices with each translation task, hence also enhancing her 'sense of language' and understanding of translation. The acquisition of such knowledge is most likely not acknowledged until in a new translation situation, when this knowledge comes in handy in problem-solving. Deliberate

practice, then, is likely to enhance both statable (explicit) and tacit, experience-based (implicit) student knowledge, in addition to reinforcing the actual skill of translation. Therefore, deliberate practice in training is of utmost importance, as is practice outside training. Moreover, students are likely to enhance the skills based on tacit knowledge of language use simply by being **attentive language-users, listeners and readers**.

Students at the University of Eastern Finland attend introductory and basic courses in Translation Studies throughout their BA studies, learning about different approaches to translation, translation strategies, problems, norms, target audiences, types of equivalence, importance of skopos, and the like; briefly, about matters that define the profession they are training for. On the basis of this study, students' initial understanding has indeed developed to be more consistently dynamic by the end of BA training (except for one student whose understanding had become more static on the basis of his answers to the knowledge questionnaires but not on the basis of his translation). It can be assumed that the **improvement in students' interlingual text production skills, ST influence monitoring skills in particular, can be (at least partly) contributed to the theoretical knowledge of translation they have received during training.** Once students' initial implicit understanding of the action has been complemented, restructured, or possibly strengthened, they are more knowledgeable about the nature of translation as interlingual text production involving a 'risk' of negative transfer, and are therefore more prepared to monitor the TT for ST influence. They know that the TT structure does not have to be identical to the ST structure, and are more courageous to deviate from the ST. Theoretical training, then, is of importance from the early stages of ATC.

This study also suggests that a stronger **process-orientation** in translator training might contribute positively to the ATC of students. Even though students' final TT chunks implied stronger interlingual text production skills by the 3rd year, the processes preceding the final TT chunks did not become any smoother or effective by the 3rd year, rather it became more complex almost without exception, showing little controlled evaluative monitoring and plenty of superfluous revision as a rule. Discussing and analysing processes in training allows both students and trainers a more thorough view of the TC level than the final product alone, and the reasons behind apparent skill insufficiencies could be identified more accurately. It might also open students' eyes to some behaviour patterns they are not aware of themselves, such as repetitive dictionary look-ups for the same lexical item or habitual revision for no obvious reason (cf. Kujamäki 2010), and invite them to ponder on reasons behind such behaviour. A process-oriented approach to translation can also make explicit the difference between translation **competence** and translation **expertise**: while both entail the skills to come up with an accurate TT, expertise also entails that an accurate solution is produced with less observable signs of hesitation and uncertainty as a result of strategic behaviour and effective problem-solving.

To my knowledge, process-oriented translation training utilizing, for example, screen recordings of translation processes is still in its infancy in Finland, but is practised to some extent elsewhere (see e.g. Angelone 2013a,b, Enríquez Raído 2013).

8.4 CRITICAL REFLECTION

Some variables and limitations in the study design may have had an impact on the results. First, screen recording as the data collection method was, to some extent, a limitation. When analysing the data for a link between observable behaviour and a skill, no information on the **reasons** behind students' solutions is available (apart from what can be gained from the auxiliary data); some types of inaccurate solutions may point to many skills. Categories of inaccuracy with observable ST influence are the case in point. **Theoretically**, those inaccuracies can be linked with the ST influence monitoring skills. However, for these skills to become observable on the product level, a student is to possess sufficient TL skills to recognize that the ST-influenced lexical item does not work in the TL. In other words, ST influence monitoring skill necessarily presupposes a certain level of TL skills. Which one of the skills is in fact insufficient, when a student produces ST-influenced TT chunks, cannot be established by analysing the screen recording data. The use of the think-aloud method alongside screen recording might be beneficial in this respect; students' thoughts while translating might reveal the types of problems they are dealing with and allow a link to be made to a specific skill.

The data collection method can also influence students' performance: Mia and Lee mentioned in their translation commentaries that they found screen recording software running in the background distractive and somewhat unnerving. The use of screen recording software also dictated that the translation was to be finished in one go (although the time was not limited), which was considered as a problem by some students. Paul, for example, said he would have liked to return to his translation later on for polishing. Hence, the deviation from the usual practice may have caused some extra anxiety in this situation, affecting the performance.

One factor that certainly influences the results is the external experts who read students' translations as Finnish texts, since the TT chunks were deemed accurate or inaccurate on the basis of their comments. It is quite possible that different experts have **different opinions especially regarding solutions that do not clearly break any explicit language rule or written norm**: what is regarded as accurate by one may be regarded as inaccurate by another. Evaluation is always partly based on the evaluator's intuitive (implicit?) understanding of the use of language in different communicative situations. This understanding is unlikely to be identical, since people are bound to have at least partially different experiences of language use, and as a result of that, they have possibly developed differing personal preferences on what is 'correct' and 'right' – even though they all are experts of Finnish. In the present study, to mitigate for personal preferences in the evaluation, two experts were to be of the opinion that the TT was inaccurate. It should nevertheless be acknowledged that evaluation of accuracy in translation is to some extent always subjective, and that the line between accuracy and inaccuracy is not set in stone. Partly differing opinions of experts in this study reflects the evaluation of translations in general. It is often difficult to pinpoint the rule and explain why a specific solution is not quite right; yet the intuition – which is presumably based on one's knowledge of pragmatics and language use and experience as a language user – insists on inaccuracy. Generally, teachers in

translator education can be considered as particularly harsh critics (cf. Jääskeläinen 2016, Suokas 2014).

Finally, it is to be noted that this study focused on thirteen ST chunks involving an obligatory shift when translated from English into Finnish. Hence, the performance profiles compiled for each student at the beginning and end of their BA studies do not provide a complete account of students' TC, but focus on their skills to deal with the interlingual challenges in these particular ST chunks. While these challenges assumedly represent the most typical interlingual text production challenges between English and Finnish, hence bringing out the basic skills needed in interlingual text production, there is bound to be types of interlingual challenges that do not emerge in the data, and consequently, types of interlingual text production skills that are not focused on in this study.

8.5 SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDIES

While this study outlined some basic skills that form the core of TC, more studies are needed to further explicitate the skills involved in interlingual text production, with regard to the skills needed for ST comprehension in particular. Such a study would ideally reveal students' learning needs with regard to SL skills; the aspects that were not focused on in this study due to the relatively easy ST. Moreover, the subskills needed for interlingual text production skills might turn out slightly different with different language pairs, especially with regard to ST influence monitoring skills. Balancing skill, in turn, could be examined further by looking at translation strategies when dealing with ST chunks which do **not** require a shift in translation. Deviating strongly also when no obligatory shift is required potentially points to purposeful avoidance of any ST-motivated TT production, which in turn may imply insufficient skill to balance between languages.

The model is open to further development and complementation of other elements as well: being situation-based, the model can be complemented with regard to any task-specific or contributory knowledge by creating different research settings with different translation situations. The data of the present study, for example, can be further exploited to outline some basic skills needed in information search, the use of electronic dictionaries in particular. A special-field ST can focus on specifying skills needed for information search or use of translation technology, for example. A series of studies with different situations and research settings could result in a comprehensive understanding of the scale of skills needed in complex translation situations.

Another natural continuation for the present study is looking at interlingual text production skills in situations where more task-specific skills are also needed for a translation that meets the requirements set by the situation. In such situations, STs are special-field texts with specialized terminology, fixed phrases and more implicit, field-specific conventions instead of non-specialized, standard language such as the STs of the present study. The questions to be asked could be: To which extent do task-specific requirements interfere with interlingual text production? Do terminology searches, for example, appear to be such a cognitive effort to the translators that no

resources are left to deal with interlingual challenges? Or the other way around; does the mastery of interlingual text production skills – as could be assumed – leave more cognitive resources to be used for other translation-related problem-solving, such as efficient information search and terminology work? Such a study could be conducted with the students from the late stages of their BA studies until the final stages of the MA degree, when more demanding texts are translated in the translation courses, and the focus of exercises shifts towards tasks that are more typical in working life. The hypothesis to be tested would be as follows: the stronger the interlingual text production skills, the more cognitive resources can be put into task-specific demands. On the performance level, this would hypothetically show as a linguistically appropriate TT (with a proportionally low amount of processing involved) and a proportionally bigger effort invested in information search and terminology work.

Further longitudinal studies into ATC are obviously needed. In a future study, I would like to focus on the development of two or three individuals more closely, by collecting more data from the beginning of BA studies through the end of MA studies, including process recordings and TAP data or cued retrospective interviews and/or questionnaires after the video recording session. In the cued retrospection, the video of a translator's own process is shown to the translator, and the translator is asked to verbalize what s/he sees her/himself doing in the video (see e.g. Massey and Ehrensberger-Dow 2011b). I would also like to carry out personal interviews with the students. Such data triangulation would provide a more profound empirical evidence of links between observable behaviour and skills. Naturally, such a study is time-consuming and involves a risk of dropouts, for which reason at the beginning a higher number of students should be recruited. The effort is worthwhile, since such an in-depth approach to ATC does not only yield valuable information for translator training, but also sheds light on the complex nature of translation, bringing forth the set of skills a translator needs.

The phenomena discussed in the present study in the context of acquisition in interlingual text production skills – such as monitoring and crosslinguistic influence – are points of interest also in neighbouring disciplines, studies into bilingualism and second language acquisition in particular. An interesting direction for further studies would be to look at the shared ground of these disciplines. For example, the question of how languages are kept apart in a bilingual brain has been studied from different perspectives in both bilingualism and SLA studies, and results gained may potentially yield interesting hypotheses and research questions for studies into the acquisition of interlingual (and intercultural) text production skills. Yet another, albeit ambitious object of study is to look at interlingual text production from a (neuro)cognitive perspective, as has been done in bilingualism research. Comparison of such studies would provide a deeper understanding of the potential differences between bilingual and interlingual processing. Furthermore, studies on implicit vs. explicit knowledge and implicit vs. explicit learning in the field of SLA seem to provide operational tools for translation studies to delve into the question to which extent translation is (explicitly) learnt and to which extent it is (implicitly) acquired.

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Appendices

APPENDIX 1. PERSONAL BACKGROUND QUESTIONNAIRE, BEGINNING OF BA STUDIES (AUTUMN 2010) (ORIGINALLY IN FINNISH, TRANSLATED BY ME.)

BACKGROUND INFORMATION

Name:
Year of birth:

1. Hobbies and interests:
2. Prior training/work experience related to languages, cultures and/or translation:
3. Language skills (mother tongue, foreign languages):
4. Matriculation examination grade A) in English? B) in Finnish?
5. How would you evaluate
   a) English skills (written and oral expression, knowledge of different genres and registers)?
   b) Finnish skills (written and oral expression, knowledge of different genres and registers)?
6. Have you spent periods of more than one month abroad? If yes, where and for how long?
7. What do you read? In which languages?
8. Which languages do you use in your daily life? In which contexts do you use other languages than your mother tongue?
9. Have you translated anything before? If yes, what have you translated?
10. Do you find yourself more of a translator or an interpreter type? Please justify.

APPENDIX 2. PERSONAL INFORMATION QUESTIONNAIRE, END OF BA STUDIES (AUTUMN 2012/SPRING 2013) (ORIGINALLY IN FINNISH, TRANSLATED BY ME.)

PERSONAL INFORMATION

Name:

1. Work experience related to translation, cultures and/or languages during BA studies (incl. voluntary work, e.g. fansubbing or other unpaid translation work):
2. What have you studied as minor subjects?
3. Have you spent periods of more than one month abroad? If yes, where and for how long?
4. How would you evaluate
   a) English skills (written and oral expression, knowledge of different genres and registers)?
   b) Finnish skills (written and oral expression, knowledge of different genres and registers)?
3. How would you evaluate yourself as a translator? What are your strengths and which aspects need further practising?

APPENDIX 3. OPEN QUESTIONS ON TRANSLATION. (ORIGINALLY IN FINNISH, TRANSLATED BY ME.)

VIEWS ON TRANSLATION

Name:

1. What is translation to you? Give a short definition.
2. Describe a typical translator (e.g. what and where translates)
3. What skills are needed for translating? What skill do you regard as the most important one?
4. Which of the following statements comes closest to your idea of translation:
   a) Translator translates words.
   b) Translator translates clauses/sentences.
   c) Translator translates meanings?

PLEASE JUSTIFY YOUR OPINION.

The answers given in this form are confidential.
THANK YOU FOR ANSWERING!

APPENDIX 4. CLOSED STATEMENTS ABOUT TRANSLATION. (ORIGINALLY IN FINNISH, TRANSLATED BY ME.)

Name: _____

What is your opinion of the following statements:
The linguistic structure and form of a translation should be as close to the original as possible.

1. AGREE ☐ PARTLY AGREE ☐ PARTLY DISAGREE ☐ DISAGREE ☐ CANNOT TELL ☐

2. A translator's most important tool is a bilingual dictionary.
   AGREE ☐ PARTLY AGREE ☐ PARTLY DISAGREE ☐ DISAGREE ☐ CANNOT TELL ☐

3. It is good to translate a text word-for-word, except for proverbs, idioms, fixed phrases or metaphors.
   AGREE ☐ PARTLY AGREE ☐ PARTLY DISAGREE ☐ DISAGREE ☐ CANNOT TELL ☐

4. A text cannot be translated without knowing the purpose of translation.
   AGREE ☐ PARTLY AGREE ☐ PARTLY DISAGREE ☐ DISAGREE ☐ CANNOT TELL ☐

5. A text can be translated in multiple ways, even for the same target reader and for the same purpose.
   AGREE ☐ PARTLY AGREE ☐ PARTLY DISAGREE ☐ DISAGREE ☐ CANNOT TELL ☐

6. Translation is a mechanical language change process by nature.
   AGREE ☐ PARTLY AGREE ☐ PARTLY DISAGREE ☐ DISAGREE ☐ CANNOT TELL ☐

APPENDIX 5. THE SOURCE TEXTS.

The 1st year ST:

The Shawshank Redemption

When Andy Dufresne's wife and her lover are found murdered, having been shot in bed, her husband (Robbins) is the prime suspect. This supposition swiftly becomes assumption, as it emerges that Andy had discovered the affair and the couple had a heated, alcohol-fuelled argument shortly before the murders took place. When circumstantial evidence is added to the obvious motive, the only possible outcome is conviction. And so, as Andy begins his life sentence in Shawshank Jail, the film begins in earnest.

The Shawshank Redemption examines issues such as hope, despair, friendships in times of adversity and the harsh realities of a life sentence. However, it is human resilience that is lingered on throughout the film and, for this to be fully explored, Andy is paired up with the reflective 'Red' (Freeman) who provides the voice-over to Andy's silent initiation and eventual apparent resignation to his situation. Andy is the archetypal example of just how much physical and mental torment human beings can endure and, like everyone else in prison, Andy learns to get by. His business background and obvious education elevates him to a certain status, as he takes on the role of accountant to the prison's staff. Despite this surface display of equality, it isn't long before Andy is reminded, in no uncertain terms, that he will always be a con, inferior to all but fellow cons, regardless of his brain. However, it is Andy who has the last laugh.

The Shawshank Redemption arrived quietly then escalated as word spread and people fell in love with this simple tale of human traits.

The 3rd year ST:

American Beauty

When a film begins with the voice-over of a middle-aged man telling us that in a year from now he'll be dead, we may suspect we are in for something different. This supposition becomes assumption as the story starts to unfold.

Lester Burnham (Spacey) is the quintessential middle-class white American male, trapped in a life that has leached him of all passion and zeal. Despite the outward display of prosperity, it isn't long before we are shown, as we delve beneath this surface, that all is not roses in the Burnham household, regardless of the great house and fancy lifestyle. The deterioration of his marriage into a campaign of snide comments and sarcasm and his daughter's ambivalence towards him add to Lester's depression. And so, when he catches the eye of his daughter's beautiful friend Angela (Sunari), his life starts changing in earnest.

Lester's midlife sexual obsession with Angela is more wake-up call than realistic chase, giving him the whiff of excitement he once experienced. Meanwhile, his

wife embarks on an affair with a sleazy real estate agent and his daughter becomes involved with the camcorder-obsessed boy, Ricky, across the road. Gradually, the apparently quiet neighbourhood is revealed in all its ugly nakedness.

Arriving on the scene in 1999, *American beauty* was the archetypal nineties film that examines themes such as non-conformity, beauty, and repressions in American suburbia, delving into characters' lives in an intrusive manner. The premise of the film is the search for Lester's murderer. However, it is the road that takes each character toward the motive that is the real issue of the movie. In the end, Lester provides voice-over to the retrospective on the events leading up to his death and to his eventual satisfaction with his situation.

Source: 501 Must-see Movies (Bounty Books)

APPENDIX 6. TRANSLATION COMMENTARY RELATED TO THE 1ST YEAR TRANSLATION. (ORIGINALLY IN FINNISH, TRANSLATED BY ME.)

The Shawshank Redemption

Name:_____

Choose one of the three options. You may specify your answer on the other side of the paper.

1. The source text was EASY/AVERAGE/DIFFICULT to understand.
2. The text was EASY/AVERAGE/DIFFICULT to translate.

Please answer the questions briefly:

3. Were there any points in the text that you stopped to think about while translating? If yes, please specify.
4. Did you use any translation aids? If yes, please specify. (You do not have to mention e-dictionaries if you used them during translation since they show in the Camtasia recording.)
5. Are you satisfied with your translation? Please justify.
6. Have you seen the movie **The Shawshank Redemption**?

APPENDIX 7. TRANSLATION COMMENTARY RELATED TO THE 3RD YEAR TRANSLATION. (ORIGINALLY IN FINNISH, TRANSLATED BY ME.)

THE AMERICAN BEAUTY

Choose one of the three options. You may specify your answer on the other side of the paper.

1. The source text was EASY/AVERAGE/DIFFICULT to understand.
2. The text was EASY/AVERAGE/DIFFICULT to translate.

Please answer the questions briefly:

3. Were there any points in the text that you stopped to think about while translating? If yes, please specify.
4. Are you satisfied with your translation? Please justify.
5. Have you seen the movie **The American Beauty?**

APPENDIX 8. STU'S PERFORMANCE PROFILES.

The first column identifies the TT chunk (1–13). The second column on the left shows whether there were any interim solutions prior to the final solution, and whether there was a difference in them with regard to accuracy. The third column indicates the category of content accuracy. If a cell in the third column is marked with **different shades of green**, the TT chunk in question is considered **accurate** both in content and as a TL expression. TT chunks that are **inaccurate** in content and/or as a TL expression appear on the three columns in the right-hand side. The different colours mark the different types of inaccuracy. In addition, the profile indicates the level of ST motivation in the process.

	INTERIM SOLUTIONS WITH REGARD TO CONTENT AND TL EXPRESSION ACCURACY	ACCURATE TT CONTENT RELATION + LEVEL OF ST MOTIVATION	INACCURATE TT + LEVEL OF ST MOTIVATION		
			CONTENT INACCURACY	TL EXPRESSION INACCURACY	TL EXPRESSION INACCURACY
				OBSERVABLE ST INFLUENCE	NO OBSERVABLE ST INFLUENCE
1	incomplete interim solutions	TT=ST		**structure** INCREASING ST MOTIVATION (STRUCTURE, ORDER, LEXIS)	**structure** **orthography**
2	similar interim solutions	TT=ST?		**ambiguity** INCREASING -> DECREASING -> INCREASING ST MOTIVATION (STRUCTURE, ORDER, LEXIS)	
3	similar interim solutions	**TT=ST** ST-MOTIVATED ALL ALONG (STRUCTURE, ORDER, LEXIS)			
4	similar interim solutions, **but does improve tt**	**TT=ST** NOT ST-MOTIVATED			
5	different interim solutions, none accurate	TT=ST		**style** INCREASING -> DECREASING -> INCREASING ST MOTIVATION (LEXIS)	
6	different interim solutions, none accurate	TT=ST			**structure** DECREASING->INCREASING-> DECREASING ST MOTIVATION (ORDER, LEXIS)

7	incomplete interim solutions	TT≠ST	content inaccurate	**ambiguity** DECREASING->INCREASING ST MOTIVATION (STRUCTURE, ORDER, LEXIS)	
8	-	TT=ST		**lexis** ST-MOTIVATED (STRUCTURE, ORDER, LEXIS)	
9	different interim solutions, PARTIAL OMISSION FIRST, none accurate	TT=ST		orthography **style** INCREASING ST MOTIVATION (STRUCTURE, LEXIS)	
10	-	TT=ST			**structure** ST-MOTIVATED ORDER
11	different interim solutions, **inaccurate -> accurate**	**TT=ST** INCREASING ST MOTIVATION (STRUCTURE, ORDER, LEXIS)			
12	similar interim solutions	TT=ST?		**ambiguity** ST-MOTIVATED ALL ALONG (STRUCTURE, ORDER, LEXIS)	
13	different interim solutions, none accurate	TT=ST?		ambiguity DECREASING ST MOTIVATION (ORDER, LEXIS)	**structure**

Stu's 1st year performance.

ST CHUNK	**INTERIM SOLUTIONS WITH REGARD TO CONTENT AND TL EXPRESSION ACCURACY**	**ACCURATE TT** CONTENT RELATION + LEVEL OF ST MOTIVATION	**INACCURATE TT + LEVEL OF ST MOTIVATION**		
			CONTENT INACCURACY	TL EXPRESSION INACCURACY **OBSERVABLE ST INFLUENCE**	TL EXPRESSION INACCURACY **NO OBSERVABLE ST INFLUENCE**
1	-	**TT=ST** ST-MOTIVATED (LEXIS)			
2	-	**TT=ST** ST-MOTIVATED (ORDER, LEXIS)			
3	-	**TT=ET REALITY**			**structure** NOT ST-MOTIVATED
4	different interim solutions, **none accurate**	TT=ST			**structure** ST MOT(LEXIS)-> ST-MOTIVATED (ORDER)
5	incomplete interim solutions	**TT=ST** DECREASING ST MOTIVATION (NONE)			
6	different interim solutions, none accurate	TT=ST			**lexis** INCREASING ST MOTIVATION (LEXIS, PARTLY STRUCTURE, ORDER)
7	-	**TT=ST** ST-MOTIVATED (ORDER)			
8	different interim solutions, none accurate	TT=ST		**structure** INCREASING -> DECREASING -> INCREASING ST MOTIVATION (STRUCTURE, ORDER, LEXIS)	
9	-	**TT=ST** NOT ST-MOTIVATED			
10	similar interim solutions	**TT=ST** MORE-> NOT ST-MOTIVATED			
11	different interim solutions, OMISSION in the process, **inaccurate-> accurate**	**TT=ST** INCREASING -> DECREASING -> INCREASING ST MOTIVATION (ORDER, LEXIS)			
12	similar interim solutions	TT=ET REALITY			**lexis** NOT ST-MOTIVATED ALL ALONG
13	different interim solutions, **none accurate**	TT=ST		**structure** ST-MOTIVATED ALL ALONG (LEXIS, STRUCTURE)	

Stu's 3rd year performance.

APPENDIX 9. LEE'S PERFORMANCE PROFILES.

ST CHUNK	**INTERIM SOLUTIONS WITH REGARD TO CONTENT AND TL EXPRESSION ACCURACY**	**ACCURATE TT** CONTENT RELATION + LEVEL OF ST MOTIVATION	**INACCURATE TT + LEVEL OF ST MOTIVATION**		
			CONTENT INACCURACY	**TL EXPRESSION INACCURACY** **OBSERVABLE ST INFLUENCE**	**TL EXPRESSION INACCURACY** **NO OBSERVABLE ST INFLUENCE**
1	-	**TT=ST** ST-MOTIVATED (LEXIS)			
2	similar interim solutions, **but improved TT**	**TT=ST** DECREASING ST MOTIVATION (NONE)			
3	different in-terim solutions, OMISSION FIRST	TT=ST			**lexis** INCREASING ST MOTIVATION (ORDER)
4	-	**TT=ST** NOT ST-MOTIVATED			
5	different interim solutions (one is against TL orthography), none accurate	TT=ST			**lexis** ST-MOTIVATED ALL ALONG (STRUCTURE, ORDER)
6	different interim solutions, **inac-curate ->accurate**	**TT=ST** NOT ST-MOTIVATED ALL ALONG			
7	-	TT≠ST	**content inac-curate**	**ambiguity** ST-MOTIVATED (STRUCTURE, LEXIS)	
8	different interim solutions, **inac-curate ->accurate**	**TT=ST, DESPITE OMISSION** DECREASING ST MOTIVATION (NONE)			
9	different interim solutions, **accurate -> inaccurate**	TT=ET reality			**structure** ST-MOTIVATED ALL ALONG (ORDER)
10	-	**TT=ST** NOT ST-MOTIVATED			
11	different interim solutions, none accurate	TT=ST			**style** ST-MOTIVATED ALL ALONG (LEXIS)
12	similar interim solutions	TT=ET REALITY		**lexis** ST-MOTIVATED ALL ALONG (LEXIS)	
13	-	**TT=ST** NOT ST-MOTIVATED			

Lee's 1st year performance.

ST CHUNK	**INTERIM SOLUTIONS WITH REGARD TO CONTENT AND TL EXPRESSION ACCURACY**	**ACCURATE TT** CONTENT RELATION + LEVEL OF ST MOTIVATION	**INACCURATE TT + LEVEL OF ST MOTIVATION**		
			CONTENT INACCURACY	TL EXPRESSION INACCURACY **OBSERVABLE ST INFLUENCE**	TL EXPRESSION INACCURACY **NO OBSERVABLE ST INFLUENCE**
1	similar interim solutions	**TT=ST** ST-MOTIVATED ALL ALONG (ORDER)			
2	similar interim solutions	**TT=ST** NOT ST-MOTIVATED ALL ALONG			
3	similar interim solutions	**TT=ST** NOT ST-MOTIVATED ALL ALONG			
4	similar interim solutions	**TT=ST** NOT ST-MOTIVATED ALL ALONG			
5	similar interim solutions	**TT<ST (less info)** INCREASING -> DECREASING ST MOTIVATION (NONE)			
6	interim solutions incomplete	**TT<ST (less info)** NOT ST-MOTIVATED ALL ALONG			
7	-	**TT=ST despite omission** NOT ST-MOTIVATED			
8	different interim solutions, **accurate -> inaccurate -> accurate**	**TT=ET reality** DECREASING ST MOTIVATION (NONE)			
9	different interim solutions, **none accurate**	**TT=ST**			**cotext** NOT ST-MOTIVATED ALL ALONG
10	different interim solutions, **inaccurate -> accurate (TL REV)**	**TT=ST** ST-MOTIVATED ALL ALONG (ORDER)			
11	different interim solutions, none accurate	TT≠ST	content inaccurate	**lexis** INCREASING ST MOTIVATION (ORDER, LEXIS)	
12	incomplete interim solutions	**TT=ST** INCREASING -> DECREASING ST MOTIVATION (NONE)			
13	incomplete interim solutions-> omission	**TT<ST (less info)** NOT ST-MOTIVATED ALL ALONG			

Lee's 3rd year performance.

APPENDIX 10. PAUL'S PERFORMANCE PROFILES.

ST CHUNK	**INTERIM SOLUTIONS WITH REGARD TO CONTENT AND TL EXPRESSION ACCURACY**	**ACCURATE TT** CONTENT RELATION + LEVEL OF ST MOTIVATION	**INACCURATE TT + LEVEL OF ST MOTIVATION**		
			CONTENT INACCURACY	TL EXPRESSION INACCURACY **OBSERVABLE ST INFLUENCE**	TL EXPRESSION INACCURACY **NO OBSERVABLE ST INFLUENCE**
1	different interim solutions, omission in the end	**TT < ST (less info)** INCREASING -> DECREASING ST MOTIVATION (NONE)			
2	similar interim solutions	TT=ST			**lexis** NOT ST-MOTIVATED ALL ALONG
3	different interim solutions, omission in the end	**TT < ST (less info)** DECREASING ST MOTIVATION (NONE)			
4	-	**TT=ST** NOT ST-MOTIVATED			
5	-	TT=ST			**lexis** NOT ST-MOTIVATED
6	-	TT=ST		cotext (pronoun reference) **style** ST-MOTIVATED (STRUCTURE, ORDER, LEXIS)	
7	-	**TT < ST (less info)** NOT ST-MOTIVATED			
8	-	TT=ST		**lexis** ST-MOTIVATED (STRUCTURE, ORDER, LEXIS)	
9	similar interim solutions	**TT=ST despite omission** NOT ST-MOTIVATED ALL ALONG			
10	-	**TT < ST (less info)** NOT ST-MOTIVATED			
11	different interim solutions, **inaccurate -> accurate (TL REV)**	**TT=ST** NOT ST-MOTIVATED ALL ALONG			
12	-	TT=ET REALITY			**lexis** ST-MOTIVATED (LEXIS)
13	-	**TT=ST** NOT ST-MOTIVATED			

Paul's 1st year performance.

ST CHUNK	**INTERIM SOLUTIONS WITH REGARD TO CONTENT AND TL EXPRESSION ACCURACY**	**ACCURATE TT** CONTENT RELATION + LEVEL OF ST MOTIVATION	**INACCURATE TT + LEVEL OF ST MOTIVATION**		
			CONTENT INACCURACY	TL EXPRESSION INACCURACY **OBSERVABLE ST INFLUENCE**	TL EXPRESSION INACCURACY **NO OBSERVABLE ST INFLUENCE**
1	-	**TT=ST** NOT ST-MOTIVATED			
2	-	TT=ST		**structure** ST-MOTIVATED (STRUCTURE, ORDER, LEXIS)	
3	-	**TT=ST** NOT ST-MOTIVATED			
4	similar interim solutions	TT=ET NOT ST-MOTIVATED ALL ALONG			
5	incomplete interim solutions	**TT<ST (less info)** (beginning) DECREASING ST MOTIVATION (NONE)			
6	different interim solutions**, omission first**	**TT=ST**		**cotext (pronoun reference)** INCREASING ST MOTIVATION (STRUCTURE, LEXIS)	
7	-	**TT=ST** NOT ST-MOTIVATED			
8	similar interim solutions	**TT=ST** DECREASING ST MOTIVATION (LEXIS)			
9	incomplete interim solutions	**TT=ST** DECREASING ST MOTIVATION (NONE)			
10	similar interim solutions	**TT=ST** INCREASING ST MOTIVATION (LEXIS)			
11	different interim solutions, **omission first**	**TT=ST** NOT ST-MOTIVATED ALL ALONG			
12	similar interim solutions (TL monitoring)	TT=ST			**lexis** NOT ST-MOTIVATED ALL ALONG
13	-	**TT=ST** ST-MOTIVATED (LEXIS)			

Paul's 3rd year performance.

APPENDIX 11. HARRY'S PERFORMANCE PROFILES.

ST CHUNK	TRANSLATION PROCESS	**ACCURATE TT** CONTENT RELATION + LEVEL OF ST MOTIVATION	**INACCURATE TT**		
			CONTENT INACCURACY	TL EXPRESSION INACCURACY **OBSERVABLE ST INFLUENCE**	TL EXPRESSION INACCURACY **NO OBSERVABLE ST INFLUENCE**
1	TL-related, different interim solutions	TT=ST		**structure** ST-MOTIVATED ALL ALONG (STRUCTURE, ORDER, LEXIS)	orthography
2	-	TT=ST?		**ambiguity** ST-MOTIVATED (STRUCTURE, ORDER, LEXIS)	
3	-	**TT=ST** ST-MOTIVATED (STRUCTURE, ORDER, LEXIS)			
4	-	TT≠ST	**false info** ST-MOTIVATED (STRUCTURE, ORDER, LEXIS)		
5	-	TT=ST?		**ambiguity** ST-MOTIVATED ORDER, LEXIS	
6	-	TT=ST		cotext (pronoun reference) ST-MOTIVATED (STRUCTURE, ORDER)	
7	-	TT≠ST	**false info**	**ambiguity** ST-MOTIVATED STRUCTURE, LEXIS	
8	-	TT=ST		**lexis** ST-MOTIVATED (STRUCTURE, ORDER, LEXIS)	
9	-	**TT =ST** NOT ST-MOTIVATED			
10	-	TT<ST (less info)			**style** NOT ST-MOTIVATED
11	-	TT=ST			**style** ST-MOTIVATED (LEXIS)
12	-	TT=ST			**lexis** ST-MOTIVATED (STRUCTURE, ORDER)
13		TT=ST		**lexis** ST-MOTIVATED (LEXIS)	

Harry's 1st year performance.

ST CHUNK	TRANSLATION PROCESS	**ACCURATE TT** CONTENT RELATION + LEVEL OF ST MOTIVATION	**INACCURATE TT**		
			CONTENT INACCURACY	TL EXPRESSION INACCURACY **OBSERVABLE ST INFLUENCE**	TL EXPRESSION INACCURACY **NO OBSERVABLE ST INFLUENCE**
1	different interim solutions, **inaccurate > accurate**	**TT=ST** ST MOT (structure, lexis)> ST MOT (ORDER, LEXIS)			
2	-	**TT=ST**		**structure** ST-MOTIVATED (LEXIS, STRUCTURE)	
3	-	**TT=ST** NOT ST-MOTIVATED			
4	-	**TT=ST** ST-MOTIVATED LEXIS			
5	-	**TT=ST**		**style** ST-MOTIVATED (STRUCTURE, ORDER)	
6	similar interim solutions	**TT=ST** ST-MOTIVATED ALL ALONG (LEXIS)			
7	-	**TT=ST** ST-MOTIVATED (ORDER)			
8	-	**TT=ST**		**structure** ST-MOTIVATED (STRUCTURE, ORDER, LEXIS)	
9	-	**TT=ST** ST-MOTIVATED (ORDER, LEXIS)			
10	similar interim solutions	TT=ST			**structure** ST-MOTIVATED ALL ALONG (STRUCTURE, ORDER, LEXIS)
11	-	**TT=ST**		**lexis** ST-MOTIVATED (LEXIS)	
12	incomplete interim solutions	**TT=ST**		**lexis** ST-MOTIVATED ALL ALONG (LEXIS, PARTLY STRUCTURE?)	
13	incomplete interim solution	**TT=ST?**		**ambiguity** ST-MOTIVATED ALL ALONG (STRUCTURE, ORDER, LEXIS)	

Harry's 3rd year performance.

APPENDIX 12. MIA'S PERFORMANCE PROFILES.

ST CHUNK	TRANSLATION PROCESS	**ACCURATE TT** CONTENT RELATION + LEVEL OF ST MOTIVATION	**INACCURATE TT**		
			CONTENT INACCURACY	TL EXPRESSION INACCURACY **OBSERVABLE ST INFLUENCE**	TL EXPRESSION INACCURACY **NO OBSERVABLE ST INFLUENCE**
1	-	TT=ST			**structure** ST-MOTIVATED (ORDER, LEXIS)
2	-	TT=ST?		ST-MOTIVATED (STRUCTURE, ORDER, LEXIS)	
3	-	TT=ST			**orthography** ST-MOTIVATED (STRUCTURE, ORDER, LEXIS)
4	-	TT=ST			**orthography** ST-MOTIVATED (ORDER)
5	similar interim solutions, **TL monitoring!**	**TT=ST** DECREASING ST MOTIVATION (NONE)			
6	different interim solutions, **none accurate**	TT=ST		**structure** ST-MOTIVATED ALL ALONG (STRUCTURE, ORDER)	
7	similar interim solutions	TT≠ST	**content inaccurate**	**ambiguity** ST-MOTIVATED ALL ALONG (STRUCTURE, ORDER, LEXIS)	
8	different interim solutions, **inaccurate > accurate**	**TT=ST** DECREASING ST MOTIVATION (ORDER)			
9	different interim solutions, **towards accurate**	TT=ST		**orthography** DECREASING ST MOTIVATION (STRUCTURE)	
10	similar interim solutions	**TT=ET reality** NOT ST-MOTIVATED ALL ALONG			
11	-	TT=ST		**structure** ST-MOTIVATED (STRUCTURE, ORDER, LEXIS)	
12	-	TT=ST?		**ambiguity** ST-MOTIVATED (STRUCTURE, ORDER, LEXIS)	
13	-	**TT=ST despite omission** NOT ST-MOTIVATED			

Mia's 1st year performance.

ST CHUNK	TRANSLATION PROCESS	**ACCURATE TT** CONTENT RELATION + LEVEL OF ST MOTIVATION	**INACCURATE TT**		
			CONTENT INACCURACY	TL EXPRESSION INACCURACY **OBSERVABLE ST INFLUENCE**	TL EXPRESSION INACCURACY **NO OBSERVABLE ST INFLUENCE**
1	-	**TT=ST**			**lexis** ST-MOTIVATED (ORDER, LEXIS)
2	incomplete interim solutions	TT=ST			**structure** ST MOT (STRUCTURE) > ST-MOTIVATED (LEXIS)
3	incomplete interim solutions	**TT=ST** NOT ST-MOTIVATED ALL ALONG			
4	different interim solutions, inaccurate > accurate?	TT=ST DECREASING ST MOTIVATION (NONE)			
5	different interim solutions (+many incomplete), **all accurate**	**TT<ST (less info)** DECREASING ST MOTIVATION (NONE)			
6	incomplete interim solution	TT=ET REALITY INCREASING ST MOTIVATION (STRUCTURE, LEXIS)			
7	-	**TT=ST** NOT ST-MOTIVATED			
8	incomplete interim solutions	**TT=ST** DECREASING ST MOTIVATION (LEXIS)			
9	similar interim solutions (+incomplete)	**TT=ST** DECREASING -> INCREASING ST MOTIVATION (ORDER, LEXIS)			
10	different interim solutions, **none accurate**	TT=ST			**lexis** INCREASING ST MOTIVATION (ORDER, LEXIS, STRUCTURE)
11	different interim solutions, **all accurate, omission**	**TT<ST (less info)** INCREASING -> DECREASING ST MOTIVATION (NONE)			
12	similar interim solutions	TT=ST		**lexis** ST-MOTIVATED ALL ALONG (LEXIS)	
13	similar interim solutions	TT=ST?		**ambiguity** ST-MOTIVATED ALL ALONG (ORDER; STRUCTURE, LEXIS PARTLY)	

Mia's 3rd year performance.

APPENDIX 13. IAN'S PERFORMANCE PROFILES.

ST CHUNK	TRANSLATION PROCESS	**ACCURATE TT** CONTENT RELATION + LEVEL OF ST MOTIVATION	**INACCURATE TT**		
			CONTENT INACCURACY	TL EXPRESSION INACCURACY **OBSERVABLE ST INFLUENCE**	TL EXPRESSION INACCURACY **NOT ST-MOTIVATED**
1	similar interim solutions	TT=ST		**structure** DECREASING ST MOTIVATION (STRUCTURE, LEXIS)	
2	-	TT=ST			**lexis** ST-MOTIVATED (STRUCTURE, ORDER)
3	-	TT=ST			**lexis** NOT ST-MOTIVATED
4	-	**TT=ST** NOT ST-MOTIVATED			
5	-	**TT=ST** NOT ST-MOTIVATED			
6	interim solutions incomplete	TT=ST			**lexis** DECREASING ST MOTIVATION (LEXIS)
7	different interim solutions, **none accurate**	TT≠ST	**content inaccurate**		**structure** ST-MOTIVATED ALL ALONG (ORDER, partly STRUCTURE)
8	different interim solutions, **inaccurate > accurate**	**TT=ST despite omission** DECREASING ST MOTIVATION (NONE)			
9	-	TT=ST		**style** ST-MOTIVATED (STRUCTURE, LEXIS)	
10	-	**TT=ST** NOT ST-MOTIVATED			
11	-	**TT=ST** NOT ST-MOTIVATED			
12	TL monitoring SIMILAR INTERIM SOLUTIONS	TT=ET REALITY		**lexis** ST-MOTIVATED (LEXIS)	
13	-	**TT=ST** NOT ST-MOTIVATED			

Ian's 1st year performance.

ST CHUNK	TRANSLATION PROCESS	**ACCURATE TT** CONTENT RELATION + LEVEL OF ST MOTIVATION	**INACCURATE TT**		
			CONTENT INACCURACY	TL EXPRESSION INACCURACY **OBSERVABLE ST INFLUENCE**	TL EXPRESSION INACCURACY **NO OBSERVABLE ST INFLUENCE**
1	different interim solutions, **inaccurate > accurate**	**TT=ST** DECREASING ST MOTIVATION (ORDER)			
2	different interim solutions, **accurate > inaccurate > accurate**	**TT=ST** DECREASING ST MOTIVATION (LEXIS)			
3	-	**TT=ST** NOT ST-MOTIVATED			
4	similar interim solutions	TT=ST			**lexis** NOT ST-MOTIVATED ALL ALONG
5	different interim solutions, **accurate > inaccurate**	TT=ST			**style** DECREASING ST MOTIVATION (NONE)
6	different interim solutions, **accurate > inaccurate**	TT=ST			**lexis** NOT ST-MOTIVATED ALL ALONG **structure**
7	TL monitoring, different interim solutions, **inaccurate > accurate**	**TT=ST** ST-MOTIVATED ALL ALONG (ORDER)			
8	different interim solutions, **inaccurate > accurate**	**TT=ST** INCREASING ST MOTIVATION (STRUCTURE, ORDER, LEXIS)			
9	different interim solutions, **inaccurate > accurate**	**TT=ST** NOT ST-MOTIVATED ALL ALONG			
10	incomplete interim solutions	**TT<ST (less info)** NOT ST-MOTIVATED ALL ALONG			
11	incomplete interim solutions	**TT<ST (less info)** DECREASING ST MOTIVATION (NONE)			
12	incomplete interim solutions	**TT<ST (less info)** DECREASING ST MOTIVATION (NONE)			
13	different interim solutions, **none accurate**	TT=ST			orthography DECREASING ST MOTIVATION (NONE) **lexis**

Ian's 3rd year performance.

APPENDIX 14. SAM'S PERFORMANCE PROFILES.

ST CHUNK	TRANSLATION PROCESS	**ACCURATE TT** CONTENT RELATION + LEVEL OF ST MOTIVATION	**INACCURATE TT**		
			CONTENT INACCURACY	TL EXPRESSION INACCURACY **OBSERVABLE ST INFLUENCE**	TL EXPRESSION INACCURACY **NO OBSERVABLE ST INFLUENCE**
1	-	**TT=ST** ST-MOTIVATED (ORDER, LEXIS)			
2	-	TT=ST?		**ambiguity** ST-MOTIVATED (STRUCTURE, ORDER, LEXIS)	
3	different interim solutions, OMISSION involved	**TT=ST** DECREASING -> INCREASING ST MOTIVATION (STRUCTURE, ORDER, LEXIS)			
4	different interim solutions, OMISSION involved	**TT=ST** NOT ST-MOTIVATED ALL ALONG			
5	similar interim solutions	TT=ST			**lexis** ST-MOTIVATED ALL ALONG (ORDER)
6	similar interim solutions (+many incomplete)	TT=ST		**cotext** INCREASING ST MOTIVATION (ORDER, LEXIS)	**lexis**
7	different interim solutions, **accurate > inaccurate > accurate**	**TT=ET reality** DECREASING ST MOTIVATION (NONE)			
8	similar interim solutions	TT=ST		**lexis** ST-MOTIVATED ALL ALONG (STRUCTURE, ORDER, LEXIS	
9	-	TT=ST despite omission		**orthography** ST-MOTIVATED (LEXIS)	
10	different interim solutions, **inaccurate > accurate > inaccurate**	TT=ST			**lexis** ST-MOTIVATED ALL ALONG (ORDER)
11	different interim solutions, OMISSION involved **inaccurate > accurate**	**TT=ST** DECREASING -> INCREASING ST MOTIVATION (ORDER)			
12	-	TT=ST?		**ambiguity** ST-MOTIVATED (STRUCTURE, ORDER, LEXIS)	
13	-	**TT=ST, despite omission** NOT ST-MOTIVATED			

Sam's 1st year performance.

ST CHUNK	TRANSLATION PROCESS	**ACCURATE TT** CONTENT RELATION + LEVEL OF ST MOTIVATION	**INACCURATE TT**		
			CONTENT INACCURACY	TL EXPRESSION INACCURACY **OBSERVABLE ST INFLUENCE**	TL EXPRESSION INACCURACY **NO OBSERVABLE ST INFLUENCE**
1	interim solutions incomplete	TT=ST		**lexis** ST-MOTIVATED ALL ALONG (ORDER, LEXIS)	
2	similar interim solutions	**TT=ST** DECREASING ST MOTIVATION (LEXIS)			
3	different interim solutions, **accurate > inaccurate > accurate**	**TT=ST** NOT ST-MOTIVATED ALL ALONG			
4	similar interim solutions	**TT=ST** INCREASING ST MOTIVATION (ORDER, LEXIS)			
5	similar interim solutions	**TT=ST** DECREASING ST MOTIVATION (ORDER)			
6	similar interim solutions	TT=ST			**lexis** ST-MOTIVATED ALL ALONG (PARTLY STRUCTURE), LEXIS)
7	different interim solutions **inaccurate > accurate**	**TT=ST DESPITE OMISSION** NOT ST-MOTIVATED ALL ALONG			
8	similar interim solutions	**TT=ST** ST-MOTIVATED ALL ALONG (STRUCTURE, LEXIS)			
9	similar interim solutions	**TT=ST** INCREASING > DECREASING> INCREASING> DECREASING > INCREASING (ORDER, LEXIS)			
10	different interim solutions (AS TO CONTENT RELATION), **accurate all long**	**TT=ST** NOT ST-MOTIVATED ALL ALONG			
11	similar interim solutions	TT=ST		**lexis** DECREASING (ORDER, LEXIS)	
12	incomplete interim solutions	TT=ST			**lexis** INCREASING ST MOTIVATION (ORDER)
13	different interim solutions, **none accurate (+lot of incomplete sol)**	TT=ET reality			**lexis** ST-MOTIVATED ALL ALONG (LEXIS)

Sam's 3rd year performance.

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