

Helsingin käännöstieteen tutkimus X
Translation Research X
Helsinki 2013

Current Trends in Translation Teaching and Learning
Volume 4
Editor: Mikel Garant

Department of Modern Languages
University of Helsinki
Helsinki 2013

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Preface

This is the fourth volume of *Current Trends in Translation Teaching and Learning*. The goal is to present a forum for publishing up-to-date articles focusing on translation education. Online collaboration between scholars interested in this theme makes the publication of such a volume possible.

This volume has been in the making for the past year and puts forward articles that focus on many of the current themes in teaching and learning translation. The first article in this volume by Lucía Aranda addresses teaching Spanish-English Translation at the University of Hawaii. Performance Criteria Descriptors for Cognitive Processing Skills Used in Sight Translation are dealt within the article by Brad Paez from RMIT University in Melbourne. The pejorative aspect of the English negative prefix non- is dealt with by Sari Mäittälä-Kauppila of the University of Helsinki . Stefanie Wimmer of the Autonomous University of Barcelona discusses an empirical study on risk reduction in training for specialized inverse translation.

After a double blind review process, selected papers from the conference were published in this volume. There is also a companion website located at: <http://www.ctl.org/index.html>. I would like to express my heartfelt thanks to the following individuals: the writers for submitting their contributions to a blind review process, because without their courage and effort an edited collection like this would not be possible; the members of the editorial review board for their thoughtful and timely reviews.

I would also like to thank Veera Henriksson and Jani Ruotsalainen from the University of Helsinki for their editorial assistance, Heidi Routu from Aalto University for speed reviews, the University of Helsinki Department of Modern Languages English Section for a bonus-fund grant and Pertti Hietaranta from the University of Helsinki for securing additional funding for publication. I hope the readers will find reading Current Trends in Translation Teaching and Learning Volume 4 both interesting and rewarding.

Mikel Garant
February 14, 2013

TEACHING SPANISH-ENGLISH TRANSLATION IN HAWAII

Lucía Aranda
University of Hawaii

Abstract

Translation has had a growing academic presence in the last few years. In part its interdisciplinary nature and more specifically the intersection of language and power in cultural studies have been greatly to blame. In the foreign language classroom, as the presence of the L1 is being reassessed, so is the role of translation. And, last but not least, the need for translation in an increasingly globalized and market-driven world has helped draw attention to it. This paper draws on the translation courses in the Spanish Division at the University of Hawaii to explore how translation is able to articulate this growing presence and maneuver between the classroom and the real world.

1 Introduction

I distinctly remember an aunt who I didn't really know exclaiming "*Dime algo en inglés*" ("Say something in English") and the sentence I came up with (and which I would use for many years when others asked me the same thing): "What do you want me to

say?” Of course, I ended up having to translate that for her (*¿Qué quieres que te diga?*) but I confess that for a split second I wondered if I could fudge it a little and say something different such as “I like your hairdo.” Maybe I’d sound more polite! But like any other bilingual I had been translating all my young life between cultures (the US and Spain), rules, my languages and accepting this process as a given. The bilingual space wasn’t a lonely one: there were many people who, like me, wobbled between monolingual worlds. Wasn’t a double life the norm? I am perfectly aware of the fact that not everyone who is bilingual ends up getting a job in which their languages take center stage; however, I did, and I have been negotiating my worlds for my students and myself for a while now, mainly through translation.

Translation has had a growing academic presence in the last years. In part its interdisciplinary nature and more specifically the intersection of language and power in cultural studies has been greatly to blame. In the foreign language classroom, as the presence of the L1 is being reassessed, so is the role of translation. And, last but not least, the need for translation in an increasingly globalized and market-driven world has helped draw attention to it.

2 Translation in language teaching

Translation reigned unopposed as the methodology for language learning until its influence waned at the end of the 19th century when the cutting-edge research of the moment rejected its emphasis on reading and writing. The first detractors were part of the Reform Movement led by linguists such as Viëtor in Germany, Sweet in the UK, Jespersen in Denmark, and Passy in France who turned on what came to be called the Grammar Translation Method (GMT). The Reform Movement was founded on “the

primacy of speech, the centrality of the connected text as the kernel of the teaching-learning process, and the absolute priority of an oral classroom methodology” (Howatt 2004, p. 189). The Berlitz language schools established in 1878 were based on this premise; in fact, the Berlitz Method focused on the spoken language, used only native teachers and rejected translation. According to its website, the Berlitz Method looks to “simulate” real-life situations” and “eliminate the cumbersome process of introducing a concept first in the student’s language and then in the target language.” Although the Grammar Translation Method was spurned, language teaching continued to focus on form. By the 1970s the Direct Method had given way to the Natural Approach and Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), which focused on “authentic” and “meaningful” language and today, while Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) is centered on the notion of “real-world” activities or tasks which “learners are able to *do* with the language” (Norris 2009, p. 578), “nowhere in the TBLT literature do we encounter an act of translation presented as a task” (Cook 2010, p. 30).

Sidelined for being teacher-centered, rule-oriented, with an exclusive focus on form, translation was suddenly so maligned that it merited very little research. The assumption was that translation or the use of the L1 promoted interference or negative transfer, which in turn hindered second language acquisition (Cook 2010, p. 35/88). As Chaudron (1990, p. 8) explains “The general source of form-focused instructional theory in Second Language Acquisition are psycholinguistic theories grounded in the notion that learners’ internal representations of the target language are influenced by and develop in specific ways from their perception of the input.” Only in a monolingual classroom environment could students be efficient learners.

Translation in the foreign language (FL) classroom became an academic “blind spot,” generally ignored or referred to only as a historical phenomenon (Cook 2010 pp. 20-21). Although there seem to be no actual studies supporting the claim, the consensus was that translation and the use of the learners’ L1 could result in either interference or long-term error fossilization (Cook 2010, p. 92). Atkinson (1987) blames: “The association of translation with the grammar/translation method, which is even today often treated either as a joke (‘Remember how we learned languages at school?’) or as the whipping boy of EFL.” Atkinson, a proponent of a restricted and judicious use of translation in the FL classroom, continues on the consequences of translation being thus rejected by the field: “But I feel that the worst excesses of the direct method in its 1960s form should serve as a reminder that its total rejection of translation and all that it implied was clearly a case in which the baby was indeed thrown out with the bathwater.”

3 Translation in the curriculum

The baby was not thrown out in Europe and other parts of the world (e.g. Korea, Russia, Japan or China) where translation has continued to be part of the curriculum. While many decried the use of the Grammar Translation Method as resulting “in very low amounts of acquired competence” (Krashen 1982/2009), the preponderance of lexical acquisition through translation has hardly been disputed; others consider it a valid learning tool which promotes accuracy, clarity, and flexibility in language acquisition (Duff 1989, p. 7). Cordero (1984, p. 350) extols its usefulness for comprehension and accuracy, and in Anderman’s 1998 survey (in Stoitchkov 2006) of 21 universities in the UK, 19 made use of translation to improve FL proficiency.

Translation's abysmal reputation stems largely from its overuse and inefficiency in the classroom (Stoitchkov 2006) but as the presence of the L1 in the classroom is reassessed and the market value of translation is reevaluated, the realization that translation is an authentic, real-world activity is gaining ground. Translation, a process in which learning was "overemphasized" (Krashen 1982/2009), does in fact require a very "dynamic process of communication" (Hatim & Mason 1990, p. 520); and, all in all, attitudes towards translation in second language acquisition studies are changing. One example can be found at the University of Hawaii, where there are now two translation courses in the Spanish Division: Introduction to Spanish-English Translation and the more advanced Spanish-English Translation course.

As is customary in many tertiary institutions, Spanish at the University of Hawaii covers many areas: from the introductory courses to those necessary for a minor or certificate, a BA or an MA degree and besides the popular first- and second-year language classes (Spanish is the second most popular foreign language at the University of Hawaii at Manoa; Japanese is the first), the usual literature, linguistics, film, and translation courses are offered at UH. Spanish is taught in a communicative fashion where instructors tend towards tasks, real-world activities, authentic material as much as possible, and content classes are taught entirely in Spanish. How do the translation courses fit into this academic context, which strives for meaningful communication?

4 The learner

Two considerations have to be taken into account in translation teaching: one has to do with the learning objectives and the other with the learner. Insofar as the learning objectives are concerned,

scholars such as Leonardi (2010) have called for a formal distinction to be drawn between pedagogical translation, i.e. using translation as a learning tool in the FL classroom, and translation pedagogy, i.e. where translation is the focus and is taught as a skill. However, the divide might not be as clear as some make it out to be given that both frequently overlap and occur simultaneously, especially at the intermediate levels.

Another element to consider is the proficiency of the learner. There are a number of educators who believe that language learners at the beginner levels benefit from translation; for example, Kavaliauskienė & Kaminskiene (2007, p. 132) suggest that translation is a de-stresser in the learning process of the beginner and Husain (1995) that while translation has a positive effect on the lower and intermediate learner, this is not necessarily the case with higher level students. And still, one must contend with the variety of learning styles of students. Even Krashen, one of the most prominent promoters of monolingual classrooms considers Grammar Translation to be a “slightly more efficient” method for adults because of the deductive learning process involved (Krashen 1982/2009).

Students’ opinions on the value of translation are just as varied as those of their educators. In one study on the perceptions of university students in Taiwan, the more advanced students shied from translation believing there would be a negative transfer (a process that is much more complex than was once believed, Benson 2002 in Kavaliauskienė & Kaminskiene 2007), while the less proficient students believed their learning would be more effective through translation (Liao 2006).

While SLA “ignores the possibility of translation as a communicative activity” (Cook 2010, p. 90), outside of SLA there are many views of its usefulness. According to Mahmoud (2006),

L2 acquisition advances through translation because of its use of authentic materials, its interactive nature, the fact that it is learner-centered, and that it promotes learner autonomy. As translation reveals problems, it takes on a facilitative role (Liao 2006, p. 209) and can incidentally reflect on details. A great many studies reassessing the use of the L1 in the classroom have focused on translation as L1 in vocabulary acquisition (e.g. Hentschel 2009) or grammar clarification and its implementation through translation (Husain 1995).

5 The University of Hawaii

At the University of Hawaii, the two Spanish-English translation courses cross between using translation to teach and teaching translation, each partaking of the other. Spanish-English Translation had not been taught for almost two decades when it was revamped for advanced and advanced-intermediate level students more than 12 years ago. Its success among students lead the Spanish Division to create an introductory course, Introduction to Spanish-English Translation, directed at the intermediate level. Both courses target a different set of objectives and learning outcomes: the introductory course is 60% pedagogical translation; i.e. translation is used primarily as a learning tool for language proficiency and sensibility, and 40% is translation pedagogy, translation skills being the longer term goal. The more advanced course strives to the contrary: in the translation pedagogy course, translating skills and expertise are the goal, theories are introduced and language proficiency, though essential, should almost be a given. The intellectual progression is reflected as well in the amount of theoretical matter that is introduced as translation expertise is honed.

I believe that a large part of the success of the translation classes at UH has to do with the fact that, although teaching is in the FL, equal attention is given to translations in Spanish and in English. Not only does this allow for a contrastive analysis of grammars, registers, mechanics, styles, pragmatic conventions but of cultural aspects of both worlds as well. While it is my impression that the inevitable use of English in the Spanish-English translation classes at UH is not detrimental to students' Spanish language progression, a study on this subject would shed light on an essential component of translation teaching. Insofar as translation class time is concerned, the discussions lead to student-centered a learning environment in which peer-work is integral to class time. Discussions lead to noticing and a focus on form, which as Cook (2010, p. 89) explains, are cornerstones of current SLA methodologies.

The fact that there is no one single correct version of a translation not only removes the emphasis on the correct/incorrect dichotomy and a non-threatening environment as the stress of proving oneself dissipates. According to what I have observed, if translation is presented as a process of learner independence and autonomy, where students can explore their creativity, language skills and self-esteem flourish.

Today's translation classes have nothing to do with the ones that discredited the Grammar Translation Method. The materials used in today's classrooms are real-world, authentic, varied texts and motivation is high as students complete whole products and not texts in isolation. The ties with the community, which create opportunities to work on real-world class projects such as translating museum pamphlets, outreach children's books or language teaching videos, enrich the learning experience and make it meaningful.

6 Conclusions

It seems somehow inevitable that translation should lose its reigning position in language teaching given that its execution was once so utterly uncommunicative. Today, however, as a reassessment of the use of the L1 in the language classroom is underway so is translation. I have used the two Spanish-English translation courses of the Spanish Division at the University of Hawaii as a site to examine the methodological applications of translation in a language program. I have tried to show that if translation is taught in a communicative, student-centered fashion (in the target language, with authentic materials) it can not only prepare students to be “internationally engaged” (as the University of Hawaii mission statement calls for) but enhance their language proficiency in an autonomous, creative, non-threatening manner. The interdisciplinary nature of translation positions its students to navigate layers of language and prepares them for a globalized world.

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PERFORMANCE CRITERIA DESCRIPTORS FOR COGNITIVE PROCESSING SKILLS USED IN SIGHT TRANSLATING

Brad Paez
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Abstract

Traditionally, sight translation has been conceived as a three stage process: visual reception of written text, cognitive processing of a message, then finally the production of speech carrying the message into a target language.

This article argues that these three stages demand high levels of cognitive processing capability, including well trained memory, and well controlled linear eye scanning of the written text, with an ability to co-ordinate these processes to optimise communicative effectiveness. The cognitive processing required for sight translation competence is not clearly explained in the Australian Public Service Training Package Specialist Units of Competency for Translating and Interpreting. Therefore, this paper suggests ways to improve the clarity of assessment criteria by improving details of required skills and knowledge to be able to effectively sight translate the source text into the target language.

1 COMPETENCY BASED TRAINING IN THE AUSTRALIAN CONTEXT

In Australia sight translation is considered as a distinct mode of interpreting, and candidates undertaking the Professional Interpreter examination administered by the National Accreditation Authority for Translators and Interpreters (NAATI) are required to undergo sight translation testing as part of the Professional Interpreter examination.

The elements of competency required for sight translating are codified under the Australian Public Sector Training Package (PSTP). The sight translate competency (code PSTPTIS613A) includes three elements: firstly, analyse text; secondly, translate source text into target language; and, thirdly, evaluate sight translation. Information in Table 1 below includes the performance criteria for the second element “translate source text into target language”. The training package is designed to provide teachers and assessors with descriptors to use when deciding whether or not an interpreter or trainee interpreter has an adequate ability to perform sight translation. Many complex cognitive coordination skills are involved in the verbal delivery of sight translation, but there are few descriptors in the training package to describe these cognitive processing skills, so this paper will focus on the performance criteria associated with the performance of the verbal production, which demands highly skilled coordination of cognitive processing, under element 2 of the competency PSPTIS613A in Table 1 below.

The PSTP Specialist Units of Competency for Translating and Interpreting (Government Skills Australia 2010, pp.1313-1450) are now used by all registered training organisations (RTOs) in Australia when designing and delivering training to students of interpreting and translating. The competencies have been endorsed by the interpreting and translating industry, and must be delivered under strict guidelines as part of licensing requirements for RTOs (refer to Condition Nine of the Essential Conditions and Standards for Initial Registration [2012]).

PSPTIS613A	Sight translate (LOTE)
ELEMENT	PERFORMANCE CRITERIA
<p>2. Translate source text into target language.</p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li data-bbox="507 247 907 406">1. Plan sight translation, marking up text where appropriate and solving translation problems. <li data-bbox="507 446 907 646">2. Transfer semantic segments of source text to target language in an accurate and coherent manner. <li data-bbox="507 686 907 933">3. Scan text ahead while translating, avoiding rephrasing and ensuring delivery is consistent and appropriate for setting and mode of interpreting.

Table 1: Competency “sight translate” (Australian Public Service Training Package)

©Commonwealth of Australia 2009, Public Service Training Package Version 4 (Government Skills Australia, 2010)

2 METHODOLOGY OF DATA COLLECTION

Data used in this article was sourced through international web searching using Google Scholar and Google search engines. Searches on Google Scholar were linked to the National Library of

Australia database and searching focused on combinations of “sight translation” collocated with the word “cognition” and its various forms, searching for publications from 1985 until early 2011.

This search accessed a range of original writings researching cognitive aspects of sight translating, as well as a range of linguistics journals with related articles written by reputable interpreting practitioners, linguists and academics.

References provided in these research papers and journals were also checked to find publications on topics related to cognitive functioning during sight translating. Wherever possible, primary sources were consulted and checked. A substantial weight of research was published in English (either originally written in English or translated into English). However, due to the author’s limited resources, research publications available only in languages other than English could not be accessed.

While scanning references the author particularly focussed on research published by education institutions training interpreters, such as the Copenhagen Business School, because these institutions generally provided a high proportion of primary sources specifically focussing on research into interpreters’ and translators’ cognitive performance while sight translating.

3 THE LITERATURE ON COGNITIVE PROCESSING OF SIGHT TRANSLATION

One of the earliest guide books to interpreter training, written by Jean Herbert, asserted that sight translation is a form of simultaneous interpreting (1952). However, little research was

conducted about sight translation until the early 1980's when Gile introduced a cognitive-psychological approach to academic studies of translation. By the early 1990's the Trieste University began to research interpreting performance from a text linguistic neuropsychological perspective (Pöchhacker 2004, pp. 30-39). Viezzi's seminal research at Trieste in 1989 argued that sight translation performance of novice interpreters is often worse than their performance in other modes of interpreting. Researchers were advised to control for experienced and inexperienced interpreters when gathering empirical data during research into sight translation (Viezzi 1989, pp. 65-69).

In 1996 Sylvie Lambert argued that sight translation practice speeds up interpreters' ability to transmit messages and she suggested that sight translation be taught early in interpreter training programs as preparation for students' introduction to consecutive interpreting (Ilg and Lambert 1996, p.73).

In 2004 Marjorie Agrifoglio (2004, p. 49) used Gile's Effort Model (1997) in an attempt to determine the specific cognitive skills required for sight translating. Agrifoglio classified the causes of errors observed in sight translation production and explored sight translating performance by conducting an experiment on a group of very experienced interpreters. She concluded that analysing the written text before commencing sight translating improves accuracy of the sight translation:

...the sight translators have to rely on short-term memory to retrieve information from the beginning of sentences, or the formulation they have already embarked upon, especially where grammatical structures differ markedly between the two languages. In this regard, one of the most effective coping tactics would be to mark the key

elements and segment units during the preparation phase, if interpreters are allowed to read the text prior to sight translating.

(Agrifoglio 2004, p. 61).

In 2004 Lambert conducted a study of 14 students. She attempted to link her empirical research of sight translating to pedagogical practice (2004, pp. 301-304). Lambert's work was criticised by Aleksandra Biela-Wolonciej. Biela-Wolonciej challenged the validity of the interpretation of empirical data that Lambert used to support the claim that greater visual stimulus was directly correlated to improved sight translation performance. Biela-Wolonciej (2007, p. 34) observed that:

...the research focussed rather on performance, not on the complexity of the cognitive processes. Moreover, it seems that the speakers' performance might have been enhanced by the additional preparation time, not the visual stimulus alone.

In 2007 Biela-Wolonciej released a theoretical study to define the characteristics of sight translation. Biela-Wolonciej analysed specific features of sight translation by comparing the skills of sight translation with skills required by both simultaneous interpreting and written translation.

In contrast to Lambert's 2004 study, which suggested that different channels of modality used in sight translation required *less* cognitive effort compared with simultaneous interpreting without written text, Biela-Wolonciej believed that claims about the amount of effort should be subjected to more research:

...sight translation uses a different channel of modality at the perception level...and thus seems to require more mental effort (or at least more cognitive mechanisms involved) than simultaneous interpreting or written translation. Nevertheless, this intuitive hypothesis has so far not been confirmed by empirical research.

(Biela Wolonciej 2007, p. 34).

Further research was conducted in China by Hongyu, who completed a doctoral dissertation examining the relationship between sight translation and both consecutive and simultaneous interpreting. Hongyu provided empirical evidence to propose changes to Gile's Effort Model formula for sight translating. The *amount* of effort depends on the efficacy of the *Coordination effort*. Hongyu's research commented on the formula:

ST (sight translation) = Reading + Memory + Coordination + Production, as compared with Gile's original model, ST = Reading + Production. The enriched model better illustrates the guiding principle behind the simultaneity of reading and speaking, that is, segmenting the sentence and coordinating the bits of message in time of movement.

(Hongyu 2005, p. 89)

4 ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

The literature classifies sight translation under four main categories. Both Hongyu (2005, p.4) and Sampaio (2007, p.65) have suggested the following categories for analysing sight translation:

- 1) sight translation, without any prior reading of the text;
- 2) *prepared sight translation*, that is, sight translation where time is allowed for interpreters to resolve linguistic problems prior to the delivery of the verbal translation. (In Australia NAATI examinations apply this model);
- 3) *consecutive sight translation*. This is consecutive interpreting of a speech by referring to a previously prepared written text, normally in a formal speech context. Instead of making notes while listening, the interpreter uses the prepared written speech to assist interpreting, remaining alert for any unexpected spontaneous changes by the speaker; and
- 4) *sight translation in simultaneous interpretation with text*, also commonly referred to as *sight interpretation* or *documented simultaneous interpretation*. In this mode the interpreter is aided by a written text of a speech. Usually the text is generated simultaneously through voice recognition technology, appearing as a continuously scrolling text on a computer screen. This technology may also be adapted to subtitling purposes in multilingual contexts, such as the European Union. However, currently this technology is not widely used in Australian interpreting contexts.

The following examination of the competency element “translate source text into target language” is based on sight translation categories 1 and 2 above as commonly experienced in the Australian context.

4.1 Competency PSTPTIS613A (sight translate)

Element: Translate source text into target language

4.1.1 Performance criterion: plan sight translation, marking up text where appropriate and solving translation problems

The essential skill involved here is the ability to effectively use symbols to mark up a text during preparation time before delivering the sight translation. Symbols help to prompt memory recall and avoid the distraction of reading full words or sentences while delivering the translation (Hongyu 2005, p. 44-45). Interpreters need to be able to mark the written text to indicate specific techniques, such as inserting short pauses in long complex sentences and noting discourse markers, to improve cohesion for the listeners of the target language. This skill assumes that interpreters have a high level of literacy in both source and target languages to be able to identify the prosodic and linguistic features that need to be marked up on the written text.

4.1.2 Performance criterion: transfer semantic segments of source text to target language in an accurate and coherent manner.

Hongyu explains that maintaining syntactical linearity is keeping the target language text in the same sequence as the source text. Hongyu provides the following checklist to assist in the application of this principle:

1. Make no movements to syntactical order unless it is necessary.
2. Postpone movements as long as possible.
3. Reduce syntactical movements as much as possible.
4. Reduce the number of movements within a sentence as much as possible.
5. Shorten the distance of any single referent as much as possible.

(Hongyu 2005, p.56)

This principle provides a way to minimise the overall effort required to produce a sight translation. It assumes that the sight translator is able to quickly identify key units of translation in the source text, then cohesively and coherently reproduce the message in the target language, keeping changes to a sequence at an absolute minimum.

However, syntactical restructuring *may* be required due to unavoidable grammatical differences between languages, but it should be avoided if possible.

The proficient experienced interpreter is expected to find the balance required between syntactical linearity and interpreting using the Interpretive Model originally created by Danica Seleskovitch and Marianne Lederer. According to Munday (2008, p. 63) the model consists of three stages:

- reading the text and understanding its implicit meaning and overall intent;
- deverbalisation, or getting the sense of the meaning and understanding the concepts; and
- re-expression, or, providing an acceptably accurate interpretation that maintains the meaning of the overall message rather than finding precisely equivalent words in the target sight translation.

The ideal process is to first attempt to keep the semantic meaning (implying that the target text keeps collocations and fixed elements with source text syntactical linearity), while still ensuring coherence and acceptable levels of cohesion in the target language (applying the Interpretive Model if necessary). The interpreter's memory needs to be developed to a very high capacity to cope with the demands of this advanced level of finely balanced performance. Therefore, memory skill training is an important part of professional development training for interpreters. Hongyu noted the important function of memory in his revision of Gile's Effort Model applying to sight translation:

In order to achieve fluency and acceptability, sight translators have to memorise some linguistic constituents until a meaning unit completes and then co-ordinate the meaning units skilfully....

ST = Reading + Memory + Coordination + Reproduction

(Hongyu 2005, p. Iv).

According to the research of Timarova (2008, sections 1 & 2) the ability to maintain syntactical linearity is dependent on effective Coordination effort to integrate the Memory and Reading efforts.

If all the other efforts are subjected to a strong central Coordination effort, then there is greater capacity for long term memory to retrieve old information and supply it spontaneously to the interpreter during a sight translation performance.

4.1.3 Performance criterion: scan text ahead whilst translating, avoiding rephrasing and ensuring delivery is consistent and appropriate for setting and mode of interpreting.

The range statement for the competency “sight translate”, which is detailed in Government Skills Australia’s Public Service Training Package (p. 1449), states that “appropriate delivery may relate to a number of factors, specific to particular settings”. For example, sight translating at a conference will be produced in a certain style, and this style will be different from the style used when sight translating by telephone. Performance of sight translating may be adjusted for coherence, register, speed, timeliness, tone, volume and voice projection.

Regardless of the setting, the technique of “scanning text ahead whilst translating” remains the same. This process is not explained anywhere in the details of the performance criteria, range statement or evidence guide for the sight translate competency PSTPTIS613A (Government Skills Australia 2010).

Dragsted and Hansen (2007, 2009) investigated the practice of scanning ahead during sight translating. They set up an experiment with experienced translators (practitioners who worked mainly as translators) and compared their performance with a group of experienced interpreters (practitioners who worked

primarily as interpreters). The experiment used eye tracking, keystroke logging and video monitoring to collect data. The sight translations were performed in Danish and English. (See Dragsted and Hansen 2007, pp. 257-270 for full description of the methods, experiments and data analysis).

The researchers found that the translators increased Reading effort by going back and forward, creating an iterative pattern, believing this improved accuracy of the sight translation. Unfortunately, this repetitive pattern of eye movement resulted in a large amount of energy being devoted by the translators to re-reading the text. This greatly increased stress on the Memory effort because the Reading effort was too demanding and the Coordination effort did not effectively integrate concurrent cognitive processes, resulting in slower and more disjointed delivery of sight translation.

The following observations from a hotspot analysis compare interpreters' behaviour compared with the behaviour of the translators.

- Data from the interpreters' performances indicated they focussed their eyes only on the paragraph they were currently translating. Their eye focus did not wander over the computer screen.
- The translators in the experiment scanned various areas of the source text on the screen.
- The number of fixations on individual words in the source document was less for the interpreters than for the translators. Interpreters followed a more consistent linear reading pattern than the translators.

(Dragsted and Hansen 2007, pp. 266 & 271).

Scanning skills were also measured by both the time duration of pauses, and the number of words spoken between pauses recorded during sight translating. A comparison between the interpreters and translators showed that:

- While sight translating interpreters averaged speaking 297 words between each pause of two seconds or more, compared to only 11 words on average for translators.
- Sight translating translators made numerous pauses of two seconds or longer (in one case 132 pauses) whereas the interpreters made very few pauses of two seconds or more.
- Individual interpreters sight translated at a rate ranging from 133 to 147 words per minute compared to individual translators, who sight translated at a rate ranging from 35 to 79 words per minute.
- The accuracy of information expressed in the sight translation was almost the same for both the interpreters and translators. Furthermore, the panel of experienced assessors rated the overall quality of the interpreters' sight translations slightly higher than the quality of translators' sight translations.

(Dragsted and Hansen 2007, pp. 261-262, and 267-269).

Although the experiment will need to be replicated using larger samples involving a variety of language pairs before the conclusions are validated, the study suggests that interpreters perform sight translation differently from translators. Furthermore, interpreters seem to be far more able to communicate a message meaningfully using sight translation. This may reflect the interpreters' faster cognitive processing and the translators'

failure to overcome their habits of written text translating processes, especially excessive pausing and fixations on various spots in the text.

5 CONCLUSIONS

The cognitive processing capabilities that practitioners need in order to attain high levels of proficiency in sight translation are: analysing and scanning texts; using memory (long term and short term); and controlling eye movement to read ahead, while concurrently producing a continuous even flow of speech in delivery. In this discussion the focus has been on specific skills required to translate source texts into a target language.

This present study, based on an overview of published research into cognitive processing skills used in sight translation, has demonstrated a need for further empirical research into how these skills function in specific fields of interpreting practice. The research may focus on the relationship between levels of stress, emotional control and cognitive functioning when sight translating in specific settings and cultures, such as sight translating written evidence in Australian courtrooms. The two aims of this research would be to provide clearer definitions of skills used in courtroom sight translation and to formulate a wider range of descriptors to measure performance.

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WHO ARE YOUR NON-FRIENDS? OBSERVATIONS ON THE PEJORATIVE ASPECT OF THE ENGLISH NEGATIVE PREFIX *NON-*

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Abstract

This article relates to the English negative prefix *non-* and its privative and pejorative overtones. The discussion focuses on depreciatory and ironic expressions formed by the pejorative *non-* in particular, various lexical and syntactic means of the Finnish language and translation strategies that may be used for conveying this aspect of the prefix into Finnish. The material of the study consists of newspaper columns and their Finnish translations produced by students of English translation at the University of Helsinki. The article includes the students' commentaries to the texts, their replies to questionnaires and their motivations for the constructions used in the translations. On the basis of this case study, it seems that explicitations play a very important role in Finnish translations of the pejorative *non-* and that the use of Finnish negative prefixes is highly dependent on the translator's idiolect.

1 INTRODUCTION

When Chaucer was translating *Boece* from French and Latin in the 14th century, he could hardly foresee that a prefix that he had decided to use in one single word would in five hundred years

become the most productive prefix in the English language.¹ The beauty of the prefix *non-* lies in its superficial simplicity. It hides the semantic duality, which does not reveal itself to a reader automatically. In purely neutral texts requiring contradictory classification² the prefix performs outstandingly when dividing the phenomena exhaustively in two categories. This privative overtone is the most common and uncomplicated of the meanings of *non-*, and it is readily used in technical and scientific texts in particular. The prefix has, however, a capacity to imply and suggest. This overtone of the prefix does not appear everywhere. What is required for this pejorative aspect to emerge is a suitable textual genre, a writer with hidden intentions and carefully constructed stylistic expressions, and more importantly, a reader who is perceptive enough to detect the incoherencies and signs of irony in the text. The underlying pejorative tone may still prove challenging in translations. As Finnish is mainly a synthetic language, it has – at least in theory – virtually no advantage of using a similar kind of structure to preserve the dual meaning of the prefix. An interesting question is whether some aspect or degree of pejoration will be lost in the Finnish translation, as pejoration is so deeply integrated in the structural form of the expression. To illustrate this, the both meanings of *non-* will be discussed in more detail in the following chapter.

¹ According to Algeo (1971: 88–89) the prefix *non-* first appeared in the Anglo-French form *noun* in the word *nounpower* in the late 14th century in Chaucer's *Boece* which is a translation of *de Consolatione Philosophiae* (The Consolation of Philosophy) by Boethius. The word *nounpower* appears in *Boece* in book 3, prose 5. Chaucer apparently worked from a French translation by Jean de Meun but he most likely also used a Latin commentary version of the text by Nicholas Trevet. This may have induced the formation with *noun* (see Donaghey 1999: 74).

² For contradictory negation, see further e.g. Cruse 2000: 168.

2 THE TWO FACES OF THE PREFIX *NON-*

2.1 The privative *non-*

Because the prefix *non-* can be considered to correspond to clausal negation, it has a purely exclusive, privative meaning in denoting a ‘lack of’ a quality: for example, *a non-smoker* is someone who does not smoke, and when attached to a word in adjunct use, the sense is ‘other than’, e.g. in *nonfood*. (Quirk 1987: 431; Algeo 1971: 90.) The quality of *non-* of denoting contradictory opposition is essential when unambiguous distinction is required. Algeo (1971: 91) illustrates this by saying that the word *nonliving* matter is unambiguous whereas the word *dead* matter may ambiguously denote to matter that once was alive. He also suggests that *non-* is “useful because it helps to denote a semantic content that otherwise has no representation in the lexicon” (ibid.). The prefix is also impartial and unemotional in tone while other negative prefixes such as *un-*, *in-* and *dis-*, which are often used to form contrary opposites, contain an unfavorable judgment (Algeo 1971: 90–91). The prefix *non-* is most commonly used in scientific, medical and technical terminology and other special language fields, but its exhaustive and compact nature makes it useful in everyday language as well, e.g. *Europeans – non-Europeans*.

An interesting notion is documented by Murphy (2008: 201–202) on morphological opposition made possible by the contradictory nature of *non-*. She mentions nouns and adjectives, e.g. *blue : nonblue*, *happy : nonhappy*, and explains that these bisect the domain perfectly. According to Murphy (2008: 202), this pattern may still result in somewhat artificial formations and antonym pairs; she explains this by pointing out that people tend to shun new formations that they have not experienced before and prefer to

find a conventionally established word (ibid.). This is an interesting observation in relation to translations: as there is no corresponding morpheme in Finnish, a natural approach is to resort to affirmative antonyms in the translation. Thus *nonhappy*, for instance, could in some context translate *sad* in Finnish, which then may add a new, emotive aspect to the translation.

2.2 The pejorative *non-*

With an increase in use, the prefix *non-* gained a further semantic dimension in the late 1960's: a pejorative use. However, it appears that the pejorative *non-* has gained only a little attention among scholars since its emergence. John Algeo, whose paper on the prefix *non-* appeared in *American Speech* as early as in 1971, still seems to be one of the few scholars who have defined and described the pejorative use with detailed examples. He (1971: 93) describes the meaning of the pejorative *non-* as "possessing the superficial form, but not the values of". He (ibid.) also suggests that it should be regarded as a new morpheme and claims that the morphemic split occurred around the 1960's; apparently, the first examples of the pejorative *non-* (*nonbook* and *nonevent*) were recorded in the *Britannica Book of the Year* in 1962 and 1964.

Since these first appearances, the number of words with pejorative *non-* has increased remarkably (Algeo 1971: 92–93). Algeo points out a feature which could perhaps be regarded as the essence of the pejorative *non-*: a superficially objective expression with a scientific tinge hides a highly personal evaluation (1971: 94). While the privative *non-* can nowadays be attached to numerous grammatical constructions, the pejorative *non-* has, according to Algeo (1971: 96), been used mainly with nouns denoting events,

persons and objects. This is only natural – after all, what else is there for human nature to criticize but our fellow human beings! According to Lieber (2008: 113, 124), *non-* is the only negative prefix with any productivity with respect to nouns, and it is most often attached to concrete nouns, in particular people or instrument nouns. The *OED* refers to the latter as “agent nouns and designations of persons and things, indicating that the person or thing is not that, or not of the sort, specified” and gives the nouns *non-employee* and *non-driver* as examples. Most pejorative expressions with *non-* are formed with nouns or agent nouns, and the amount of such expressions is in theory almost unlimited. A vast majority of possible formations with *non-* of any semantic type remain unlisted in dictionaries, as they often appear in one speech act only and may possibly never be repeated again.

At this point, I would like to emphasize the importance of context and style – in certain situations almost any word could be interpreted as a distinctly pejorative expression. Therefore, the importance of the genre, the related stylistic features and the writer’s intentions must be considered.

3 THE RESEARCH QUESTION

In this case study, my main goal is to observe how the students of English translation perceive the change of meaning of the prefix from privative to pejorative, which as such, may be considered a somewhat marginal grammatical curiosity. Even more so, this gives an excellent opportunity to look into the students’ spontaneous, intuitive reactions to the pejorative *non-* by examining their curriculum translation assignments and their own commentaries related to those assignments. Therefore, in this respect, the method used here resembles that of the response

analysis, and the responses of the informants to the subject appear in the form of translations. The students also replied to a questionnaire that was delivered to them after all three assignments had been completed.

I intend to study what kind of syntactic means and semantic solutions the students prefer in the translations and whether their self-assessments show any reservations about prefixed formations and explicitations in their translations. This research question stems from my previous study³ on the subject, where I proposed the idea that conveying the pejorative meaning of *non-* in Finnish could be accomplished most successfully with explicitations in the form of clausal negation, with additional intensifying lexical elements that contain pejorative denotation or connotation. This case study also serves as a part of my future dissertation on various aspects of the pejorative *non-*.

4 THE THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

As regards various translation theories, the most relevant theoretical framework for this study relates to explicitations. From the syntactic point of view, the features and limitations of the Finnish negation are taken into consideration in a comparative grammatical analysis. Both of these topics will be briefly discussed in the following.

4.1 Explicitations

In this context, the term *explicitation* is used in the sense defined by Klaudy as “a technique of making explicit in the target text

³ Mäittälä-Kaupilla Sari (2009); certain sections are incorporated in this article.

information what is implicit in the source text” (1996: 99). Klaudy (1996:102–103) has also formulated her own categorizations, e.g. obligatory explicitations, which she says are necessitated by the differences in the syntactic or semantic structure of languages. They relate to missing categories, and she mentions the analytic and synthetic character of languages as an example (ibid.). With this in mind, another example could be the lack of actual negative prefixes in Finnish.

In her article, Vehmas-Lehto (2001: 227–228) suggests a further modification of Klaudy’s (1996) classification on explicitations. She proposes that *optional explicitations* are those that are “caused by the wish to clarify the text and make it sound more natural – and thus to help the recipient to understand the text” (Vehmas-Lehto 2001: 227). Yet, there is another categorization by Vehmas-Lehto, which, in my opinion, is even more interesting: she argues that it would be practical to have a subcategory of *stylistic explicitations*, which justify their existence only by making the text “sound better” (2001: 228). While she mentions this without any additional argumentation, the idea that stylistic explicitations are the kind of explicitations that make the translation “sound better” is intriguing – translations of the pejorative *non-* call for something undetermined to become complete and to embrace the entire semantic field of pejoration. Whether these undetermined elements then be lexical pejorative expressions of certain type that complement a neutral negating clause, remains to be studied, and this is one of the subject matters that I intend to further discuss in my future dissertation.

In the material of this case study, there is also an integral value of the chosen style by the writer to be considered. Furthermore, considering that pejorative expressions are well suited for highly personal evaluations, the style in which these expressions are uttered plays an even more important role in the overall impression

given by the text. However, it should not be forgotten that no matter how suitable stylistic solutions are or how much better they make the translation sound, none of the translations are entirely appropriate unless the important semantic meaning component, the pejorative aspect of *non-*, is present in the Finnish translation.

4.2 The Finnish negation

According to *Suomen kielioppi* (a Grammar of Finnish) published in 1963, there used to be no actual negative prefixes at all in the Finnish language, but merely some prefix-like elements, such as *epä-* and *ei-*, which were mainly used to modify the latter component of a compound (Penttilä 1963: 326–327). The sections of this article on *epä-* and *ei-* contain references also to the studies of Hakanen (1973)⁴ and Sivula (1969). The attitude towards the existence of actual negative prefixes in Finnish has, however, changed in half a century, and a more recent grammar, *Iso suomen kielioppi* (VISK), published in 2004, states clearly that the negative prefixes are a semantically clear-cut group and that the native Finnish negative prefixes are *epä-* and *ei-*, which are also the most productive of all prefixes (VISK § 172). An interesting question in connection with this study and the expressions of pejoration is whether these prefixes are today considered native enough and lexically sufficiently acceptable to appear as the primary means for conveying the pejoration of the prefix *non-*. This issue will be studied through the students' commentaries and replies.

⁴ Hakanen performed an extensive study on adjectives and their antonyms and on the acceptability of formations prefixed with *epä-* and *ei-*. As his study dates back forty years, it would be interesting to re-examine his material and compare which of the previously unacceptable formations would today be considered acceptable and used frequently in the language of newspapers, for example.

5 THE SOURCE TEXTS AND THE TRANSLATORS

5.1 The source texts

5.1.1 The genre of the texts

The material in this study consists of three newspaper articles, two of which are from The Washington Post and one from The New York Times, and their Finnish translations. Each article, more specifically a column, includes one or more expressions with the negative prefix *non-*. The reason for selecting columns as source texts was my personal empirical experience on columns and the premise that a style of writing that is both humorous and journalistic – in articles expressing opinions in particular – encourages the writers to express themselves in a more individual and less formal way and to express harsh criticism with implicitly pejorative expressions.

A newspaper column can be seen as a genre existing in a journalistic environment, with features from literature and factual texts. As regards a textual genre in general, Swales defines the communicative purpose being the prime element in the characterization of a genre and continues by noting that “[i]n addition to purpose, exemplars of a genre exhibit various patterns of similarity in terms of structure, style, content and intended audience” (Swales 1990: 58). Set in the context of newspaper columns, the purpose of the communication is the columnists’ aim to express their opinions and perspectives, and to draw the readers’ attention to a topic and perhaps to act on it as well. As an audience, the readers have gained prior knowledge of various features of the column and also understand the objectives of the column as a medium of influence. They have also learned to

expect to find the columns in a specific location in a newspaper. Articles and writings expressing opinions appear often in particular sections in the paper, clearly separated from the news articles and other forms of factual reporting. The contents in the columns may cover almost any aspect of human life: e.g. politics, social issues, local events, sports, fashion.

In respect to the topic of the present study, the stylistic features are of special interest: a columnist may use a range of effects such as registers of the language, a particular voice and tone, unconventional structures, forms and even individual words. This is where covertly pejorative expressions may arise.

In conjunction with genres and translation, Reiss defines newspaper columns as expressive, form-focused texts (see Reiss 1989 and 2000 for more specific classifications) and therefore, in these kinds of texts, according to her (2000: 31–32), an author can make use of the formal elements of the text, such as the tempo, the figurative manners of speaking, or even the syntactic traits, to achieve a specific esthetic effect. Consequently, in these columns, the presence of the pejorative prefix *non-* may be seen as a deliberate means of expression to convey features of irony and pejoration. Reiss (2000: 31–32) also maintains that it is important for the translator to observe the writer's choices and to find analogous forms in the translation to create a corresponding impression.

Since the texts in this study were actual translation assignments for the students, they had to be meaningful in a pedagogical sense as well. Therefore, the topics of the texts were to be timeless and universal or of great immediate interest. One of the columns tackled a physiological phenomenon explained in a popularized way, another discussed the use of social media and the third focused on the image of a familiar cartoon character. The first

column had two words with the prefix *non-* with a privative overtone and the remaining two texts contained each a word with an allegedly pejorative reading. In all, there were 17 Finnish translations of the first text, 14 translations of the second text, and 14 translations of the third text, bringing the total number of the constructions to 62. Even though the collection of examples was not extensive, the formations illustrated the typical use of *non-* very well since the head word in all cases was an agent noun.

5.1.2 *Pejoration and irony*

Determining the pejorative overtone of the formations with *non-* required reading the texts carefully and assessing the quality of the prefix by consulting various dictionaries and grammars. I selected the texts partly on an intuitive basis, detecting pejoration and irony in between the lines. However, in order to verify the presence of irony in the text, I checked that the texts included the five components of irony according to Rahtu (2006). Rahtu argues that irony is defined as a combination of five components: “It is seen as (1) a negative attitude that reflects (2) the intention of the ironist, and (3) has a target and most often (4) a victim too. Essential to irony is its fifth component, the fact that one or more of these four components must be inferred from co- or context” (2006: 46–52).⁵

Without further presentation of the components in the context of these source texts, it may suffice to say that irony was present to a varying degree in the second and the third text. The translators, the students, possibly did not have knowledge of this theory but instead formed their opinion on the ironic traits in the text merely by relying on what they already knew about columns as text types and their stylistic features, and more importantly, on the overall

⁵ The quotation is from the English-language abstract of Rahtu’s dissertation (2006).

notion of coherence in the text. The notion of *coherence* is a fundamental concept in Rahtu's coherence theory (2006: 25), according to which the reader will attempt to perceive the text as coherent, i.e. to link the text to its context – both to the references within the text itself and to the outside world. In this way the translators were on the same level as average native readers of the source text.

5.2 The translators

The columns were translated into Finnish by fourteen to seventeen second year English translation major students of the University of Helsinki taking a course in professional translation during spring term 2011. As they had only recently begun their academic studies of translation, their reactions to and their translations of the ironic expressions can be considered fairly unaffected by prior experience in this field.

Because the columns were mainly directed at North American readers, the texts inevitably contain culturally bound expressions. The guideline for the students regarding the translation was that the translation could be published in a corresponding publication in Finnish. This implied that explicitations and pragmatic adaptations of some type might be necessary in the translation, but this was not explicitly uttered to the students. With regard to translation methods in general, the students were not given any guidelines, and they were free to choose the method they preferred.

The students were given two weeks to prepare the translations and hand them in to their teacher. During the actual translation process, the students had to familiarize themselves with the topic and

possibly study the subject further, consider the style of the text and the register of the language, and assess whether the text required cultural adaptation in the translation. The columns did not contain any special jargon; however, there were some names of institutions and songs that needed to be translated or adapted in the Finnish version. As the students are always encouraged to use the Internet as a translation aid, these names did not create any specific difficulties but could be overcome by a touch of ingenuity. It should be emphasized here that the students were not aware of the pejorative *non-* being the topic of the study and therefore they did not focus on the prefixed expression in particular.

The students gave permission to use their translations, either by signing a written consent form or by oral confirmation to their teacher. From my perspective, the students remained anonymous and the persona of each translator was irrelevant for the outcome of this study. Along with the Finnish translations, the students also handed in their commentary sheets. These were part of their regular home work assignments, containing notes on their general impressions on the assignment, the source text, their own evaluation on how they performed and a list of challenging or difficult issues in the translation process. After translating all three texts, they also filled in a simple questionnaire that I had prepared for this study. The questionnaire contained three questions⁶, and the students' replies are an essential part of the analysis. The questions, the replies and the commentaries were all in Finnish,

⁶ Question 1: In your opinion, what was the common nominator for all three texts?
Question 2: Was the expression formed with the prefix *non-* explicit and easy to understand or did you have to pause to think what the writer wanted to say? Was there anything in particular in the expression that you considered problematic?
Question 3: On what grounds did you choose your Finnish translation to the expression? Were there several options for you in your mind, and if so, what were they? Also, please give your own evaluation on how successful your translation is?

and I have translated them into English for the purpose of this study.

6 THE ANALYSIS

The examples and their Finnish translations were studied through a contrastive grammatical analysis, and one or two representative and illustrative translations of each formation with *non-* are discussed and reported in this chapter. The formations with *non-* are listed from (A) to (C) and the translations are referred to by a dual reference, the letter indicating the source text example and the number referring to the translation, e.g. (A-2) refers to the second translation of the first example (A). The Finnish language constructions used in each formation with *non-* are compiled in Tables 1–4 respectively, followed by a compilation of all the constructions in Table 5. It should be noted that the presentation is intended merely to display the type of constructions used by the students, and not to evaluate them in any manner. All English translations of the students' commentaries and replies to questionnaire are my own.

The first text to be translated contains two expressions coined with the privative meaning of the prefix *non-*, and this text was intended to serve as an introductory stage from which the emphasis in the remaining two texts then moved on to the pejorative *non-*.

6.1 The privative *non-* in a neutral context

The first text for the analysis was a column (Ewan 2008) published in section C12 of The Washington Post on September 8, 2008, discussing the phenomenon of earworms, a situation when we hear

“a song which then keeps running through our brains over and over, sometimes to the point where we wish we could forget it”. The 360-word column mentions several songs that are notorious in this respect and offers a few remedies to stop the replay in our brain. The prefix *non-* appears twice in the text, where it was attached to the agents-nouns *non-musicians* and *non-worriers*:

- (A) Some people get more earworms than others. Who are they? It turns out that musicians are more likely to get them than *non-musicians*, and women get them more than men. For some reason, people who worry a lot are more earworm-prone than *non-worriers*. This suggests that the music alone is not responsible for an earworm. Individual traits and brain design seem to play a big role, too.

In my study, this text was intended as an introduction to constructions with the prefix *non-*, and it displays the characteristic privative use of the prefix attached to agents-nouns. It is also very typical to use the prefix in contrast to the nonprefixed, positive head word in a sentence, which in this case causes the repetition of the words *musicians* and *worriers*. The fact that the obvious opposite poles are both mentioned here removes any ambiguity about the accurate meaning of either phrase. Thus the challenge in their translation lies more in the fluency of expression and the stylistic traits of the column, and in adapting the names of the English language songs to the Finnish environment.

Table 1: Types of constructions in translations of *non-musicians*.

Type of construction	Total 17	Translation
<i>ei-</i>	6	<i>ei-muusikot</i> (in various inflectional forms)
<i>others</i> [than musicians]	3	<i>Muut</i>
untranslated	3	-
<i>less than</i>	2	<i>vähemmän musiikkia harrastavat; kuin musiikin parissa vähemmän toimivat ihmiset</i>
negating relative clauses	2	<i>henkilöille, jotka eivät musiikkia harrasta; ne, jotka eivät harrasta musiikkia</i>
lexical explicitations	1	<i>rivikansalaiset</i>

In total, there were seventeen Finnish translations of the *non-musicians*. Of these, the privative prefix *ei-* appeared in six translations, in various inflectional forms of the plural *ei-muusikot*, and this agent noun produced compact translations:

(A-1) Kävi ilmi, että muusikot saavat korvamatoja todennäköisemmin kuin *ei-muusikot*, ja naiset todennäköisemmin kuin miehet.

Among other constructions to appear there was a negative relative clause (A-2): *ne, jotka eivät musiikkia harrasta* ‘those who do not have music as hobby’.

(A-2) Vaikuttaa siltä, että korvamadot tarttuvat useammin muusikoille kuin *henkilöille, jotka eivät musiikkia harrasta* ja naisille useammin kuin miehille.

The negating clause represents the exhaustive division into two contradictory groups, even though one student noted that this kind of division was not quite accurate in this context: “A lot of people may have music as a hobby but only a few do it for a living”. Once again, the segmentation on the linguistic level does not seem to correlate with physical reality, but it is the level of accuracy that is decisive in the communication between people.

Other constructions included the notion of *less than* (*vähemmän musiikkia harrastavat* ‘those who are less into music’), the notion of *others than* (*muut kuin muusikot* ‘other than musicians’), and an explicitation by an agent-noun (*rivikansalaiset* ‘common people’). Three students had decided to leave the expression untranslated, and formulated the translation without actually using any reference to a *non-musician*, as in (A-3) below:

(A-3) Toiset ovat niille myös alttiimpia kuin toiset:
herkimmin musiikki jää tutkimuksen mukaan
soimaan muusikoiden ja naisten päähän.

One might argue that part of the information is omitted in this translation, but then again, the groups of *non-musicians* – i.e. all others but musicians – and *men* are implied by mentioning their contradictory opposites *musicians* and *women*.

The other formation with *non-* in this text passage is an agent noun, *non-worriers*, and it is used privatively. Therefore, one could assume that the prefix *ei-* would be preferred in the translations as well. However, the prefix did not appear here at all. As the results in Table 2 below indicate, nine students out of seventeen resorted to a construction formed by means of the word *worry* and the Finnish denominal suffix *-tön* (*huoleton* ‘carefree’) with various inflectional forms or with a comparative form. Two translators left the *non-worriers* untranslated, and another two

resorted to constructions of the type ‘others than worriers’. The remaining three translations included an explicitation: either in form of an affirmative antonym (*positiivisia ihmisiä* ‘positive people’), or a lexical item added to a construction formed with an affirmative or negating relative clause (*ne, jotka eivät kannata turhaa huolta* ‘those who do not worry excessively’, *ne, jotka suhtautuvat asioihin rennosti* ‘those who have a more relaxed attitude’).

Table 2: Types of constructions in translations of *non-worriers*

Type of construction	Total 17	Translation
the suffix <i>-tOn</i>	9	various inflectional and comparative forms of <i>huolettomat</i>
<i>others than</i>	3	<i>muut, muita</i>
untranslated	2	-
Explications: relative clauses with positive head words; negating relative clauses with lexical explications; affirmative antonyms	3	<i>ne, jotka suhtautuvat asioihin rennosti;</i> <i>ne, jotka eivät kannata turhaa huolta;</i> <i>positiivisia ihmisiä</i>

The most preferred construction with the suffix *-tOn* received one comment only from the students: the adjective produced by the suffix was “quite good an adjective in this connection”:

(A-4) Jostain selvittämättömästä syystä paljon huolehtivat ihmiset saavat enemmän korvamatoja kuin *huolettomat*.

(A-5) Jostain syystä murehtijat ovat alttiimpia korvamadoille kuin *huolettomat sielut*, mitkä viittaa siihen että [...]

In (A-4) *non-worrier* equals *huolettomat*, ‘the carefree’, whereby the suffixed adjective functions as the head of a noun phrase, and in (A-5) *huolettomat sielut*, ‘the carefree souls’ in attributive position. In the latter case, some additional color is brought to the phrase by replacing the neutral concept *people* with a more descriptive noun *souls*. Whether this is implied in the source text is for the reader to decide, but from a strategic point of view, it could also be regarded as an explicitation.

As the wide range of grammatical constructions in translations of both formations with *non-* in text (A) reveals, the students considered several solutions to be appropriate counterparts for these two expressions of privative type. Two thirds of the students chose the prefix *ei-* in the translations of *non-musicians*, but surprisingly, there was one comment only that was clearly positive: the translator remarked that *ei-muusikot* was “quite appropriate”. The prefix denotes pure opposition with no other implications, i.e. complementary opposition, and in this respect, it corresponds to the privative *non-*. As to lexicalization, words prefixed with *ei-* are fairly temporary formations and therefore, not established as lexemes (VISK § 1631). The prefix can be used when it clearly facilitates precise expression of the idea in

question, but constructions with *ei-* are still fairly artificial in Finnish (Sivula 1969: 431).

Another student mentioned that “*ei-huolehtija*” sounded too inflexible and a third student added that “*ei-murehtijat*” just did not fit in the Finnish language. Therefore, it is no surprise that whereas the first expression with *ei-* was more or less accepted, the second one of the same type was rejected and none of the seventeen students chose the prefix *ei-*.

The most preferred construction comprises of the suffix *-tOn*; surprisingly, it was hardly commented on at all – perhaps an expression natural to the Finnish language evokes no particular comments, as it fits in the text flow with ease. The Finnish language, like other Finno-Ugric languages in general, does indeed favor suffixes in word formation because these are in concordance with the typological nature of these languages (Häkkinen 2006: 104). However, suffixes expressing negation in Finnish are not numerous: their group consists of a denominal suffix *-tOn* and its deverbal form *-mAtOn*, which are even stronger negating morphemes than the prefix *epä-* (VISK § 292; Hakanen 1973: 169). Adjectives with the suffix *-tOn* express the lack, absence or shortage of the quality expressed by the word stem (VISK § 1629).

In relation to this study, whether formations by suffixes are privative or pejorative depends greatly not only on the context but also on the head word. The choice of head word is very important for achieving a successful translation, because the suffix only negates what is denoted by its headword. Because a strong emphasis of the lack expressed by the suffix usually leads to the strategy of explicitation, the subtle hints of pejoration given by *non-* will often be absent from the translation.

As an example of a clearly explicative translation, (A-6) shows a relative clause with a positive adverb *rennosti* describes the attitude of the *non-worriers*, here defined as ‘those who take it easy’:

(A-6) Myös ne, jotka kantavat asioista huolta, kärsivät korvamadoista useammin kuin *ne, jotka suhtautuvat asioihin rennosti.*

One could, of course, speculate how relaxed and easy-going people the *non-worriers* actually are, and whether there is a significant difference in the meaning of these two definitions. The translator will evidently have to decide how to reach the balance between the structural fluency and semantic accuracy, and more importantly, to do this in a manner which respects the writer’s intentions.

6.2 On the borderline between the privative and the pejorative

The second text to be analyzed was from The New York Times, section BU3, published on March 8, 2009, (Stross 2009). The article reflects the fine line between private and public information on Facebook. For the purpose of the translation assignment, the actual column was abridged to contain 280 words, and the prefix *non-* appears in the text merely once, attached to an agent-noun *non-friends* in a listing where the word *friends* is repeated several times with various attributes attached to it:

(B) For many members, “friends” now means a mish-mash of real friends, former friends, friends of friends, and *non-friends*; younger and older

relatives; colleagues and, if cursed, a nosy boss or two. Everyone accepted as a “friend” gets the same access. When the distinction blurs between one’s few close friends and the many who are not, it seems pointless to distinguish between private and public.

Here the prefixed phrase can be understood both privatively and pejoratively, thus making the text ideal for this study. In principle, the construction is privative as it categorizes people into various types of friends and people who are not regarded as friends. This privative meaning was also listed in the *OED* as early as in 1549.

There are also other factors to be considered, the first of which is the immediate context of the expression. The listing of different kinds of friends according to the degree of closeness and emotional attachment emphasizes this perspective. The descriptive phrases *real friends* and *former friends* convey the idea of either an existing true friendship or a friendship lost, but the next phrase, *friends of friends*, refers to those who clearly are one step further away in a person’s social network. At the end of this line, finally, there are *non-friends*, followed by other categories of acquaintances. It is now up to the translator to determine which aspect of the prefix is dominant in this case and, if the vagueness of the expression is intentional, how to preserve the duality: just to hint but not spell out the meaning. Furthermore, the writer has deliberately chosen to use the list as a stylistic feature, which is why it would be most recommended to keep this structure in the translation as well.

The second notable aspect is the difference in the semantic segmentation of the concept *friend* in English and Finnish. What is understood by a *friend* can be described in Finnish by nouns *ystävä* and *kaveri*, for example. The difference between these two lies in

the depth and importance of the relationship: a person called *ystävä* is really a friend, whereas one categorized as *kaveri* is perhaps less close than an actual friend, e.g. someone from work (*työkaveri*, ‘colleague’) or school (*luokkakaveri* ‘class mate’). The established term for *friend* in Facebook in Finnish is indeed *kaveri* and a *friend request* is referred to as *kaveripyyntö*. Consequently, this term implies the Finnish outlook on the level of closeness or the lack of it. In the assignment, the phrase *friends of friends* was in most cases translated by *kaverin kavereita*, again showing a way of taking distance to this group of people whom one may hardly know at all.

As presented in Table 3 below, there were fourteen Finnish translations in total for the analysis, representing five different types of grammatical constructions. The prefix *ei-* was used in five translations, the prefix *epä-* and a negating relative clause in one translation each. One of the thirteen students constructed the translation by leaving out the expression altogether. The six remaining translations included a combination of affirmative antonyms of the type *acquaintance*, *unknown* or *stranger*, and the concept of *otherness*.

Table 3: Types of constructions in translations of *non-friends*

Type of construction	Total 14	Translation
<i>ei-</i>	5	<i>ei-ystävät</i> (various inflectional forms)
<i>epä-</i>	1	<i>epäystäviä</i>
untranslated	1	-
negating relative clauses	1	<i>ne, jotka eivät ole ystäviä</i> ‘those who are not friends’
lexical explicitations; combinations with concepts of the type <i>other than, stranger, unknown, acquaintance</i>	6	<i>muista tutuista; muista; sukankuluttajia; monenlaisten tuttavien joukosta; vieraiden; tuntemattomia; (2)</i>

In the translations, maybe due to the repetition of the noun *friend* at the beginning of the list, almost half of the students still used this noun instead of *kaveri*. The prefix *ei-* was used by five students as the Finnish counterpart for *non-* but, surprisingly, somewhat reluctantly so: One of the comments revealed that this solution was not really all that fluent but fit in the style of the text and especially in a list. One student had a more positive opinion and noted that *ei-kavereita* was a fairly good translation and even better, when used here as opposed to “real friends” to distinguish a group of people who actually were not friends even though classified as friends by Facebook:

(B-1) Monelle Facebookin käyttäjälle “kaverit” ovat nykyään sekalainen seurakunta oikeita ystäviä, entisiä ja kavereiden kavereita, *ei-kavereita*, nuorempia ja vanhempia sukulaisia, työtovereita sekä pahimmassa tapauksessa uteliaita pomoja.

There was only one translator to choose the prefix *epä-* in the noun phrase *epäystäviä*:

(B-2) Tästä seuraa että monille Facebookin käyttäjille “ystävä” voi nyt merkitä mitä tahansa, kuten oikeita ystäviä, entisiä ystäviä, ystävien ystäviä, *epäystäviä*, nuorempia ja vanhempia sukulaisia, työtovereita ja mikä kaikista pahinta, jopa muutamaa uteliasta pomoa.

The translator of (B-2) was very confident that s/he had found a most accurate equivalent, namely s/he was of the opinion that the agent noun *epäystäviä* was “a real bulls-eye”, and classified the word as a neoformation with the prefix *epä-*, derived from the adjective *epäystävällinen* ‘unfriendly’.

The largest group consists of translations where the construction included a lexical explicitation. Some students remarked that since all kinds of actual friends had already been mentioned in the text, what remained was a group of strangers of varying degree. These were then named as *the strangers, the unknown, other acquaintances*. A student noted that this solution worked very well and that a verbatim translation would not have suited here, by which s/he meant a prefixed construction. Colloquial expressions in the Facebook text inspired the translator of (B-3) to produce an inventive and explicative translation: the student described *non-friends* as some sort of ordinary average guys, *muut sukankuluttajat*, ‘anyone who wears socks’:

(B-3) Monille käyttäjille Facebook-kaverit ovat sillisalaatti oikeita ystäviä, entisiä ystäviä, ystävien kavereita ja *muita sukankuluttajia*: kaikenikäisiä sukulaisia, työkavereita ja – auta armias – uteliaita esimiehiä.

6.3 The pejorative *non-* in an ironic context

The third column displays a likely pejorative *non-* in an article on the popular cartoon character Mickey Mouse. The column (Green 2004) was published in The New York Times on April 18, 2004 and the text was abridged to 583 words for the translation assignment. The writer discusses the life story of Mickey Mouse and particularly the changes in the outer appearance and the image of the character since its birth in 1928. The columnist also presents comments by a Mickey Mouse fan and a director of the Disney archives. The prefix *non-* is attached to an agent noun *wife* resulting in a new type of classification for a spouse, *non-wife*:

- (C) The cartoon, originally drawn for adults, was repositioned for the millions of children who took Mickey to heart. “He couldn’t have any of the naughty qualities he had in his earlier cartoons,” said Mr. Smith, of the Disney archives, “because so many people looked up to him. The studio would get complaints in the mail.” So, sometime in the mid- to late 1930’s, Mickey settled down. Barnyard cohorts and rail-riding adventures gave way to suburban domesticity with his *non-wife* Minnie (“They just lived together as friends,” said Mr. Smith. “For a very long time”) and their unexplained nephews.

The explanatory phrase “*They just lived together as friends,*” said Mr. Smith. “*For a very long time*” in brackets after *non-wife Minnie* clarifies further the relationship of Mickey to Minnie. Therefore, it would be possible for the expression to have a purely privative reading, but in the light of the style of the article, such an interpretation is less likely: the column includes some fairly colorful and descriptive expressions and the writer’s own judgmental comments, which then receive a great emphasis as a

stylistic means and also reflect the writer's and interviewees' evaluations and opinions. All this supports the pejorative interpretation of the noun phrase *non-wife*. Additional confirmation is provided by the fact that the words prefixed with a pejorative *non-* are fairly temporary formations constructed for one specific speech act only and not established as lexemes. *Non-wife* is not listed in the OED.

With regard to the column in general, the students made several remarks on the structural complexity of the text and the hidden connotations. Also, the colorful expressions were recognized either as a challenging factor or as a feature inspiring the students to search for corresponding stylistic highlights. The presence and degree of pejoration in *non-wife* was lively discussed in the students' comments. Some of the translations will be discussed below in detail.

In nine out of a total of 14 Finnish translations, the meaning of *non-wife* was conveyed by explicitations of various types, and in four translations, the prefixes *ei-* or *epä-* were used. The explicitations were of two types: those constructed with the concept of *marriage* in a negating clause and those formed with explicitative lexemes.

Table 4: Types of constructions in translations of *non-wife*

Type of construction	Total 14	Translation
<i>ei-</i>	2	<i>ei-vaimo</i>
<i>epä-</i>	2	<i>epävaimo, epä-vaimo</i>
untranslated	1	-
explicitations with the concept <i>marriage</i> in negating clauses	4	<i>Minnin kanssa, jonka kanssa Mikki ei kuitenkaan koskaan ollut naimisissa;</i> <i>Minnin kanssa, vaikkeivat he olleetkaan naimisissa;</i> <i>Minnin kanssa (mutta ne eivät olleet naimisissa);</i> <i>kämppäkaveri Minni; (he eivät olleet aviossa - -</i>
lexical explicitations	5	<i>asuinkumppaninsa Minnin;</i> <i>ystävättärensä Minnin;</i> <i>platonisen kumppaninsa Minnin;</i> <i>melkein-vaimo Minnin;</i> <i>Minni, ikuinen tyttöystävä</i>

The noun phrase *epä-vaimo* or *epävaimo* appeared in two translations only and the explanations given by the translators to the use of the prefix were almost complete opposites:

(C-1) Seikkailut ja latotappelut joutuivat väistämään lähiöidylliä, jota elettiin *epä-vaimo* Minnin ja selittämättömien veljenpoikien kanssa. “He vain elivät yhdessä ystävinä – aika todella kauan”, Smith kommentoi.

The translator of (C-1) noted that “the prefixes with *epä-* or *ei-* are usually not the best possible translations, even though I succumbed

to using one myself”, whereas the translator behind the other *epävaimo* (not included in the examples shown here) however, stated that the lexeme *epävaimo* works well in this context. This shows the difference in how individuals perceive the prefixes: some regard them as indigenous Finnish elements while others find they have a foreign tinge.

The semantic function of *epä-* has been discussed in great detail by Hakanen (1973: 170–190). He notes that *epä-* is used to form contrary opposites, sometimes even with a depreciatory and pejorative connotation, and when attached to a noun, adverb or verb, the pejorative implication is clear, e.g. *epäkohta* ‘deficit’, *epäihminen* ‘unhuman’. For this quality, the prefix could be considered the Finnish counterpart of the Swedish *o-* and the German *un-*, and the English prefix *un-*, too, falls into this category. In cases where the prefixed word sounds inauthentic to a speaker, the word stem often has an affirmative antonym, and Hakanen suggests that a speaker will rather choose a generally accepted lexical antonym than introduce a new formation with the prefix, regardless of the slight semantic difference. (Hakanen 1973: 171, 173–174, 178.)

Also noteworthy is translation (C-2), where the privative prefix *ei-* has according to the translator received new meanings:

(C-2) Esikaupunkilainen kotielämä korvasi
rautatieseikkailut, ja maatilana väki väistyi Mikin
ei-vaimo Minnin (Smithin mukaan he vain elivät
yhdessä hyvin, hyvin kauan.) ja heidän
selittämättömien sisarenpoikien tieltä.

The student explained that “[t]he writer is ironizing the unusual and strange relationship between Mickey and Minnie (and the comment in brackets by Sith [sic] elaborates the weird choice of

words) and this is why the Finnish equivalent may in my opinion be unusual and astonish the reader”.

Five students decided to replace *non-wife* with an equally compact but more explicit definition, such as *asuinkumppani* ‘live-in mate’, *ystävätär* ‘friend (fem.)’, *platoninen kumppani* ‘platonic companion’, *melkein-vaimo* ‘almost-wife’ and *Minni, ikuinen tyttöystävä* ‘Minnie, the perpetual girlfriend’. These explicitations reveal somewhat more about Minnie than *non-wife* does: in (C-3) one could detect an ironic remark by the writer, and in (C-4) perhaps even feel sorry for Minnie who never got to walk down the aisle with Mickey.

(C-3) Karjapihan kaverit ja seikkailut rautateillä vaihtuivat elämään esikaupunkialueella *melkein-vaimo* Minnin ja tyhjästä ilmestyneiden veljenpoikien kanssa. “Minni ja Mikki vain asuivat yhdessä ystävinä hyvin pitkään”, sanoo Smith.

(C-4) Maaseutuseikkailut saivat väistyä esikaupunkielämän tieltä ja Minni, *ikuinen tyttöystävä*, tuli mukaan, samoin selittämättömät veljenpojat.

All these explicitations, like explicitations in general, may easily turn into interpretations; even though these constructions are fluent in structure and of natural Finnish language, they are also very explicit - at times even considerably more pejorative than the source text expressions. Explicitations allow the translator to concentrate on the style of the text and to produce the pejorative aspect in Finnish by means of grammatical constructions that fit well in the text flow of the translations. The explicitness of these expressions can, however, also turn out to be a drawback, if the pejection is served to the reader in an all too explicit form and the

writer's intention to merely imply is lost. There is a decision to be made and it is left for the translator alone.

Table 5 below presents the types of constructions with *non-* and their frequency in the translations described in this study. The abbreviation *priv* stands for the privative meaning and the abbreviation *pejor* for the pejorative meaning.

Table 5: Compilation of the constructions and their frequency

	<i>non- musician s priv</i>	<i>non- worrier s priv</i>	<i>non- friend s priv /pejor</i>	<i>non- wife pejo r</i>	total
<i>ei-</i>	6	-	5	2	13
<i>epä-</i>	-	-	1	2	3
<i>-tOn</i>	-	9	-	-	9
<i>other than</i>	3	3	-	-	6
<i>less than</i>	2	-	-	-	2
negating (relative) clauses	2	-	1	-	3
explicitation s (clause)	-	2	-	4	6
explicitation s (lexical)	1	1	6	5	13
untranslated	3	2	1	1	7
total	17	17	14	14	62

As Table 5 shows, the most frequent Finnish constructions to appear in connection with the privative *non-* are the negative prefix *ei-*, the suffix *-tOn*, and those containing the concept of

other than. These are also the principal means of expressing contradictory negation and objective classification in Finnish. The noun phrase *non-friends*, which can be understood both privatively and pejoratively here, has been translated into a wider range of constructions, depending on how the translators have perceived the meaning. The Finnish counterparts for the pejorative *non-wife* contain mainly prefixes *ei-* and *epä-* and various types of explicitations. This supports the assumption that some of the translators see these prefixes as pejorative elements while others prefer an explicitation of some type as the most suitable alternative to express the pejoration of *non-*.

7 THE REPLIES TO THE QUESTIONNAIRE

An essential part of this study is the students' reflections on their thinking and translation processes. In connection with the translation assignments, almost all students handed in their commentary sheets, and eight students out of the seventeen replied to the questionnaire. While the number of replies was somewhat low, those who did reply gave detailed explanations for the motivations behind their Finnish translations. Moreover, they also expressed their opinions on the aspect of irony and on the acceptability and use of certain Finnish grammatical constructions.

7.1 Structural and stylistic features

The level of structural complexity in the texts progressed from the first to the last text. The third text included certain structures, such as long quotations that called for extra attention and reorganization in the translation. There were also several expressions with colorful and descriptive adjectives premodifying the head words

which may have set limitations as regards the fluency and the rhythm of the Finnish translation. These issues were mentioned in several replies and commentaries, but they were considered mainly as challenges encouraging them to seek for equally vivid expressions in Finnish as well and were not considered to affect the translation process itself. One student even noted that “translating this kind of text is almost as pleasant as translating fiction, because rich, eloquent and unpredictable language encourages the translator to reproduce these features in the translation, too, which then, in places, leads to a more liberal translation”. In light of this kind of comment, it would be interesting to see whether explicitations of other elements in a translation would produce further pejoration to the translation of the pejorative *non-*. If a translator adopts explicitations as a translation strategy, the tendency to explicitate might extend to the expressions of pejoration as well. This notion will receive further attention in my future research.

7.2 Detection of irony

The order in which the texts were to be translated paved the way for the emergence of pejorative interpretation of the prefix *non-*. The two privative nouns with *non-* in the first text left hardly any room for interpretation. The agent noun *non-friend* in the second text was in principle privative but could also be understood pejoratively, and the few comments made on this text relate to how the list with various *friends* could be arranged in the most fluent manner. As to the third text, the irony in *non-wife* was an eye-catcher: It was noted that “[t]his one of the prefixed formations was the most difficult to translate, perhaps also the most difficult to understand with respect to connotations, which is why I arrived at "even though they were not married", a roundabout expression

of sorts, which quite does not fully entail the connotations of the original one. I am not 100% happy with the translation but I could not think of any better alternative either while reflecting the text.”

Another student pointed out that "the writer has deliberately used the expression non-wife and not girlfriend because he is taunting Mickey and Minnie for the nature of the relationship” and further, as in (C-2) “[t]he writer is ironizing the unusual and strange relationship between Mickey and Minnie (and the comment in brackets by Sith [sic] elaborates the weird choice of words)”. In general, the irony proved easy to detect either intuitively or by the help of the context, and therefore, which was why the comments by the students on this expression mainly related to their choice of the Finnish constructions.

7.3 Acceptance of the prefix *epä-*

The single factor commented on livelily, both for and against, was the use of the Finnish negating prefixes *epä-* and *ei-*. The prefix *epä-* appeared in three translations only (*epäystäviä*, *epävaimo*, *epä-vaimo*,) but those in favor had a firm belief in the expressive value of the prefix: the translator of (B-2) was very pleased with the formation, describing it as a real “*bull's-eye*”, and classifying the word as a neo-formation with the prefix *epä-*. Another student claimed that “[i]n my opinion, *epävaimo* works well in this context” and also classified this word as a lexical equivalent. A third student was more hesitant and admitted that “[t]he prefixes *epä-* or *ei-* are not often the best possible translations, even though I succumbed to using one myself”.

The majority, however, considered this prefix somehow un-Finnish. One of the students pointed out: “I do not like to use prefixes *ei-* or *epä-* because they are more typical of English than

Finnish”. Another student emphasized: “I think *ei-vaimo* or *epävaimo* sound so clumsy that I didn’t even attempt to translate non-wife by using them, and that’s why I ended up using a roundabout expression”. It seems that the strength of *epä-* is also its weakness: it has an explicitly depreciatory tone, and one must consider for each translation separately whether *epä-* expresses the pejoration all too clearly. With a successful choice of head word, the prefix could produce inventive formations and convey the pejoration without revealing the irony entirely. Nevertheless, there is also a risk of producing unnatural formations that neither hint at any of the pejoration intended by the writer nor reveal the writer’s intentions explicitly, because they confuse the readers by drawing their attention to strange constructions.

7.4 Acceptance of the prefix *ei-*

In this study, the prefix *ei-* appears to be an element that fits in the Finnish translations of the privative *non-* easily and fluently – provided that the context and the sentence structure of the translation support the use of the prefix. The majority of students who used the prefix *ei-* had only little to say, whereas those not in favor of the prefix gave fairly specific explanations.

To compile some of the replies, the prefixed formations such as *ei-huolehtija* and *ei-murehtijat* were not to the students’ liking: even though the prefix had been the first solution to come to mind, the formations with *ei-* sounded either stupid or clumsy to them and they just did not fit in the Finnish language. Those who accepted the prefix motivated their choice by noting that the agent-nouns *ei-ystävä* and *ei-kaverit*, for example, fit very well in the context of listing various types of friends and were as such “sufficiently good equivalents for non-friends” and that there was no need to look for

other alternatives. A student who had used *ei-muusikot* for *non-musicians*, also praised the structural convenience of the prefix *ei-*, but added an important remark: “[...] although, if I had had more time, I might have come up with a more natural expression.” In the everyday life of professional translators, time (or the lack of it) may have a huge impact on translation strategies. It would be interesting to find out whether the interference of the source language and the convenience of inserting prefixed formations with lesser structural reorganization of the sentences might even lead to an increase in the use of prefixes.

One of the students had a clear vision of the connection between the prefixes *non-* and *ei-*: "I feel the use of the prefix *non-* is often very unambiguous and easy to understand because it can be attached almost to any English word. In Finnish this is not the case as the use of corresponding prefixes often sounds artificial and stiff (unless there is some specific reason for the use, such as irony: *ei-muusikko*, *ei-vaimo*, *ei-kaveri*)." This comment seems to indicate that the prefix *ei-* could indeed express pejoration, but only in cases where it appears as a part of a very subtle expression which in ironic contexts could be considered pejorative. It should be noted that the pejorative interpretation could in such cases vary considerably from one reader to another. However, this being the case, the prefix *ei-* might even seem to be developing along the lines of the prefix *non-* and possibly only now starting to gain the first signs of a pejorative reading as well. This kind of semantic development for *ei-* is at least theoretically possible, but requires further studies on the semantic field of *ei-*.

7.5 Explicitations in translations

In the replies to the questionnaire, the students analyzed their translations carefully with respect to explicitations as well. Depending on the viewpoint, all translations of *non-wife*, for example, could be regarded as explicitations: in addition to formations with negating clause, lexical explicitations, too, such as *ikuinen tyttöystävä*, *melkein-vaimo* or *epävaimo*, disclose the hidden ironic aspect of Minnie not being a real wife.

Some students recognized a pattern in their way of working: “I always end up either using a roundabout expression or explaining the meaning of the expression with the prefix non-.” Others explained in more detail why they preferred explicitations over other alternatives: “The prefix non- is sometimes so vague that with an explanatory translation, the translator is always taking a risk of some kind. I still think that it is worth taking the risk of overdoing it in the translation to make the text sound like fluent Finnish.”

A few students remarked that they had settled for an explicative translation or an adaptive translation of any type after first having considered prefixes and then having found them insufficient and un-Finnish. There were students who felt that they had arrived at an explicitation almost intuitively, without further reasoning, and some of them had reservations whether this was the best possible solution available:

“My translation for non-wife could have been better. I translated it as *melkein-vaimo* [almost wife]. Even today, I cannot see what else I could do here, so I really did not have any alternatives.”

“In the Mickey Mouse text, I translated the word wife with an expression ‘but they [Mickey and Minnie] were not married’. This was the first alternative that came to my mind and I did not think of any other possibilities. The translation is not particularly fluent; I could have given this a little more thought.”

One student commented that s/he always prepares a draft version of the assignment with several alternatives and more literal expressions. The final translations of all three texts contained explicitations, but the student still was not quite pleased: “In the first text I think my translation is very descriptive and explicit, in the Facebook text I left out that part altogether (it was unnecessary), and in the Mickey Mouse text my translation made the text kind of dull but I could not think of a better solution either [...]”.

It is surprising that the students did not seem to be content with their explanatory translations. In particular, the type of explicitations constructed with a negating clause and lexical pejorative elements, for example, are fluent expressions with native Finnish structures, which is why they usually fit in the text flow with ease, even if they are somewhat lengthy. Perhaps the hesitation relates to an uncertainty about how much to disclose – one of the students pointed out that an explicitation may slight the writer’s intentions: “Although a roundabout expression does not always reveal ‘the entire idea’ for the use of the prefix, as in the case of non-wife: the writer has deliberately used the specific expression non-wife and not girlfriend because he is mocking the nature of the relationship between Mickey and Minnie”.

8 CONCLUSIONS

The goal of this study was to observe how students of English translation perceived the two meanings of the prefix *non-* used in three American newspaper columns and to examine the students' intuitive reactions to the pejorative *non-*. Each column gave the prefix a different aspect: either the privative or the pejorative meaning or, as in one of the columns, both. Another goal was to study what kind of syntactic means and semantic solutions the students prefer in their Finnish translations and, on the basis of their self-assessments, whether they had any reservations over prefixed formations and explicitations in their translations.

The students translated each text as a curriculum assignment, wrote commentaries and submitted their replies to a questionnaire prepared for this study. They reported their general impressions of the assignment and the source text and their own evaluation of how they had performed and a list of any challenging or difficult issues they had encountered in the translation process. They also addressed the irony in the expressions containing *non-* and explained the motivations behind the constructions they had used in their Finnish translations. In general, the students had no difficulties understanding the prefix in concordance with the context, and they analyzed their translations carefully and in detail.

As to the syntactic means and semantic solutions that the students used in the Finnish translations, there were two main observations to mention. First of all, in the translations of expressions containing the privative aspect of *non-*, the most popular constructions were the Finnish privative prefix *ei-* and the denominal suffix *-ton*. Various constructions containing the excluding phrase *other than* were also considered suitable

equivalents. On the whole, the privative aspect involved no particular difficulties, but the main emphasis was on the overall fluency of the Finnish translation.

The pejorative aspect of *non-* was translated mainly with various explicitative expressions – either lexical pejorative expressions or by means of clausal negation with additional pejorative elements. Those students who chose an explicitation emphasized the fact that this strategy could reveal too much pejoration in comparison to the expression with *non-* and thus fail to respect the writer's choice of a subtle depreciatory phrase. The absolute benefit of explicitations was reported to be flexibility – an explicitative phrase or sentence was easy to include in the rhythm and syntax of the Finnish language. A surprising notion was that many of the students expressed their discontent on their explicitative translations, as if they had been hoping to create a Finnish expression that was more accurate on some level. It was mentioned that explicitation might be the most applicable strategy in the absence of a corresponding Finnish prefix with a dual meaning. This notion will be studied further in my forthcoming dissertation, where I will discuss the role of explicitations as a possible primary translation strategy of the pejorative prefix *non-*. The concept of stylistic explicitations will thus be further analyzed in connection with constructions where clausal negation with additional pejorative elements is chosen as an equivalent to expressions with the prefix *non-*.

The prefixes *ei-* and *epä-* were also given as equivalents for the pejorative *non-*. Some students pointed out that a prefix was the first alternative to come to mind when time was at a premium. According to many students, these prefixes were too rare and sounded too un-Finnish to appear in a pejorative construction in the context of a newspaper column. For others, however, the prefixes were a stylistic means or a way to surprise the reader with an unusual ad hoc formation. There were also comments on the

possibility of using the prefix *ei-* in ironic contexts in the same way as the prefix *non-*. This would imply that the prefix *ei-* could indeed express pejoration, but only in cases where it appears as part of a very subtle euphemistic expression, which in certain ironic contexts could be considered pejorative. It should be noted that the pejorative interpretation could in such cases vary considerably from one reader to another. However, this being the case, the prefix *ei-* might even seem to be developing along the lines of the prefix *non-* and possibly only now starting to gain the first signs of a pejorative reading as well. In my future research, I will look into the possibility of this intriguing development of the semantic segmentation of the Finnish negative prefixes.

From an educational point of view, the assignments gave the students an opportunity to discuss the limitations and possibilities of the English and Finnish languages to express pejoration by negation and to assess the applicability of different translation strategies in the expression of irony. The assignments also demonstrated how important it is to consider the genre of the source text in relation to the nuances of expression in text. However, the most important lesson for the students was perhaps to realize and accept the limitations of the translation process, to justify the choices and to bear the idea that there may never be such a thing as a perfect translation, and especially, to settle for an adequately valid translation.

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RISK REDUCTION IN TRAINING FOR SPECIALISED INVERSE TRANSLATION: RESULTS OF AN EMPIRICAL STUDY

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Abstract

This article presents a model of the specialised inverse translation process which includes the innovative idea of different stages in the translation process in direct and inverse translation. Using this mode in translator training it is hoped that specialised inverse translation students acquire self-assurance when making decisions, which will be possible particularly by applying their theoretical knowledge. The model offers guidelines for detecting and solving certain translation problems which are specific to specialised inverse translation and which are frequently encountered in the field. The usefulness of this model in specialised inverse translation classes, above all in helping to reduce risks, has been proven empirically in an experiment using translation students, the results of which we present below.

1 INTRODUCTION

In his statement “Le thème n’existe pas” (inverse translation does not exist), René Ladmial questions the effectiveness of translation into a foreign language. Nonetheless, data exists that confirms the importance of inverse translation both in the translation market and in the training of translators.

As examples, we could cite studies by Schmidt (1990, 1993 and 1998) in Germany and Roiss (2001) in Spain, which demonstrate that professional translators frequently carry out inverse translation: In Spain, these constitute approximate 23% of the total of professional translation assignments, while in Germany the percentage is around 45%. It is worth noting that the great majority of these inverse translation briefs could be considered translations of specialised or practical texts.

As data obtained from my own examination of the study plans of four-year Degrees in Translation and Interpreting in five Spanish and German universities shows, translation into a foreign-language also plays an important role in the training of translators. In the study plans for translation courses in Germany, approximately 45% of the translation subjects on offer involved inverse translation, while in Spain the figure was 30%.

2 THE SPECIALISED INVERSE TRANSLATION PROCESS MODEL APPLIED TO TEACHING AND REDUCING RISKS

Students on the Degree in Translation and Interpreting consider specialised inverse translation one of the most complicated subjects they study. The reason for this is the insecurity they feel, due to their (limited) knowledge of the target language, on the one hand, and their lack of confidence when taking decisions, on the other.

This is why reducing risk and minimizing any lack of confidence are key concepts in teaching specialised inverse translation, given that translating practical or specialised texts from one's mother tongue into a foreign language implies, as any expert knowledge

does, the constant taking of decisions. These are often risky decisions, resulting in a *Sonderform des Risikomanagements*, in the words of Wolfram Wilss; that is to say, we are dealing with a specialised form of risk management. The aim of training is to help minimise the risks, as also pointed out by Hansen (1997): “In inverse translation, it often happens that a translator doesn't realise that their translation is unacceptable, or that they have other options open to them” (p.133). In addition, the student translating into a foreign-language tends to imitate structures in their L1 and lacks security when making decisions. According to Hansen, this is why inverse translation classes should plan to help students to learn to recognise errors and apply problem-solving strategies.

Another essential factor in inverse translation is the principle of exactitude, as well as economy of effort (Hatim and Mason, 1990), not forgetting linguistic adaptation, so that the translated text does not attract the attention of a native speaker in any negative way: Translation should be governed by the criteria of “reliability and respectability” (McAlester, 1992, cited in Kelly, 2003, p.57).

With these premises as our starting point, along with the data from the experiment into translator competence carried out by the PACTE research group at the Autonomous University of Barcelona (which indicated that the translation process does not occur in parallel ways in direct and inverse translation), we have drawn up a model of the process of specialised inverse translation applied to teaching. Although this was conceived with reference to the linguistic combination Spanish to German, we believe it is applicable to other linguistic combinations. As shown in figure 1, this model takes as its point of reference Neunzig and Grauwinkel's “Five Phase Model of the Translation Process” (2007) expanding it with theoretical components. The theory behind the model, explained in specialised inverse translation classes, as well as its application through tasks and exercises, aims

to help students reduce risks when translating, thereby producing more acceptable translations.⁷

⁷ In this present article, we are limiting ourselves to the "risk reduction" component and its results. For the complete presentation of the model, consult Wimmer, 2011.

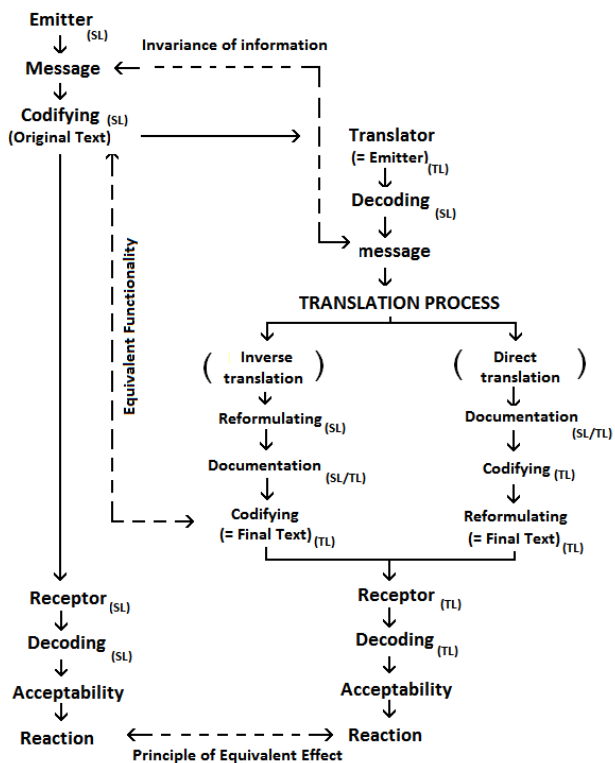


Figure 1. Flowchart of the specialised inverse translation process model.

1.1 Phases in the translation process

In this chart of the model, we can see that phases in the inverse translation process are inverted compared with direct translation. Thus, translators make the best of their native skills in the original language and compensate for any lack of competence in the

foreign language, thereby reducing risks when translating into a language that is not their mother tongue.

We start from the hypothesis that in direct translation the greater linguistic command translators have in the target language comes into play when revising the final version of the translation, in which translators finally resolve problems that arose in the transference phase. With inverse translation, on the other hand, translators make best use of their greater command of the source language when preparing the original text before facing the later phase of transference. This is simpler for them and minimises the risk of them committing errors. Translators make best use of their command of the mother tongue and their theoretical knowledge about translation so that “[...] before proceeding to the transference phase, they can foresee the difficulties inherent in the transference process” (Grauwinkel and Neunzig, 2004, p. 176).

One piece of data that supports this observation comes from measuring the time spent on each phase. The subjects (experienced professional translators) observed by the PACTE research group, spent 6% and 8% of their time on direct and inverse translations, respectively, during the orientation phase. That is, the reading of the text and preparing to begin the translation. However, with direct translation some 53% of time was spent during the transference phase and 39% during the reformulation or revision phase, whereas with inverse translation 82% of the time was spent during the transference phase and only 12% on the revision. These results would seem to indicate that, with inverse translations, expert translators know that they are not in a position to be able to detect errors during the revision phase and therefore prefer to spend more time on the transference phase solving problems that arise during that phase.

1.2 Risk reduction in the specialised inverse translation process model

Risk reduction in specialised inverse translation is especially important in the decoding phase, where the translator recognises any "traps" in the original text: thanks to their native command of the source language, translators can detect particular errors and "bad habits" in the original language and thereby ensure correct reception of the original text.

When understanding specialised texts, translators have two specific difficulties: a lack of specialised knowledge on the one hand (translators are not always experts in the subject treated) and language problems on the other. These linguistic problems are usually due to linguistic imprecision and errors in applying rules and conventions that the authors of the texts have committed because they are specialists in the subject and not in language. Any such imprecision can cause serious comprehension problems for the non-native speaker of the source language, given that he or she is dependent on mechanisms of coherence and cohesion in order to fully understand the text. These "bad habits" are difficult to detect in the source language for the non-native translator and can lead to serious translation errors. The L1 native speaker, however, recognises these "traps" instinctively and eliminates them, keeping only the relevant content and avoiding the risk of transmitting erroneous information.

Some of the "traps" that can be found in specialized texts in Spanish might be the use of pronouns and vague allusions: *Consecuentemente, los lenguajes naturales funcionan independientemente de las lenguas de especialidad, basándose estas últimas en aquella* {Lit. Tr.: consequently, natural languages work independently of specialised languages *these latter* being

based on *that*}. Other examples include the use of redundant adjectives (“in female pregnancies”) or the omission of implicit information (in a text on stainless steel plates, for example, reference is made indiscriminately to “stainless steel plates” and “plates” taken as synonyms, when in the target language, in our case German, you would always need to specify and talk of “Tisch der Bandsäge”). Another example in Spanish is the use of synonyms with the conjunction “and” or “or” (“rampa de entrada o acceso”) {Lit: Tr: access or entrance ramp}, even though this involves repeating terms, a practice detested by the stylistic canons of Spanish (and other Latin languages).

In the specialised inverse translation classes in which we have applied this model, emphasis is placed on these (and other) possible "traps" and exercises are done in class aimed at correctly detecting them.

In the next phase of the translation process in inverse translation (reformulation) translators perform an intra-linguistic translation. They apply different translation techniques in the source language, their mother tongue, in order to simplify the original text so that it can be translated without any great effort. In one sense, we are dealing with a risk minimisation strategy, because the translator only has to transfer known and “prepared” concepts into the foreign-language, while in another sense we are dealing with a translation economy strategy, given that this way, in the documentation phase, the translator can concentrate only on the most important terminology. In order to familiarise students with this concept we use the interpretive translation model of Seleskovitch and Lederer. These authors consider translation to be a process of reconstruction of meaning in three phases (comprehension, de-verbalisation and re-expression of the meaning. Nevertheless, this "meaning equivalence" can only be applied to translation of the textual elements not considered to be

carrying the bulk of the information. In contrast, in the case of the most important elements, trans-codifying must be applied. In other words, a formal correspondence must be found. This requires a greater effort at documentation.

In the third phase (documentation), translators carry out any term searches needed. From a didactic point of view we must stress the use of documentation strategies specific to inverse specialised translation, such as the use of Internet search engines like “Google” as a bilingual dictionary or as a measure for confirming the correct use of an expression in the target language. These “confirmation of use” mechanisms are employed throughout the course because in translating into a foreign language students may use erroneous expressions without realising it and constant insistence on confirmation reduces the risk of committing such errors.

The fourth phase (codifying) consists of linguistic transference: ensuring that the adaptation of the text respects the appropriate syntactic, formal, linguistic, stylistic and cultural conventions in the target language. In order to do this, the didactic application of the model in the classroom deals with concrete aspects of some of the most important linguistic and formal conventions in German (such as the use of the passive voice, modal verbs, the formation of composite words, etc.)

Finally, we wish to stress that our model of the specialised inverse translation process tries to make students aware of the need to combine theoretical, or declarative, knowledge with practical or operative know-how, in the translation of a text. In this way, students become more conscious of their decisions and learn to justify them. In addition, we believe that this contributes to improving the acceptability of student translations, since if they are able to define the problem, estimate the difficulty of a

translation, contextualise the translation brief and correctly judge the acceptability of any solutions proposed, they will be able to make decisions more securely and without taking unnecessary risks. Thus, we ensure students translate in accordance with the principle of risk reduction.

3 DESIGN OF THE EXPERIMENTAL STUDY

Specialised inverse translation, such as we have noted in our model, demands knowledge, competences, abilities and strategies of great complexity. In our empirical-experimental research we have tried to demonstrate that the application of our proposed model constitutes a good way of transmitting the know-how necessary for translating into a foreign language to the next generation of translators.

In our experiment, we have also obtained interesting data related to the concept of risk reduction, since it appears that our model does contribute to reducing risks and increasing the confidence of students when translating a specialised text into a foreign language, which is what we focus on here.

We chose a repeated measurement type of study, which consists of comparing the results of a single experimental group exposed to different interventions. Data collection in this type of experiment is carried out before and after a particular intervention and the results obtained are then compared. In our particular case, interventions involved the application of our model in classes of: “*STEB Inversa Aleman*” (Specialised Inverse Translation B - German) for a semester, which students of the Faculty of Translation and Interpreting at the Autonomous University of Barcelona were following in the fourth year of their Degree in

Translation and Interpreting, usually in the second semester. Nevertheless, data was also collected from the beginning and the end of the first semester, when students had only received training in direct translation. This was done in order to have data available from which we could extrapolate conclusions about training in direct specialised translation compared with inverse specialised translation.

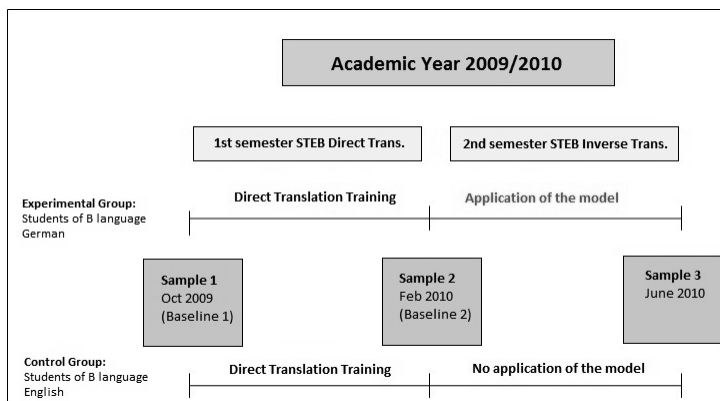


Figure 2. Experimental Design of the Empirical Study

As can be observed in the illustration, we compared the results obtained from the subjects (students in the fourth year of their Degree in Translation and Interpreting) in the experimental group in Sample 1 (inverse translation of a specialised text 1), Sample 2 (inverse translation of a specialised text 2) and Sample 3 (inverse translation of a specialised text 3). We expected results from Sample 1 and Sample 2 to be similar, since the group had not received any specific training in inverse translation in accordance with our specialised translation process model and we expected to find relevant differences in Sample 3 (after receiving training in accordance with our model): We expected the translations done by

subjects in the experimental group would be more acceptable than the others and hoped that students who had been taught using our model would feel more confident about solutions they had come up with in their translations and would have a greater ability to reflect on decisions taken during the translations.

3.1 The experimental world and samples

The design of the experiment required the selection of a sample using intentional or biased soundings (where researchers choose subjects that they feel are more representative) given that we were working with an experimental group and a control group whose subjects had to have certain characteristics: it was necessary that all the subjects of the experimental group had experienced the intervention (classes in specialised inverse translation in accordance with our model: having studied STEB inverse translation into German) and the control group had not to have received this training (rather have experienced "normal" specialised inverse translation classes: STEB inverse translation into English). We also had to avoid, for example, that there was any cross-fertilisation in the experiment from ERASMUS exchange students or other native speakers of the target language.

The sample for our study was as follows:

- Experimental group: Nine 4th Year students taking the subject STEB Direct Translation German to Spanish in the first semester [for Samples 1 and 2] and STEB Inverse Translation Spanish to German in the second semester [for Sample 3]
- Control group: Ten 4th Year students taking the subject STEB Direct Translation English to Spanish in the first semester [for Samples 1 and 2] and STEB Inverse Translation Spanish to English in the second semester [for Sample 3]

In order to control random variables, all of the subjects in the sample had to have the following characteristics:

- They had to have taken (and passed) the subject “Inverse Translation” in the second year of their degree.
- They had to have taken (and passed) the “B Language” subjects (B1, B2, B3 & B4), in German and English respectively, in their first and second years.
- Their native language had to be Spanish

By choosing a control group of students from B Language English with similar characteristics to the experimental group, we could be sure that the difference that we expected to obtain in Sample 3 with respect to the previous two samples could be wholly attributed to the intervention: i.e. to training received in accordance with the application of our model, and not to factors such as training time, which could distort the results.

3.2 Experimental variables

In our study, we analysed the influence of the didactic application of our specialised translation process model (the independent variable) on STEB inverse translation classes associated with the following dependent variables:

- a) the faithfulness of the inverse translation of a specialised text: its acceptability
- b) the ability of students to reflect on solutions reached in their translations
- c) the subjective feeling of confidence and self satisfaction of students with respect to their translations.

These variables were useful in validating our specialised inverse translation process mode, given that this model was designed to be

applied in specialised inverse translation classes with the aim that students would learn to reduce risks and so translate better and with more confidence.

Additionally, we analysed if the criterion of economy of effort was attained, that is if the students carried out the translation task and resolved the problems of the translation in a reasonable time. For this, we were able to add a fourth dependent variable:

- d) the time spent on the translation and on each different phase.

3.3 Tools used for data collection

Various data collection tools were used in our experiment:

- a) The original texts and the translations of the subjects. Based on years of experience by the teachers of the STEB inverse translation subject, 3 different specialised texts were selected, but which were directly comparable⁸.
- b) The translation process was recorded using *Camtasia Studio*. Employing the user monitoring programme *Camtasia Studio*, all of the subjects' actions were recorded onto the computer (writing, multimedia searches, pauses, etc.)
- c) The Translation Report. This involved a type of questionnaire in which students had to respond, after carrying out the translation, to a total of twelve questions in order to obtain data about the difficulty of

⁸ To ensure the parity of the chosen texts, we applied the Semantic Differential technique which allowed us to measure the reception of a particular text (See: Wimmer, 2011, p. 184 ff.)

the text, the translation task, the understanding of the segment in question, the type of problem found, the theoretical justification for decisions made, the subjective satisfaction with solutions proposed and finally, the sources of any documentation consulted.

- d) The questionnaire. This was a questionnaire that students had to fill in after completing the translation. Through this questionnaire we were able to obtain information about the degree of comprehension of the original text, the level of confidence when making decisions and the level of self-satisfaction with the translation as a whole.

3.4 The “Rich Points” concept

In order to measure the acceptability of our subjects’ translations we did not analyse the entire translated text, but rather, for reasons of experimental economy, we only concentrated on certain previously chosen segments that reflected what we were trying to analyse. This data collection and analysis technique turned out to be very useful in the experiment carried out by the PACTE group (See: “Characterising Rich Points” in PACTE, 2005b, p. 579).

We chose five rich points in each of the texts:

- a) Specialised terms. Highly specialised terms were used requiring an elevated level of research and which demanded the use of particular collocations. (Example: to exercise pre-emptive right)
- b) Synonym. Different words were used to designate the same concept, which could lead to comprehension errors in English and German. (Example: “Buyer” and “Purchaser”)

- c) Omission of implicit information. Omitting part of a syntagm that dealt with information previously made explicit in the text, but which could be deemed necessary in the target language for reasons of linguistic and textual adaptation and to ensure the harmony of the concept. (Example: “Association” instead of “Property Owners Association”).
- d) Redundant adjectives or nouns with “and” or “or” The use of analogous concepts united by the conjunctions “and” or “or” as if different concepts were being dealt with. (Example: “entrance and access ramp”. This is a very common "bad habit" found in specialised Spanish texts, but which could confuse the German or English reader).
- e) Vague references Using pronouns or adjectives to reference a previous concept to avoid repeating it, but without making it clear what is being referred to. (Example: 3rd Art.: *No obstante por su destino exclusivo al uso y servicio de las mismas, son comunes a las fincas de la planta sótano el pasillo de distribución o maniobra situado en la misma*”), {Lit.Tr. “However, due to their being reserved for the use and service *of the same*, the hall and landing situated on the basement floor *of the same* are considered common spaces”} which is open to misunderstandings.

These rich points are strictly linked to the "traps" that, as we mentioned previously, specialised texts in Spanish often present and which motivated the drawing up of our specialised inverse translation process model.

The texts to be translated, with their corresponding rich points, can be consulted in Wimmer, 2011, p. 382-386.

The following table sums up the most relevant aspects of the experimental design.

THE FAITHFULNESS OF THE TRANSLATIONS	
CONCEPTUAL DEFINITION	The faithfulness of the translations from a didactic perspective.
INDICATORS	Acceptability. “Trap” recognition
TOOLS	The translations.
ORIGIN OF THE DATA	“Rich Points” in the students’ translations.
THE ABILITY TO REFLECT	
CONCEPTUAL DEFINITION	The ability of students to relate their decision-making to theoretical concepts which they have learned in specialised inverse translation classes.
INDICATORS	Subjective difficulty of the translation. Translation brief. Identifying problem types. Theoretical justification for decisions. Satisfaction with proposed solutions.
TOOLS	The Translation Report.
ORIGIN OF THE DATA	Subject responses to questions asked in the translation report.
TIME SPENT ON THE TRANSLATION	
CONCEPTUAL DEFINITION	The time students spend doing the translation.
INDICATORS	Overall time. Distribution of the phases of translation.
TOOLS	Translation protocols (videos) recorded using the user monitoring programme <i>Camtasia</i> .
ORIGIN OF THE DATA	The actions that subjects carried out as monitored and recorded by <i>Camtasia</i> .
STUDENT CONFIDENCE WHEN TRANSLATING	
CONCEPTUAL DEFINITION	Student confidence when making decisions about the translation of a specialised text into a foreign language.

INDICATORS	Degree of comprehension of original text. Index of confidence when taking decisions. Index of self-satisfaction with the translation as a whole.
TOOLS	The questionnaire.
ORIGIN OF THE DATA	Subject responses to questions asked in the questionnaire.

Table. 1 Summary of the experimental design's most relevant concepts

4 RESULTS

An analysis of the results of our study was carried out by triangulating data obtained from an analysis of the recordings of the translation process with *Camtasia*, an analysis of the subjects' translations (the "rich points") and an analysis of the questionnaires.

Results were obtained for the four variables: "faithfulness of the translations", "ability to reflect", "time spent on the translation", and "student confidence when translating", using a total of twelve indicators. In addition, data was cross-referenced from some of the indicators.

We will now describe the most relevant results that were directly related to the concept of risk reduction, in particular the indicators of "acceptability", "trap recognition" and the "index of confidence when taking decisions".

4.1 Acceptability

The criterion for acceptability refers to the faithfulness of the specialised inverse translations carried out by the subjects in the

three samples. This data was of great relevance in vindicating our specialised inverse translation process model, since the main objective of the appropriate application (through teaching) of our model consisted precisely in students learning to produce better quality translations, or, at least, avoiding committing particular errors.

In our research, the acceptability of translations was measured based on solutions found for the five common translation problems posed in the three texts (the above-mentioned "rich points").

In order to measure the acceptability of a translation of each of the rich points, we defined criteria to distinguish between acceptable, semi-acceptable and unacceptable solutions.

Acceptability was defined, in PACTE's terms (PACTE, 2009, p. 217), based on whether the solution found efficiently communicated a) the meaning of the original text; b) the function of the translation (taking into account the translation brief, reader expectations in the target language and textual conventions in the target culture); and c) if the language used was appropriate.

Naturally, assigning categories to solutions proposed by the subjects was carried out with the help of experts in inverse translation (lecturers in inverse translation into German and English respectively).

Using a combination of these categories, we obtained 27 possible permutations and each final category was assigned a numeric value: A= 1; SA= 0.5 & NA= 0, as shown in the following table:

Meaning	Function	Language	Category	Numeric value
A	A	A		
A	A	SA		
A	SA	A	A	1
A	SA	SA		
SA	A	A		
A	A	NA		
A	SA	NA		
A	NA	A		
A	NA	SA	SA	0.5
SA	SA	A		
SA	SA	SA		
SA	A	SA		
A	NA	NA		
AS	SA	NA	NA	0
etc.				

Table 2: Table showing permutations, categories and numerical values for the indicator "Acceptability" (PACTE, 2009, p. 217)

Within the framework of the analysis of the acceptability of the translations, we can study the data from two different points of view: the improvement in quality of the translations over the period of the course (comparisons between the three samples) on the one hand, and "trap" recognition and its relationship to the acceptability of solutions on the other.

4.1.1 Improvements in acceptability

In order to directly validate our specialised inverse translation process model, the most effective indicator was deemed to be identifying improvements in the acceptability of the translations, since this would demonstrate if the intervention received (or its lack in the case of the control group) caused, or failed to cause, an increase in acceptability.

Analysing the rich points of each subject of the study, we calculated the index of acceptability per rich point of each subject, as well as the average for each experimental group, as shown in the following table:

German						
Rich Point	Term	Reference	Redundancy	Synonym	Omission	TOTAL
1st sample	0.11	0.77	0.17	0.11	0.11	0.23
2nd sample	0.17	0.44	0.44	0.22	0.39	0.36
3rd sample	0.83	0.61	0.67	0.83	0.78	0.74
English						
Rich Point	Term	Reference	Redundancy	Synonym	Omission	TOTAL
1st sample	0.41	0.50	0.32	0.27	0.50	0.40
2nd sample	0.08	0.46	0.30	0.25	0.42	0.31
3rd sample	0.45	0.41	0.32	0.36	0.73	0.45

Table 3: Index of the acceptability per rich point in each sample (experimental and control groups)

We obtained interesting results with reference to the behaviour of the subjects, taking into account the acceptability of all the rich points in general. As can be seen in the following illustration, the general index of acceptability increased in a much more accentuated way in the experimental group than in the control group over the period of the three samples. We attributed this to the influence of the intervention in the second semester of the course, because until receiving said intervention, both groups behaved in a similar manner.

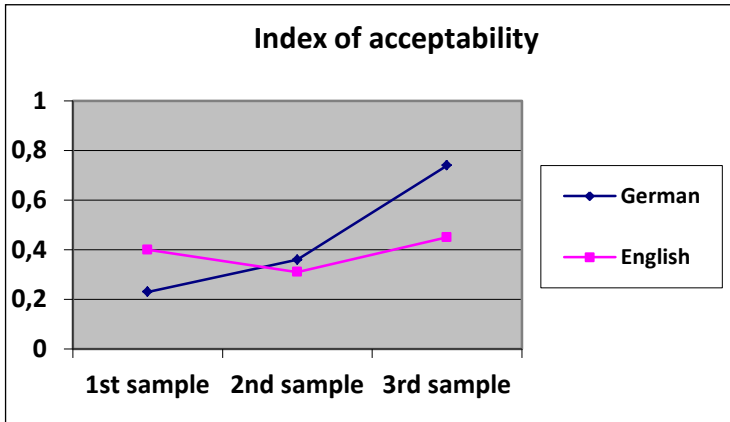


Figure 3: Index of the acceptability for each group (experimental and control)

4.1.2 “Trap” recognition

The didactic application of our model aims to teach specialised inverse translation students to resolve a particular type of problem (“traps”) with the greatest confidence possible. To do so, it is a great advantage to be able to recognise “traps” in the original language and that is why we have analysed the percentage of “traps” recognised by the subjects.

To determine if the subject had recognised a “trap” or not, we based our decision on the solutions the subject proposed. By studying these, we could deduce if the subject had realised there was a trap, even if they had not resolved it satisfactorily:

- in the case of the collocation and the term, this would mean that the subject had found the correct (or semi-correct) collocation.
- in the case of a vague reference, the student points out the element referred to (even if this is not well handled from a linguistic point of view)
- in the case of redundancies, the student simplifies;
- with synonyms, they should repeat the same term (unless this term is not correct)
- in the case of omissions, they should repeat the entire concept explicitly

The following illustration shows the results of this indicator:

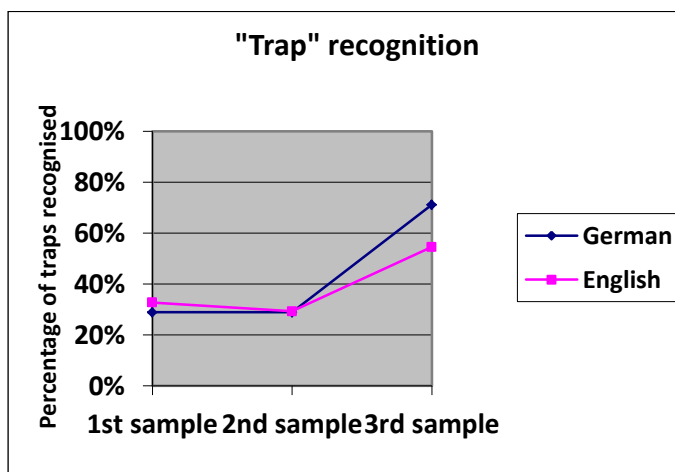


Figure 4: "Trap" recognition per sample (experimental and control group)

Both groups behaved similarly before receiving training in specialised inverse translation: they recognised approximately a

third of the "traps" in the first and second sample. However, in the third sample, we were able to observe an increase in the recognition of "traps": Students in the English group recognised approximately half the "traps", while students in the German group achieved a figure of 70%, a clear increase. This increase in the German group's efficiency can be explained by the intervention they received through the didactic application of our model, which aims to make students aware of the existence of "traps" in the original language and teach them how to resolve them and hence avoid risks.

4.1.3 "Trap" recognition and acceptability

Data obtained in the indicators - "trap" recognition and the acceptability of solutions proposed by the students - indicate that there could be a correlation between both indicators: with an increase in "trap" recognition, there also seems to be an increase in the acceptability of the results.

	German		English	
	Acceptability	Recognition	Acceptability	Recognition
1st sample	0.23	28.89%	0.40	32.73%
2nd sample	0.36	28.89%	0.32	28.33%
3rd sample	0.74	71.11%	0.46	54.55%

Table 4: Relationship between index of acceptability to "trap" recognition in the experimental and control groups

In order to prove, statistically, if a correlation exists between the index of acceptability and the percentage of "traps" the subjects recognise, we carried out a Pearson "r" test, resulting in $r = 0.97$.

So we can affirm that there is indeed a positive correlation between the index of acceptability and the percentage of "traps" recognised by the subject. In contrast, if we carry out the same statistical test with the data obtained from the English group, the result $r = 0.91$ is at the limits of significance. So, in this case, the index of acceptability and the percentage of "traps" recognised are definitely travelling on the same bearing.

In order to verify these tendencies, we studied in greater depth the acceptability of the solutions proposed when the subjects recognised the "trap". We have consequently been able to prove that a greater recognition of the "traps" leads to greater acceptability. In the German group we observed in the third sample that if students recognised the "trap", their solutions were acceptable in 87.5% of cases and semi-acceptable in 12.5%. Where "traps" were not recognised, 53.85% of their solutions were not acceptable, 38.46% were semi-acceptable and only 7.69% were acceptable. In English, on the other hand if the students recognised the "trap"(in the third sample), their solutions were acceptable 43.33% of the time and semi-acceptable in 46.67% of cases, whereas if the trap was not recognised, 64% of their solutions were not acceptable, 32% were semi-acceptable and only 4% were acceptable. These trends are reflected in the following illustrations:

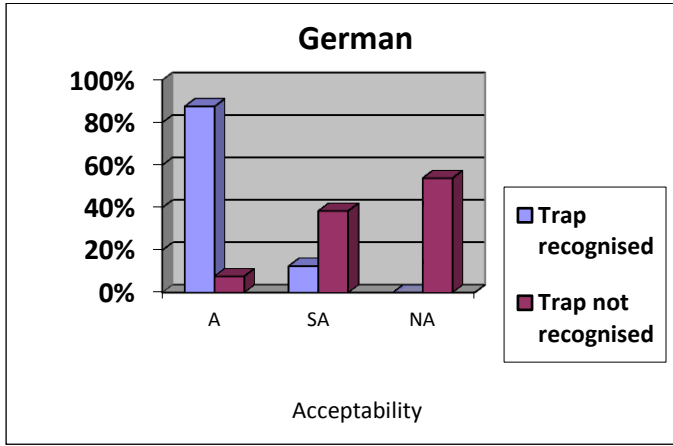


Figure 5: Relationship between Acceptability to "Trap" recognition in the third sample (experimental group)

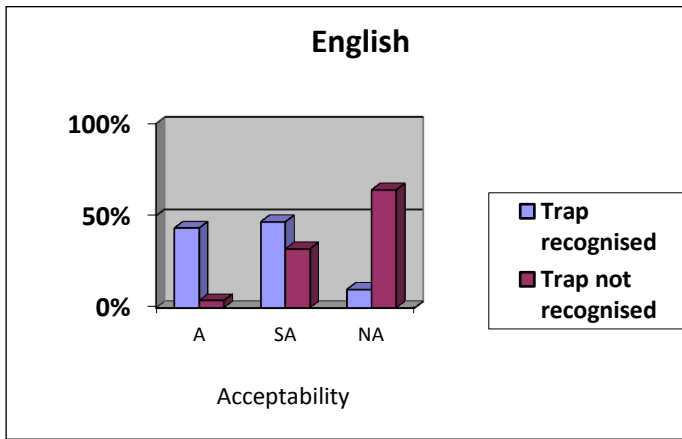


Figure 6: Relationship between Acceptability to "Trap" recognition in the third sample (control group)

We can note, therefore, that the trends are the same in the two groups: recognising the "trap" leads to better results than if they

are not recognised. We can therefore affirm that reducing the risk of falling into a "trap" leads to better results.

We wish to underline that our perception of the concept of acceptability in our study is merely didactic. In our research we are not validating the general faithfulness of translations, but rather the fact that the model we are proposing offers significant help in solving certain problems that are common to specialised inverse translation. In other words, we are evaluating the usefulness of the application of our model, especially that of phase two in which the original text is reformulated and any "traps" are eliminated.

4.2 Student confidence when translating

This variable attempts to measure student confidence when making decisions during the translation of a specialised text into a foreign language. For data collection a questionnaire was used in order to obtain data about the degree of comprehension of the original text, the index of student confidence when taking decisions and the index of student self-satisfaction with the translation as a whole.

We now go on to present the results of the indicator “index of confidence when taking decisions”, since this is strictly linked to the concept of risk reduction: We believe that the fact that students know they are not going to have to run unnecessary risks when translating makes them feel more secure, which is reflected in the index of confidence.

We believe that with appropriate training in specialised inverse translation, all students will tend to feel more secure and gain confidence in themselves. The objective consists then in making

students feel more secure when taking decisions and making them more capable of reducing risks and translating “on solid ground”, especially by avoiding the above mentioned “traps”.

Here is the data obtained from this indicator:

<i>Sample</i>	<i>German</i>	<i>English</i>
1st sample	0.42	0.46
2nd sample	0.61	0.60
3rd sample	0.73	0.50

Table 5: Index of confidence in the experimental and control groups (table)

In the following illustration the development of student confidence can be seen with more clarity:

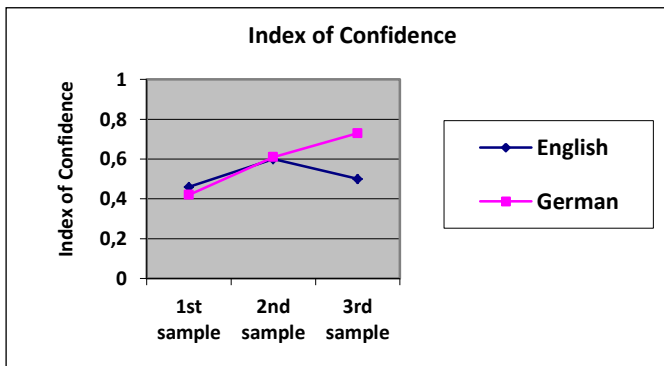


Figure 7: Index of confidence

The illustration shows that in the second sample, confidence increased in both groups, which can be attributed to them having been introduced to specialised language in the timetabled subject “Specialised Direct Translation Seminar”, meaning that the topic was no longer as foreign to them as it had been in the first sample. However, in the third sample, the students in the English group showed that they still needed tools for resolving an inverse translation task with confidence. The students in the German group, in contrast, did receive training aimed at giving them tools for taking decisions with greater confidence and less risk, which is reflected in their increased index of confidence in the third sample.

5 CONCLUSIONS

From results obtained from the indicators “acceptability”, “trap recognition” and the “index of confidence when making decisions”, we can draw the following conclusions about risk reduction in specialised inverse translation training:

First, it has been proven that the application of our model contributes to increasing the faithfulness of translations. Looking at the general acceptability of our subjects’ translations we have been able to observe that the index of acceptability (always measured using the "rich points", in other words, the "traps") of the experimental group increased in a noticeably accentuated way from the second to the third sample; much more so than in the control group, where the level remained similar across the three samples. This is why we believe we can affirm that the application of our model appears to increase the acceptability of student translations. However, it is worth pointing out that our concept of acceptability is merely a didactic concept, focused on the reduction of risks. Besides, there has not yet been an exhaustive study of the relationship between the acceptability of the "rich points" and

acceptability of the whole translation, which is why we cannot boldly affirm that the subjects of the experimental group translate better than those of the control group. We can simply observe that our model appears to provide great help when resolving particular types of translation problems.

Likewise, the correlation between "trap" recognition and acceptability (better recognition leads to better acceptability) indicates that thanks to the application of our model, students have learned techniques to reduce risk and avoid falling into "traps", which resulted in an increase in the faithfulness of their translations.

Secondly, we can affirm that the application of our model contributes to increasing the confidence of students when translating. We have been able to observe that student confidence increased from the first to the second sample in both groups, which we can fairly safely attribute to their training in specialised direct translation. In the case of the experimental group the increase continued in the third sample, in contrast to the control group. This result clearly indicates that the application of our model provides tools for students aiding them to resolve problems and reduce risks, so that they feel more secure and confident when translating.

Finally, we would like to mention that our research constitutes another advance in the field of inverse translation didactics and, in particular, in the didactics of specialised inverse translation. In this latter field, above all, we would like to note the lack of didactic models based on empirical studies and we hope that our research has gone some small way to improving the situation.

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