

**Trainee Translators' Autonomous and Reflective Learning –
Using Diary, Think-Aloud and Small Group Discussion
Activities**

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Abstract

The purpose of the present study is to investigate how a group of Chinese trainee translators' learning processes might be facilitated by three reflective learning modes - diary, think-aloud, and small group discussion - in a trainer-led autonomous- learning setting. All of the trainee translators were students studying in a two-year MA interpreting and translating programme in the UK.

Literature on the fields of translation pedagogy, autonomous learning, motivation and reflective learning is reviewed, followed by a more general review on previous research into the use of diary, think-aloud techniques and small group discussion in learning.

A pilot study on three trainee translators was first carried out. In the main study, on 23 trainee translators, data was collected through interview investigation, questionnaire surveys, and a learning workshop in which each of the trainee translators experienced two of the three learning modes in question. Qualitative analyses were carried out to identify strengths and weaknesses of each learning mode and to explore the reasons behind them. A comparative analysis then identified the relative advantages and disadvantages among the three learning modes.

The findings show that the diary learning mode facilitates problem identification through wider and deeper thinking, but is less capable of providing translation solutions. The think-aloud learning mode has several polarized effects: improving vs. deteriorating translation quality, increasing vs. decreasing translation speed, and helping identify problems vs. causing more mistakes. The small group discussion mode is better at providing solutions but risks misleading discussion members. Comparative analysis suggests that heightened awareness of translating processes in all the three modes can result in more effective and efficient learning for trainee translators.

The conclusion chapter discusses implications of the present study for translation training, followed by suggestions for translator trainers and possible further research.

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Chapter One

Introduction

1. Introduction

The globalised economy has made bilingual communication a common phenomenon. This, in turn, has created an increasing demand for qualified translators in a variety of markets and fields. In response, in the mid-twentieth century institutional translator training programmes started to flourish around the world. These programmes aim to equip students with the necessary knowledge and skills for them to be able to work professionally in translation markets.

Compared with the self-taught methods where a translator's success depends greatly on individual efforts, institutionalised training has the advantages of shared resources. In recent years, with more research carried out and more input from translator trainers, our knowledge about translator training and learning has increased. This, in turn, has inspired a diversity of pedagogical approaches and classroom activities, which benefit both teachers and students.

However, due to a lack of research investigating the effectiveness of institutionalised translator training programmes at postgraduate level and students' learning experiences, it is still not clear whether these programmes have fully met students' learning needs.

1.1. Two Pedagogical Concerns

Before a translator training programme can say it has met students' learning needs, there are at least two concerns that have to be addressed.

Can the translator training programme meet individual students' learning needs?

Although they meet common requirements, such as a certain level of language proficiency, students of postgraduate translator training programmes usually come from different backgrounds, have different levels of translation competence and learning skills, and might intend to work in different translation markets. Facing such a diverse group of students, teachers cannot confidently say they have met all individual students' needs. In particular, in an institutionalised setting, there are always cost-efficiency and time-related concerns. Typically, teachers will have to focus on learning issues or translation problems that most students encounter in whole-class activities or when doing their translation homework. It is almost certain there will be some problems or difficulties left unsolved. In this situation, how can we confidently say that the training programme has met all students' needs?

Can the translator training programme help students to continue learning after the course? Nowadays, with knowledge and technology developing rapidly and globalisation showing no sign of slowing, students have to face the reality that they must meet the changing requirements of translation markets. What the translator training programme provides students with might not meet their needs, for instance, some two years after they leave the programme. While in the translator training programme, students can seek help from their teacher if they encounter translation problems. After graduation, to whom can they turn? Looking at the effectiveness of learning from a life-long perspective, it is apparent that students need to develop autonomous and problem-solving skills to have a better chance of making the translation market their life-long career.

With these two concerns in mind, we have to ask two questions: how can we meet

individual students' learning needs? How can we help them continue to learn after they leave the training programme? Before we try to answer the two questions, a look at what has happened over the past decades may help to shed some light upon where to find the answers.

1.2. A Pedagogical Shift in Translator Training

Over the years, and most notably since 1990, after incorporating contemporary learning theories, in particular those of second language learning and adult learning, translator training has been through a major pedagogical shift, from teacher-centred, translation-focused approaches to more learner-centred, process-oriented ones (Kelly, 2005). Traditional approaches are often based on four prevailing beliefs.

1.2.1. Four Traditional Beliefs

The first and perhaps the most dominant can be best described by the old saying "practice makes perfect". It claims students learn to translate only by translating (cf. Kelly, 2005; Robinson, 2003); that is, as long as you keep translating, your translation skills will improve.

The second belief is that students learn to translate through mistakes. In such a translation classroom, a frequent scenario is that a source text full of traps is provided, and students find their translation mistakes through comparing their own translation with a model translation, provided by the teacher (cf. Kiraly, 1995, 2000, 2005; Kelly, 2005; González Davies, 2004).

The third belief is that teacher is the sole provider of quality assessment and knowledge (ibid.). This belief is deeply rooted in the transmissionist epistemological

perspective, a premise of which is that knowledge exists in the real world and can only be transmitted from one person to another, as opposed to knowledge being constructed by individuals (e.g. Williams and Burden, 1997; Moon, 1999). Based on this belief, translation skills and knowledge can only be transmitted from the teacher to the student.

The fourth belief sees translation as the single focus of the translation classroom. Nearly all teaching and learning activities revolve around students' translations. Neither the teacher nor the students pay attention to whether and how the students' translation skills improve with time or what causes their translation mistakes (cf. Gile, 1995).

1.2.2. Criticism of Traditional Approaches

The four beliefs, and the approaches based on them, have been criticised by some translation pedagogy scholars. Some of the most frequent criticisms are that they are apedagogical, ignore individual students' aptitude, causing negative feelings, such as frustration and depression (Kelly, 2005; Kiraly, 1995), and neglect how students translate and why they make mistakes (Gile, 1995). Therefore, some scholars, who reject these beliefs, propose to replace transmissionist approaches with, for instance, social constructivist ones, where knowledge is seen as being constructed by students mainly as a result of interacting with others. (e.g. Kiraly, 2003). Others take a more eclectic attitude. What they oppose is using one approach as the *only* pedagogical means in the translation classroom. For example, while believing there are better ways to help students translate faster without compromising their translation quality, Robinson (2003:1) says "there is no substitute for practical experience" of translating. González Davies (2004), criticising

the use of just one approach as impeding students from fully developing their translation competence, proposes that teachers play a dual role, transmitting expertise and also providing students with guidance.

1.2.3. More Learner-Centred and Process-Oriented Approaches

In the past two decades, doubts and criticisms about the efficacy of solely teacher-centred, translation-focused approaches have paved the way for the emergence of more learner-centred, process-oriented approaches (Kelly, 2005; Cronin, 2005). New approaches place students at the centre of teaching and learning, and pay attention both to translation and to translation process rather than just to translation.

These approaches nearly all include reflective learning activities, which ask students to reflect on their work in order to get insights. Other activities involved in these approaches range widely from group learning to individual learning. Group-based activities are usually justified on the benefits of learning through peer interaction, such as group discussion and collaborative translation projects (e.g. Kiraly, 2000, 2003, 2005). Some use individual learning activities, such as a learning diary (Fox, 2000), think-aloud techniques (Wakabayashi, 2003) and a portfolio (Johnson, 2003), and usually stress how self-assessment and self-awareness help students to improve their translation and learning skills. Others propose a combination of both group and individual learning activities to accommodate a wider range of different learning needs and styles (e.g. González Davies, 2004; Kelly, 2005).

No matter what learning activities are involved, research literature, mostly based on observation and teachers' reflection, claims that these new approaches are able to

promote learner autonomy, create a positive learning environment, and have the effect of helping students become more confident and thus competent translators.

Learner autonomy, often defined as “the capacity to take control over one’s own learning” (Benson, 2001, p.2), is a useful general educational goal, which can be applied to any kind of learning and learning context. It is also a desired learner behaviour, because “teachers cannot, and do not wish to, guide every aspect of the process of learning” (Boud, 1988, p.17). If learners have the ability to make their own decisions about what to think, what to learn and how to learn it, they can be lifelong learners.

1.3. A Gap in the Literature

It is argued that new learner-centred, process-oriented approaches can rectify or complement old teacher-centred, translation-oriented approaches. Does this mean they can meet individual students’ learning needs, and help them continue to learn even after they leave the training programme? The answer is “yes and no”.

Yes, in that new approaches are claimed to have the effect of promoting learner autonomy. Since autonomous learners are individuals who have the capacity to take responsibility and make decisions for their own learning, this should mean that their learning will be effective and they can work independently without teachers. Therefore, autonomy-promoting translator training approaches may be seen as good practice, which can also help translation students to identify and meet their own learning needs more effectively both in the training programme and after they graduate.

However, the answer is also “no”, on two related grounds. First, there is a lack of empirical research into students’ experience of these approaches, so it is not clear whether they perceive these approaches to be as helpful as their teachers perceive them and whether they are in favour of using them. If students do not use them, even if they may foster autonomy, they would be of no use.

Second, a lack of research into factors promoting or hindering students’ development of autonomy from using these approaches means that these approaches cannot be applied systematically to translator training. According to research into learner autonomy, self-motivation is essential to autonomous learning, and learners’ motivational capacity depends crucially on how they think and how they interpret information based on their experience (Ushioda, 1996). In the fields of adult learning and second language acquisition (SLA), some factors that influence students’ motivation and reflection have been identified and examined through empirical research, but little empirical research has been devoted to translator training.

Only when we know whether these approaches work and, if they do, how and why, and what factors are involved and how they interact, can we use them purposefully and to their best effect.

1.4. A research journey

It was against the background outlined in the previous sections that the author embarked on a research journey to examine translation students’ experience with learner-centred, process-oriented learning activities and factors that may influence their autonomous and reflective learning. In the literature of this area (see Chapter

Two), it was found that learning diaries, think-aloud and small group discussion activities were among the most mentioned learning activities, so they were chosen as the starting points of this research journey.

The present study has two major goals. On the theoretical front, it aims at broadening and deepening our understanding of translation students' learning in an autonomous and reflective learning setting, and, particularly, at an understanding of factors underlying the advantages and disadvantages of the three autonomous and reflective learning activities: diary, think-aloud, and small-group discussion. On the practical front, the present study aims to suggest the best possible ways to use the three learning activities in self-learning or as a complement to classroom learning, and to identify the risks that should be avoided when introducing them to translation students.

It is expected that the findings of the present study may shed some light on trainee translators' learning process and offer insight into how they can learn more effectively and efficiently.

1.5. Organization

This thesis is a systematic endeavour to report on what the author has found through exploration into the efficacy of the three learning activities in question.

The second chapter reviews literature relevant to the research in an attempt to develop a theoretical basis for later discussions. It is divided into four sections, reviewing literature on (1) the development of translation pedagogy and important theories and findings, (2) autonomous learning, including its definition and related

concepts, (3) motivation, including its traditional and contemporary concepts, and interaction between motivation and autonomy; (4) reflective learning, including propositions of major theorists of this field and relevant empirical findings.

Chapter Three explains the methodology employed by the present study to collect and analyse data. The present study adopted the coding principles proposed by the grounded theory (Charmaz, 2006), which advocates that a coding system should emerge from data. As the data elicited from each of the three learning activities was different in nature and, as a result, the coding systems that emerged from the data of each activity were different and will be explained in the chapter devoted to each of the learning activities.

From Chapter Four to Chapter Seven, findings from data analysis are presented. In Chapter Four, the subjects' learning experience prior to their participation in the present study was analysed and used as a basis for comparison with the three learning activities in later chapters. Chapters Five, Six and Seven are each devoted to one learning activity, from the diary, to the think-aloud, and then small-group discussion.

Based on the findings described in Chapters Five to Seven, Chapter Eight discusses the commonality of the three learning activities and how they are different from each other. It also discusses the limitation of the present study.

Chapter Nine summarises the findings of the present study and makes suggestions to translation teachers about the best possible ways to use the three learning activities. It also points out what further research can be done to help us better

understand trainee translators' learning.

Chapter Two
Literature Review

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

Translation pedagogy has been influenced by translation theories, particularly those concerned with the relationship between the source text (ST) and the target text (TT). The translation teaching is constrained by the teachers' concept of how a translation should equate to the ST and what functions it should achieve in the receiving culture. This in turn may influence students' view of how they should translate, as is made manifest in 2.1.1.

Translation pedagogy has also been influenced by theories beyond translation studies, particularly from adult education and second language acquisition (2.1.2.). All these have had an impact on approaches to translator training and the learning activities of translation students (2.1.3).

As the development of more autonomous translators is often claimed as a main goal of the approaches and learning activities; hence, this chapter will review the definition of autonomy and explore why it is a desirable goal for translators (2.2.). Next, the concept of learner motivation will be considered and how learner motivation can be increased because of its pivotal role in the development of learner autonomy (2.3.). The last section reviews discussions and research on reflective thinking, another element of autonomous learning (2.4).

2.1. Translation Pedagogy

2.1.1. Influences from within Translation Studies

Although there has been a longstanding gap between translation theory and practice,

many translation scholars have suggested that theory can inform practice and form a basis for students' learning (Baker, 1992; Bartrina, 2005; Shreve, 1995). Theories have also served as frames of reference for translator training approaches. To present clearly how they have and continue to influence trainee translators' learning, the major theoretical approaches are reviewed below. Particular emphasis will be placed on how meaning is viewed, as this has not only influenced translator training approaches but, later, will be shown playing an important role in students' autonomous and reflective learning.

2.1.1.1. Grammar-Translation Method Approach

Translation has long been used as a language teaching method, known as the grammar-translation method (GTM) (cf. Cook, 1998; Munday, 2001; Snell-Hornby, 2006) or "school translation" (Gile, 1995). The GTM centres on the rote study of words and grammatical rules (Munday, 2001). Its presupposition is that "the surface structure of a text manifests its meaning (as content), and that imitating this surface structure by transposing it into grammatically correct target language units guarantees the preservation of content" (Vermeer, 1998, p.61).

The GTM is still prevalent in the translation classroom in some countries and contexts (cf. Liao, 2009; Munday, 2001). Since meaning is static, absolute and represented through the lexical and grammatical structures of a language, it is easy for students to structure and predict and hence they can acquire a sense of confidence and attainment (Cook, 1998). It is also easy for teachers to structure practice, particularly in large classes (ibid.)

However, the GTM has been criticised for neglecting social context and the actual use

of a language (Cook, 1998; Munday, 2001). Students are often asked to translate words and sentences, which are “usually unconnected and artificially constructed” to test their comprehension of, or writing ability in, a foreign language (Munday, 2001, p.8). The teachers’ role is limited to that of a knowledge transmitter, correcting students’ mistakes and giving them correct answers (Liao, 2009). In addition, its emphasis on the rote study of grammatical rules leads to a “passive and boring learning experience for students” and is regarded as a precursor of the teacher-centred translation training approach, which is still current (Liao, 2009, p.87).

2.1.1.2. Contrastive Analysis Approaches

Another theoretical area that has had important influence on current translator training is contrastive analysis (CA), the comparing and contrasting of two or more languages at various linguistic levels (cf. Hartmann, 1995; Hatim, 2001; Hoey and Houghton, 1998).

The development of CA was primarily for language learning, not for translation (Hoey and Houghton, 1998). Its presupposition is that the learner’s mistakes in the second language are due to “inappropriate transference” of linguistic rules from the first language so prior inter-lingual contrastive analysis could help prevent such mistakes from being made (*ibid.*, p.46). Over the years, this idea about language learning has been replaced with the realisation that errors are not only due to differences between language systems (in a narrow sense), but involve many other factors (Hartmann, 1995; Hoey and Houghton, 1998), such as cultural factors (cf. Kaplan, 1988).

Unlike CA used for language learning, which juxtaposes a language pair and compares their linguistic structures, CA approaches to translation juxtapose a ST with

a target-language text (TT, i.e. translation) (Williams and Chesterman, 2002). Comparison between the ST and TT is usually made based on equivalent semantic meaning. As shown in Figure 2-1, translation is regarded as “an alignment problem” between two languages and the translator’s job is to “select the element of the target language which will align most closely (under contextual constraints) with a given element of the source language” (Williams and Chesterman, 2002, p.49). Based on this alignment, linguistic changes (“shifts”) occurring during translation are identified. Then, translation strategies are categorised and suggested to students.

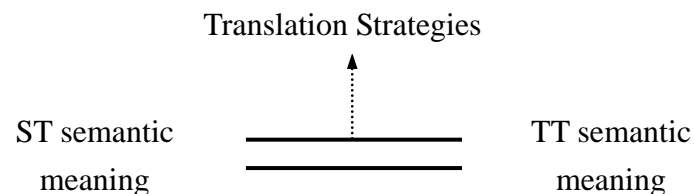


Figure 2-1 CA Approaches – Equivalence of Semantic Meaning

For instance, Catford (1965/2000) identifies **level shifts** (an SL item at one linguistic level [e.g. phonology, graphology, grammar and lexis] has a TL translation equivalent at a different level) and **category shifts** (e.g. changes of grammatical structure) occurring during the translation process. Also working at the lexical and sentence levels, Vinay and Darbelnet (1958/2000) move a step further by contrasting genuine texts (e.g. road signs). They compare French and English texts in use and observe their differences in communicating the same situation at the lexical, syntactical structure and message levels.

CA approaches are generally regarded as valuable tools in translator training

(Snell-Hornby, 2006), and have been widely used by translator trainers. They increase inter-lingual knowledge, which is essential for professional and trainee translators. Strategies found through CA can also be used as examples and guidance in translator training (Baker, 1992; Sun, 2000).

Nonetheless, CA approaches are based on equivalence of semantic meaning. Their common presupposition is that only one semantic meaning exists statically in the ST, waiting to be decoded from and then encoded into the target language (TL) by the translator. In this sense, translation is a matter of replacement (Hatim and Mason, 1990; Hatim, 2001). As is suggested by Catford's definition of translation, "the replacement of textual material in one language (SL) by equivalent textual material in another language (TL)" (1965, p.20). However, such a static view of meaning has been rejected by most translation scholars today, who believe translation is also context- and user-dependent (Baker, 2002).

In addition, CA approaches tend to place too much emphasis on analysis of lexical and syntactical structures between the ST and TT and neglect the dynamic influence of human elements (writer/translator/reader etc.) involved in text-generation. When calling for a change in thinking about translation, Snell-Hornby (1988/1995, p.2) says,

[...]the text cannot be considered as a static specimen of language (an idea still dominant in practical translation classes), but essentially as the verbalized expression of an author's intention as understood by the translator as reader, who then recreates this whole for another readership in another culture.

This is why some scholars, for example, have proposed taking pragmatic elements into consideration in the translating process (e.g. Baker 2002; Hatim, 2001).

Moreover, presupposing that equivalence of semantic meaning exists may lead to authoritarian classrooms. According to Catford, discovery of TL equivalents is “based on the authority of a competent bilingual informant or translator” (Catford, 1965, p.27). Translation strategies, thus discovered, tend to be regarded as normative principles, instructing translators what to do (cf. Venuti, 2000, pp.4-5; Levý, 1967/2000, p.156). This is quite similar to the “transmissionist” translation classroom described by Kiraly (2000, p.23), where

[...] the teacher, believing that he or she has the knowledge needed to produce the ‘correct’ translation, goes about identifying and then filling in the gaps in students’ knowledge so that they too can come up with ‘correct’ translation.

In other words, translating is reduced to getting the static meaning of the ST and then finding a correct or perfect equivalent based on prescribed strategies. In such a classroom, students apparently do not have, or need, much autonomy in decision-making since all is prescribed. In some cases, they are even deprived of some autonomy in decision-making, as evident in the suggestion of Vinay and Darbelnet (1995/2000, p.90) for translators,

[...] the responsibility of introducing such calques into a perfectly organised language should not fall upon the shoulders of translators: only writers can take such liberties, and they alone should take credit or blame for success

or failure.

However, translating is by nature “a decision process” and, the translators’ job is to choose among alternatives (Levý, 1967/2000, p.148). A single focus on semantic meaning is evidently insufficient for translating.

2.1.1.3. Dynamic Equivalence

Partly from seeing the deficiency of approaches based on semantic meaning alone, some translation scholars started to view translation from a more comprehensive and systematic perspective, introducing elements other than linguistic ones into the process. A scholar who thinks this is Nida. He is one of the few scholars to pioneer an analytical system and translation procedures for translators (Munday, 2001). Nida also takes a linguistic approach to translation but the way he sees translation is different from CA approaches in terms of meaning and human elements.

Meaning

Unlike CA approaches, which see meaning as static and inherent in the language system (Zeng, 1995) and translating a matter of matching semantic meaning, Nida (1964) sees meaning as dynamic, not only expressed through linguistic symbols or their combinations but also conditioned by the context in which communication occurs. The purpose of translation is to reproduce the message, which is “the total meaning or content of a discourse; the concepts and feelings which the author intends the reader to understand and receive” (Nida and Saber, 1969, p.205).

Accordingly, the translator should give priority to *dynamic equivalence*¹, transporting the ST message into the TT so that the response of the TT receivers is essentially like that of the ST receivers, over *formal equivalence*, which means mechanically reproducing the features of the form of the ST in the TT (ibid., pp.202-203). In other words, what should be sought is *equivalent effect* (ibid., p.160), not formal correspondence between two languages, as presented in Figure 2-2.

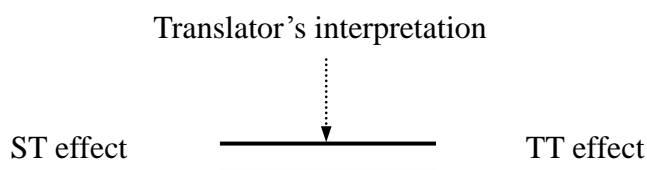


Figure 2-2 Dynamic Equivalence

However, the achievability of equivalent effect is open to question, since “every reading of a text is a unique, unrepeatable act and a text is bound to evoke differing responses in different receivers” (Hatim and Mason, 1990, p.4). It is also difficult to achieve between greatly different language systems, such as between English and Chinese (Hu, 1992, 1993). Nonetheless, Nida’s inclusion of the communication context into the process of translating makes his view distinct from views that stress semantic meaning. It can also be said that TT is the representation of more than one meaning, as there is also the translator’s interpretation involved, as explained below and presented in Figure 2-2 above.

¹ Nida (2001) later uses the term “functional equivalence” rather than “dynamic equivalence”, and states that equivalence should be viewed in terms of a range of adequacy but the concepts behind them are basically the same. To avoid confusion with functionalist views (2.1.1.5.), the term “dynamic equivalence” is used in this thesis.

Human Elements

Also different from CA approaches is Nida's inclusion of human elements in the process of translating. If equivalent effect is desirable, it is inevitable that both the author and the reader be considered by the translator. This in turn places the role of the translator as "the focal element in translating" (Nida, 1964, p.145). Translators are not just a semantic bridge between the ST and TT, but the communicator between the author and the reader.

Also important is Nida's (1964) argument that translating always involves the translator's interpretation to some degree, and that interpretation is not likely to be exactly the same as the author's meaning. That is because translators are situated in the cultures within they live, they cannot be completely objective when translating. The translators should be aware of this and make every effort to minimise their intrusion into the author's intention in order to achieve dynamic equivalence (ibid.).

Nida's view evidently endows the translator with more autonomy than views of CA approaches. Translators need to be in conscious control of their translating process, i.e. analyse, interpret, transfer and restructure meanings (Nida and Saber, 1969).

Since Nida, a number of scholars have taken systematic approaches to translation that have contributed to translator training. For instance, Newmark (1982) emphasises the communicative function of translation and differentiates between communicative and semantic translation, which is similar to Nida's contrast between dynamic and formal equivalence. Newmark's later work (1988) was specifically written for translator training and autodidacts with an intention to provide general guidelines and strategies for analysing an ST, translating and assessing the TT. Baker's work

(1992) was written with a similar intention, but it discusses strategies and guidelines from the word level up to the pragmatic level.

2.1.1.4. Pragmatic Approaches

Although Nida recognises the importance of pragmatic meaning, it was not until the late 1980s that the pragmatics of translation were systematically studied and practical guidelines proposed for translator training. Endeavours of this kind include Baker's (1992) discussion of pragmatic equivalence, Hatim and Mason's (1990) discourse model that considers the communicative, pragmatic and semiotic dimensions of texts and W. Zeng's (2006, 2007) Chinese pragmatics.

Pragmatics studies the relationship between a language and its users. Baker (1992, p.217) defines pragmatics as "the study of language in use. It is the study of meaning, not as generated by the linguistic system but as conveyed and manipulated by participants in a communicative situation." From this perspective, language is not passive, only describing given realities, but active and able to affect realities. An utterance not only has literal meaning (locution, e.g. "There is a snake."), but also has an intended function by the sender (illocution, e.g. to warn the receiver about the snake) and an effect on the receiver (perlocution, e.g. to cause fear in the receiver) (Austin, 1962; cf. Hatim, 1998; Hickey, 1998; X. Zeng, 1995).

An author usually creates a text based on a presupposition that the reader possesses the linguistic (locutionary) and extra-linguistic (illocutionary) knowledge necessary for understanding the author's intentions delivered by the text (Munday, 2001). Communication problems may occur when the reader of this text in translation cannot be assumed to possess knowledge necessary to understand the text due to, for

instance, cultural, language or temporal reasons (cf. Munday, 2001; Nord, 1988/1991). It is thus essential that the translator, as a communicator, recognise the importance of the intended meaning of the ST in order to take it into account while translating. Hatim and Mason even propose replacing the pursuit of dynamic equivalence with equivalence of intended meaning (1990), arguing that

Seeing the meaning of texts as something which is negotiated between producer and receiver and not as a static entity, independent of human processing activity once it has been encoded, is, we believe, the key to understanding of translating, teaching translating, and judging translation (ibid, pp.64-65).

In order to bridge the communication gap between the author and the reader, the translator needs to try to reconstruct the author's intended meaning, both linguistic and extra-linguistic, in order to achieve the same intended effect on the reader (cf. Blum-Kulk, 1981, 1986; Zeng, 1995). This means that, as Gutt points out,

The translator, in addition to being a competent processor of intentions in any SL text, must be in a position to make judgements about the likely effect of the translation on TL readers/hearers. (2000, p.65)

This also means that the translator needs to consider the reader's knowledge, expectation and experience as well as the TT culture in order to bridge the communication gap effectively (Baker, 1992). It is evident that the translator's interpretation plays an important role if equivalence of intended meaning is to be achieved as it does when dynamic equivalence is desired, as presented in Figure 2-3.

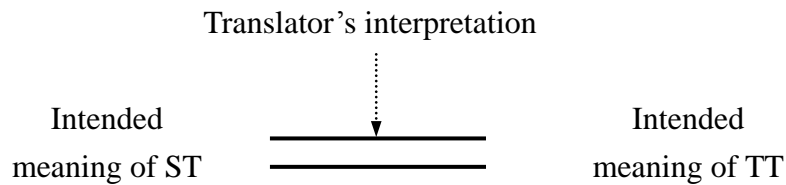


Figure 2-3 Equivalence of Intended Meaning

The important role of interpretation in the translating process has important implications for translation pedagogy. If the pragmatic meaning of the ST is to be interpreted by individual translators rather than being viewed as static knowledge to be understood (Baker, 2002. p.14), it is unlikely to be simply transmitted from the teacher to the student. Then the inadequacy of “transmissionist” approaches to translator training becomes clear (Kiryaly, 2000).

In addition, the importance of interpretation places the translator at the centre of translating as a decision-maker (e.g. Nida, 1964). This is due to the paradoxical reality that the equivalence of intended meaning between the ST and TT is at the same time desirable (Hatim and Mason, 1990) and unlikely to be achievable (Bassnett, 2002). Translators, as readers themselves, can only make sense of the ST based on their “own knowledge, beliefs, and previous experience of both linguistic and non-linguistic events” (Baker 1992, p.222). Therefore, they need to become aware of the role of their own subjectivity and seek as far as possible to avoid the ideological nuances, cultural predispositions and so on in the ST from being tainted by their own version of reality (Hatim and Mason, 1990, p.224).

In addition to careful examination of discourse devices (coherence, tenor, etc.) at work

(Baker 1992; Hatim and Mason, 1990), another suggestion to minimise the translator's intrusion is to carefully self-scrutinize and be sensitive to the issue of translator intrusion when making translation decisions (Levý, 1967/2000); as Gutt comments on the translator's decision-making:

The need for decision-making arises from the fact that the target language rarely allows the translator to preserve exactly what the original conveyed...So, since none of the options considered captures *all* that the original seemed to express, the solution is not self-evident but requires a non-trivial decision on the translator's part. (2000, p.8)

Compared to the constraints of the mechanical matching of linguistic signs, it is evident that approaches emphasising the roles of pragmatic elements and the translator's interpretation in the translating process, require translators to have an ability to make independent informed decision in their subject area (i.e. translation). This points to the importance of subject-matter autonomy to translators, which means learners can only be truly autonomous in a subject area when they have attained deep-level knowledge of how to make informed decisions in that subject area (see *subject-matter autonomy* in 2.2.2.).

2.1.1.5. Functionalist Approaches

Unlike pragmatic approaches, whose basic assumption of meaning is still ST-based because pragmatic meaning "derives from its semantic meaning" (Zeng, 1995, p.962), functionalist approaches are heavily TT-oriented (Toury, 1995). Functionalist approaches argue that the frame of reference for the translator should be the "function (or set of functions) the target text is to achieve in the target culture" (Nord, 1991).

They argue that an ST-oriented view on meaning is inadequate because it ignores the functions of translation in the target culture and also the meaning invested in translation by participants other than the translator, such as editors and commissioners.

An important concept of functionalist approaches, whether explicitly or implicitly stated, is that translation with equivalent meaning of the ST is at best one version of the ST (Nord, 1988/1991). Moreover, the meaning of the ST and/or the TT is not decided by the translator alone but may be changed by other social agents. Reiss (1981/2000) differentiates between unintentional changes and intentional changes. Unintentional changes are caused by different language structure and translation competence. Intentional changes, however, often occur in translating when, for instance, the aim of translation is different from that of the ST. Reiss still considers the semantic meaning of the ST but proposes it be seen as part of the translation when the function of the ST is different from that of the TT. In this case,

the aim of the translating process is not anymore the attainment of a functionally TL text, but a TL text possessing a form which is adequate to the “foreign function”. (ibid., p.170. Quotation marks in the original.)

Vermeer (1989) goes a step further by seeing translation as an action, of which the purpose (skopos) is to be negotiated with the commissioner of the translation assignment. The ST only serves as a “constituent of the commission” and its function is to provide information (ibid., p.222; Nord, 1997). However, Vermeer does not deny that reproducing the purpose of the ST can be “a legitimate translational skopos itself” (ibid., p.223).

Nord (1988/1991) takes a similar attitude to the relationship between the ST and TT. According to Nord, there are several possible relationships between the ST and TT, and functional equivalence is just one of them:

Functional equivalence between source and target text is not the “normal” skopos of a translation, but an exceptional case in which the factor “change of functions” is assigned zero. (ibid., p.23. Quotation marks in the original.)

Building on this view, Nord proposes a translation model that stresses both functionality and loyalty, meaning the translation should conform to the translation initiator’s requirements of TT functions and respect the legitimate interests of both the author and the reader (1991). She also proposes a text-analysis model for translator training, which advocates that a translator first analyses extra-textual factors (sender, sender’s intention, recipient, place and time communication, etc.) before starting to translate and then intra-textual factors (subject matter, content, lexis, syntactic structure, etc.) (Nord, 1988/1991, 1991).

Compared to Vermeer and Nord, Holz-Mänttari’s view of translating is much more radical. Her translational action model sees translation as a message transmitter,

[It] is not about translating words, sentences or texts but is in every case about guiding the intended co-operation over cultural barriers enabling functionally oriented communication. (Quoted and translated by Munday, 2001, p.77)

To Holz-Mänttari, the ST is just a tool for realising communication and can be greatly

modified to suit the purpose of the target reader (cf. Munday, 2001; Nord, 1997, 1988/1991; Schäffner, 1998). That is, as long as the purpose of the translation, decided by the initiator of the translation assignment, is fulfilled, the translation task is successful. In such a view, the meaning of translation is completely target context-oriented. The Translational Action model is popular with professional translators and is considered a valuable translator training tool because it was developed out of translator training practice and reflects daily routines of professional translators (Snell-Hornby, 2006; Venuti, 2000).

It is evident that functionalist approaches have important implications for translator training. They have broadened our view of translation by bringing in meaning(s) invested by the target context. As Nord points out,

A feature common to the functionalist scholars engaged in translator training is that, unlike the linguistic theorists, they try to focus on the language-independent pragmatic or cultural aspects of translation, emphasizing the specific nature of translation competence as against language proficiency. (1997, p.14)

The view that translation is the result of negotiation among different roles and players “reflects the real-life job of the professional translator” (Snell-Hornby, 2006, p.58). Based on this view, translators are not just passive mediators between the SL and TL or between the ST author and the TT reader, but also active players and experts in the meaning-construction process of the translation (Nord, 1991). In this sense, functionalist approaches can be said to have anticipated translator training approaches that advocate the use of authentic translation projects in translator

training, such as Kiraly's situated approach to translator education (2005).

2.1.1.6. Systemic approaches

Toury (1995) argues that translation is an activity governed by norms. When a translator adopts the norms of a source culture, what is often to be pursued is an *adequate* translation, which might be incompatible with norms of the target culture. When a translator adopts the norms of the target culture, shifts from the ST become inevitable and what is pursued is often *acceptability* of translation to be decided by the target culture. Therefore, there cannot be a single relationship (e.g. linguistic equivalence, dynamic equivalence) or no relationship (e.g. Holz-Mänttari's view) at all between the ST and the TT, but "any relation which is found to have characterized translation under a specified set of circumstances" (ibid., p.61). All possible relationships then constitute potential equivalence.

Toury applies his concepts of norms and equivalence to translator training. What he emphasises is how students should approach translation instead of what they should learn, such as linguistic-related knowledge. To Toury, teachers often adhere to certain sets of norms, and students tend to abide by teachers' norms in order to "play it safe", particularly in exam situations (ibid., p.255). However, teachers' norms are not necessarily the norms students should be governed by after they graduate and take cases. After all, all cases are different and the grounds on which to base translation decisions can be different. Therefore, teachers should not adopt a "we know better" stance:

What trainees really need is the opportunity to abstract *their own guiding principles and routines* from actual instances of behaviour, with the help of

responses to their performance which are as variegated as possible. (ibid., p.256. Italics in the original.)

In other words, students should learn that there are various constraints on the process, product and function of translation beyond how it is received in the target culture.

* * * * *

The above review has shown that translation theories, particularly those concerned with ST-TT relationships, have important implications for translator training. They have collectively formed a body of professional knowledge, unique to translation as a profession, on which students may base their reflection (Baker, 1992; see also 2.4.). Translation theories are also the discipline-based knowledge required to attain subject-matter autonomy (Candy, 1988, see also 2.3.).

Furthermore, the way different theoretical approaches look at meaning is important to translator training. It can be said that approaches to translator training are guided, even often restricted, by the frame of reference for meaning upheld by a particular theoretical approach. How we make sense of translation depends on our own frame of reference for meaning or the meaning paradigm we believe in. This is why one may find others' concepts of meaning problematic because they are "untenable within one's own frame of reference" (Toury, 1995, p.24).

For instance, when one believes in meaning equivalence of any kind (CA, dynamic or pragmatic, etc.), "transmissionist" approaches to translator training appear unavoidable, particularly when what the trainer believes should be equivalent is held as authoritative in the translation classroom (cf. Munday, 2001). Likewise, when one

believes that the meaning of translation depends on individual interpretation and a variety of social agents, transmissionism becomes insufficient, as suggested in the material expounded in 2.1.1.5.

Some scholars have noted the importance of meaning paradigms, emphasising not what or which meaning paradigm students should adopt, but how students can be guided to reflect on what particular meaning paradigms mean to them, for instance, the example given by Arrojo (2005). She asks students to translate the same text in two different forms -- first an informal note and then a poem – so as to inspire them to reflect on how their interpretation of the meaning of the text may have been influenced by their concepts of different forms and what this has meant to their view on meaning.

Therefore, while it may be correct to say that translator training missed the communicative revolution in the mid-1990s, which argues for the importance of developing authentic communicative competence rather than just metalinguistic competence (Cronin, 2005; Kiraly, 1995), it may be more important to understand why it was missed. In this regard, meaning paradigms may provide some answers. After all, if the meaning paradigm one holds is not compatible with the communicative trend, it is impossible for the person to accept or adopt communicative approaches in the translation classroom.

Likewise, since the development of autonomy in students has been stressed by a number of translation scholars from the 1990s onwards (Cronin, 2005; Gile 1995; Kiraly 1995; Kussmaul, 1995), it is important that the relationship between the development of student's autonomy and meaning paradigms be investigated (for detailed discussion, see Chapter Eight).

2.1.2. Influences from beyond Translation Studies

In addition to being influenced by translation theories, translator training approaches have drawn on concepts from other disciplines for pedagogical justification, including adult learning, second language acquisition and cognitive psychology. Those that have the most important influence are reviewed below.

2.1.2.1. Constructivist Views

Constructivism is one of the most influential epistemological and educational perspectives affecting contemporary training philosophies. Its central assumption is that the world cannot be directly known. How we know about the world is mediated by our cognitive structures (Nystedt and Magnusson, 1982). Von Glasersfeld argues that, “knowledge, no matter how it be defined, is in the heads of persons, and that the thinking subject has no alternative but to construct what he or she knows on the basis of his or her own experience” (1995, p.1). Von Glasersfeld (ibid., p.113) later clarifies that constructivism is not intended to argue whether the world exists or not, instead it is a theory of *knowing* not one of *being*.

Generally, there are two main research interests of those regarded as constructivists (Phillips, 1995, 1997). Some scholars are concerned with how individuals construct and store knowledge in their internal cognitive apparatus or through interaction with important others, whereas other scholars are concerned with how public knowledge (i.e. disciplinary knowledge) is constructed. The former is of primary interest to the present study; although it is important to translator training to show how the disciplinary knowledge of Translation Studies has been developing and how meaning paradigms have been changing (c.f. 2.1.1.).

Individual Development

According to George Kelly's (1955/1963) personal construct theory, people actively explore the world like scientists, developing personal theories, or constructs, along the way. These constructs serve as templates, based on which people make sense of new information and then create new understanding. Therefore, meaningful learning is not about reception of ready-made facts, but about building of new understanding that makes personal sense (Williams and Burden, 1997).

From a similar standpoint, Piaget (1966, 1972, 1974; also cf. Brainerd, 2003; De Lisi and Golbeck, 1999; Kiraly, 2000; Williams and Burden, 1997) focused on how one develops from infancy to adulthood, that is, on the process of learning than what is learned. Piaget saw *development* as refining one's cognitive systems over time. The same objective experience will be interpreted and understood differently by two persons who are at different stage of development. According to Piaget, a developing mind is constantly seeking a balance between what is known and what is being experienced. This balance is achieved through two processes: assimilation and accommodation. Assimilation is "the process by which incoming information is changed or modified in our minds so that we can fit it in with what we already know"; accommodation is "the process by which we modify what we already know to take into account new information" (Williams and Burden, 1997, p.22).

Concepts and understanding, then, are constructed internally, based on interaction with the outside world (i.e. individual experience) and they cannot be passed from one individual to another, such as from the teacher to the student. It follows that "the art of teaching has little to do with the traffic of knowledge, its fundamental purpose must be to foster the art of learning" (von Glasersfeld, 1995, p.192). Such views have been

held to show the insufficiency of transmissionism in the translation classroom (Kiraly 2000).

For individuals to develop cognitively, it is apparent that their cognitive apparatus has to undergo changes. Reflection has been among the most recommended methods to achieve this (e.g. von Glasersfeld, 1995). Reflection is a special kind of thinking (Dewey, 1910) and a means of breaking away from ingrained ideas or concepts framed by social and cultural traditions and a way to create new alternatives (Gergen, 2009). As reflection is one of the major themes of the present study, more literature of reflection will be reviewed in 2.4. It is also an important element of individual learning activities, such as diary, portfolio and TAP (see also 2.1.3.).

Social Interaction

Although mostly interested in individual development, Piaget also predicts that cognitive balance between assimilation and accommodation is “more likely to occur in cooperative situations characterized by mutual respect, rather than unilateral authority” (De Lisi and Golbeck, 1999, p.37). Some scholars share similar views, postulating that social factors play an important role in individuals’ process of constructing knowledge. Among them, one of the most widely cited is Vygotsky.

To Vygotsky (1935/1994), in the course of development, individuals change through experiences, and the meaning those experiences have had for them is unique to each individual and later becomes his or her own personal property. However, what is important about Vygotsky’s theory is that he saw experience as socially rooted and “human development as a sociogenetic process” (Hogan & Tudge, 1999, p.39). He argues that a greater range of skills can be developed through peer collaboration than

learning alone (Vygotsky, 1978; cf. Falchikov, 2001). Learning through interacting with people, such as teachers and peers, can help one to develop and then move beyond the next level of skill or knowledge (Vygotsky, 1962, 1978). These views have contributed to the theoretical foundation of group-based learning activities, such as discussion (Hogan & Tudge, 1999; Kiraly, 2000; Vygotsky, 1931/1997, 1935/1994).

Similarly, Salmon (1988) stresses that, while individuals may experience a unique experiential world and create a reality that is true to themselves, it is the common understanding, and thus a shared reality, that moves human forwards. Teaching and learning is actually a meeting between subjective realities of, for instance, teacher and student. Therefore, “we cannot understand school learning without acknowledging both sorts of reality” (ibid., p.14). It follows that there is a need to infer students’ thinking – that is, for reflection – in order to teach and help students learn more effectively (von Glasersfeld, 1995).

No matter which focus they have, individuals or social influence on individuals or both, constructivist approaches all place emphasis on “the necessity for active participation by the learner, together with the recognition (by most of them) of the social nature of learning” (Phillips, 1995, p.11). This view is compatible with that of autonomous learning, which also emphasises the importance of learners’ active participation (see 2.2.).

Applications to Translator Training

The constructivist view has had the attention of translation pedagogy scholars in recent decades (e.g. Kiraly, 2000, 2003; González Davies, 2004). Kelly (2005, p.47) considers the constructivist view as a learning premise, which “may be of special

interest for translation training". González Davies's (2004) approach to the design and the procedures of translation tasks is partly on constructivist views.

Kiraly (2000) is a strong supporter of constructivist views that emphasise social interactions and has applied several major social constructivist concepts to course design and learning activities in the translation classroom. The concepts applied by Kiraly include – after Vygotsky - the zone of proximal development (ZPD), "the layer of skill or knowledge which is just beyond that with which the learner is currently capable of coping" (Williams and Burden, 1997, p.40). Kiraly (2000, p.42) sees ZPD as an alternative pedagogy in which "teachers see themselves as catalysts for learners' interpersonal and intra-personal construction of knowledge", helping them to move towards their next layer of skill or knowledge.

Criticism

Although there is substantial consensus on constructivist views, constructivism has been criticised for various reasons, such as the confusion of terminology² (Phillips, 1997), inconsistencies in interpretations of constructivism (Liu and Matthews, 2005) and too many forms of constructivism that cover too wide a range (e.g. epistemology, socio-political agenda and education) (Phillips, 1995). Among all, two issues are particularly worth noting for the purpose of translator training.

² Phillips (1995, 1997) differentiates between psychological constructivism and social constructivism. The former focuses on private knowledge (including both those built internally and those through social interaction) while the latter focuses on public knowledge. Kiraly (2000) also uses the term social constructivism but in terms of individual's interaction with others. Gergen (1994) also differentiates between private and public knowledge but refers those that deal with public knowledge as social construction.

First, there is insufficient discussion in the literature of constructivism about the link between how individuals construct knowledge and why they want to do so in the first place. If individuals make sense through assimilating new experiences to their existing knowledge and if active participation is necessary for individuals to make sense of the world, the question to ask is why they want to, and how they become an active learner. As Fox makes clear,

Learners do need to interact, to have dialogues, to solve problems and to make sense of new ideas; but they also often find it difficult to see why they should make the effort, fail to pay attention, misconstrue new concepts, forget what they learned ten minutes ago and fail to apply fragile new knowledge effectively to new contexts (2001, p.33).

What is missing, or disregarded, here is apparently an account of how individuals are motivated to assimilate knowledge and to become active learners. That is to say, individuals cannot be assumed to be active learners. Many factors may influence their willingness to make sense of their experience of the world. Only when they are willing to do so can the process of knowledge assimilation and accommodation occur effectively (see 2.3. for a detailed review of motivation).

Second, constructivism has also been criticised for placing too much emphasis on making sense while neglecting the function of practice (Fox, 2001). Practice allows one to “eliminate errors from habitual routines” and to transfer limited powers of conscious attention to where higher levels of intellectual activities are required, such as purposeful thinking, planning and evaluation” (ibid., p.32).

Practice is also an essential element in translator training. It helps students to gain translating speed and experience. Students cannot learn how to translate if they do not have practical experience of translating (Robinson, 2003). In addition, the more one translates, the more one is familiar with how to process difficult vocabulary and syntactic structures and thus one can translate faster. For translators, working in the market and making a living by translating, speed is particularly important. As faster translators make more money (ibid.), the importance of practice is apparent.

Constructivism, therefore, is important to translation pedagogy. It provides theoretical justification for the shift from old teacher-centred approaches to more learner-centred ones. However, before adopting and applying it to translator training, it is important that the relationship between knowledge construction and learners' thinking and motivation be investigated based on empirical data – a key priority of the present study.

2.1.2.2. Humanistic Views

While constructivism believes that individuals construct their own meaning, humanism places *individuals* at the centre of learning; humanism views

the student as a subject who can contribute actively to transforming the group's as well as his or her own competence and performance, not as an object that receives the teacher's transmitted knowledge." (González Davies, 2004, p.38)

Humanistic approaches emphasise the students' inner world, including their thoughts, feelings and emotions (Williams and Burden, 1997). In this view, education is not only

about knowledge acquisition but also about developing the whole person. Factors considered by humanistic approaches include individual students' learning needs and motivation (Maslow, 1970) (see also 2.3.1.) as well as their learning experience and learning process (Rogers, 1969).

According to Rogers (1961, in Kirschenbaum & Henderson, 1990, p.302),

[...] anything that can be taught to another is relatively inconsequential, and has little or no significant influence on behaviour...the only learning which significantly influences behaviour is self-discovered, self-appropriated learning... Such self-discovered learning, truth that has been personally appropriated and assimilated in experience, cannot be directly communicated to another.

Although humanism has been criticised as putting too much stress on emotive factors, it has paved the way for innovative approaches and concepts, such as meaningful learning, autonomous learning and reflective teaching, to be applied to the translation classroom (González Davies, 2004).

2.1.2.3. Surface, Deep and Strategic Learning

If constructivist and humanistic views have provided theoretical justification for autonomous learning and reflective learning, it can be said that learning theories have provided down-to-earth approaches to promote students' learning. One of the most-quoted learning theories regards deep, surface and achieving or strategic learning approaches (Biggs and Telfer, 1987; Marton and Säljö., 1976a, 1976b).

Deep learning is an active approach with an intention to understand learning materials and relate new information to existing cognitive structures. Surface learning is a passive approach with an intention to cover learning materials and accumulate unassimilated knowledge (e.g. rote learning). Strategic learning is an approach aiming at getting good grades by using good study skills (cf. Biggs, 1992; Jaques and Salmon, 2007; Falchikov, 2001; Macdonald, 1997; Ramsden, 1985; Tribe, 1994). It is evident that deep learning is the most desirable of the three in terms of promoting in-depth understanding (Gregory and Thorley, 1994) and is fundamental to attainment of learner autonomy (Candy, 1988).

In recent years, translation pedagogy scholars have also considered how these approaches may influence trainee translators' learning. As Kelly points out,

students are more likely to reach higher levels of understanding and adopt a deep approach to learning when the teaching and learning environment allows for the following: intrinsic motivation; active involvement in realistic learning tasks; independence and choice; cooperative work... (2005, p.49)

It is clear that, for these learning processes to succeed, teachers need to know how to create such environment as described above. The value of intrinsic motivation will be discussed later (see 2.3.)

2.1.2.4. Collaborative/Cooperative Learning

Like constructivism, there is no agreed definition of collaborative learning. To encompass all approaches to collaborative learning, Dillenbourg broadly defines collaborative learning as “a *situation* in which *two or more* people *learn* or attempt to learn something *together*” (1999, p.2; italic in the original.). He argues that a theory of

collaborative learning should define its situation, interactions, processes and effects.

Johnson & Johnson (1999) see cooperation as human nature and define cooperative learning as “the instructional use of small groups so that students work together to maximize their own and each other’s learning.”(ibid., p.5) For a group to succeed, all participants need to recognise that they share a common fate, strive for mutual benefits, empower and feel proud of each other’s achievements.

The two terms “collaborative learning” and “cooperative learning” are often used interchangeably but some scholars differentiate between them (see discussion in McWhaw *et al.*, 2003; Panitz, 1997). Generally speaking, cooperative learning is regarded as being more structured and teacher-centred and better suiting to fact learning, while collaborative learning delegates more decision-making responsibilities to students and is seen as better suiting learning of higher-order knowledge. Whichever term is used, they all stress synergy instead of division of work (cf. González Davies, 2004; Kiraly, 2000). Kiraly (2000), from a social constructivist view, holds that the goal of collaborative learning in the translation classroom is to help the group to make meaning and individual group members to internalise cultural and professional knowledge.

* * * * *

If translation theory has provided learning materials and perspectives for translation and reflecting on translation, theories reviewed in this section have provided important perspectives on learning that can complement and enrich translator training and have done so. More importantly, they offer theoretical justification for teachers, and

students alike, to adopt boldly pedagogical approaches to and learning activities in translation.

A number of practical learning activities are proposed in the learning-theory literature. However, before applying any of them to the translation classroom, it is essential that they are investigated, or modified, in such a way that they can appropriately incorporate the disciplinary knowledge of translation studies reviewed in the previous section. This requires an understanding of current teaching and learning activities in the translation classroom. For the purpose of the present study, the following section will review the three learning activities focused on in the present study, i.e. diary, think-aloud and small group discussion, including their background, how they have been used in the translation classroom, and relevant research findings.

2.1.3. Three Learning Activities

2.1.3.1. Diary

A diary, also referred to as a journal, log, dialectical notebook, workbook, autobiographical and reflective writing (Moon, 1999; Nunan, 1992), is “written material that is based on reflection and is relatively free writing, though it may be written within a given structure” (Moon, 1999, p.187). Some scholars argue that keeping a diary does not mean simply recording one’s experience or reflections but should also involve analysis and study of the recording. Bailey (1990:215) defines a diary study for second language acquisition as

a first-person account of a language learning or teaching experience, documented through regular, candid entries in a personal journal and then analysed for recurring patterns or salient events.

The importance of diary analysis is also emphasised by Matsumoto (1996, pp.147-148), who concludes that diary analysis means deliberately examining one's own learning in order to "capture the leadership" of one's learning processes as an autonomous learner.

Advantages

Diary-keeping is generally regarded as advantageous to learning. First, it records experience and learning process and encourages self-reflection (Matsumoto, 1996; Riley and Harsch, 1999). Second, it can raise and heighten learners' levels of awareness of their own learning, including achievements and pitfalls (Bailey, 1991; Fry, 1988; Matsumoto, 1987). Third, it increases active participation and personal ownership of learning (Moon, 1999). Fourth, it promotes learners' autonomous learning, helping them to take on learning responsibilities better (Porter *et al.*, 1990).

In addition to being useful to learning, diary-keeping also contributes to one's affective well-being. It can serve as a "safety valve" for learners to vent their negative feelings (Bailey, 1991) and provide learners with channels of communication to get feedback or solutions to difficulties from teachers and thus become more confident (Howell-Richardson and Parkinson, 1988; Porter *et al.*, 1990).

Reflective Ability

Although diary-keeping has quite a few advantages, simply keeping a diary does not guarantee its usefulness. The main reason is that not everyone is a good reflective learner. Some students need to learn how to reflect (Hatton and Smith, 1995; see also 2.4.). Moon (2004) suggests presenting reflection (explaining what reflective writing is, giving examples, etc.) to help learners to get started with reflective tasks and then

facilitating deeper reflection (e.g. introducing levels of reflection and how to deepen reflection).

The form of a diary can also be used to guide learners to get started. According to Moon, structures, such as questions and guidance, can help learners to start reflective writing. It can also ensure that certain issues are covered in order to help learners to “move on in their thinking and learn from the reflective processes“ (1999, p.194).

Application to Translation Training

Although much less frequently reported and published in the literature of translation pedagogy than in the SLA, diaries have been used in translator training and as an introspective tool in some MA dissertations on translation studies (e.g. in Kiraly, 1995).

Among the limited translation study is research reported by Fox (2000). In her research, diary keeping was part of a process-oriented, competency-based curriculum designed for a translation class; its learning goals included developing awareness of different aspects of the translation process. She concludes that diary writing may “encourage learners to think critically and to reflect upon the task of translating a text; to assess for themselves the acceptability or appropriateness of different solutions to different translation problems; and, as self-confidence increases, to assume personal responsibility for their decisions” (2000, p.128). She also found that translation diaries provide teachers with a means of finding out students’ individual shortcomings and errors, some of which may otherwise never have been found.

In terms of learning, Fox's diary findings are quite similar to those of SLA diary studies. However, as translation studies and SLA are two distinct disciplines, some findings were unique to translation studies. For instance, a subject in Fox's research found progressing from regarding herself as a mere student to assuming "her role as representative of the community of translators at large" (Fox, 2000, p.125). Fox's research also found that the subject had heightened awareness of expectations from the target audience (ibid., p.126).

Based on her experience in supervising an MA thesis, that used a diary to record reflection, Tirkkonen-Condit (2005) had a similar finding, in that students tend to become more aware of their own professional identity and competence if they have opportunities to analyse their own translation processes. Thus, she proposes, students should be taught to collect and analyse empirical data on their own performance through devices, such as translation diaries and TAP.

Other activities suggested by translation scholars to facilitate students' learning have similar functions to diaries. Gile (1995) suggests that students write a *report* with each translation assignment on problems they encounter. According to Gile, such reports can force students "to think about what they are doing and about problems they encountered, thereby raising their awareness of such problems" and translation principles (ibid. p.124). As time goes by, the reports are expected to become "focused on difficulties relevant to translation *methodology*" (ibid., italic as in the original).

Johnson proposes the use of portfolio in translation training and claims that it is different from diaries though its functions overlap with those of diaries. The portfolio, that Johnson (2003) proposes, is to be used as an assessment tool, which consists of

a selection of translation work. When used for formative assessment, students are often asked to make reflective statements based on their translation work about their learning goals, progress, strategies, frustrations, etc. According to Johnson, reflective statements are most useful if reflection is “grounded in a given problem”, which “may be a particular text or a recurring strategy, technique, tendency, or difficulty encountered in a series of translations” (ibid., p.105). Johnson’s portfolio appears to be quite similar to the report that Gile suggests in the sense that both are results of reflection and focus on translation problems.

No matter what such written records are called, it seems that they are generally adopted with an assumption that students know how to reflect. However, as indicated in the literature on diary use, an ability to reflect is essential for such activities to achieve their full potential.

2.1.3.2. Think-Aloud Protocol

Think-aloud protocols (TAPs), taped-records of translators’ verbalised thinking in the translating process, have been used to elicit data to investigate different aspects of translators’ translating behaviours and translation processes (see Jääskeläinen, 2002 for an overview).

A Variety of Research Interests

Since the 1980s, there has been abundant empirical TAP research that reflects a variety of research interests (Krings, 2001). Some researchers adopt more holistic approaches by looking into the whole translation process. For instance, Krings’ (1986) research developed a tentative model of the translation process, in which the translation process is segmented into phases of problem identification and

employment of a series of strategies (comprehension, retrieval, monitoring, decision-making and reduction).

Others have targeted at understanding the role of specific factors in the translation process. Jääskeläinen (1990, in Jääskeläinen and Tirkkonen-Condit, 1991, p.93) found successful translators “paid a fair amount of attention to the factual contents of the source text as well as to the needs of the potential readers of their translations” while weaker translators “approach the translation task at a purely linguistic level”. Laukkanen (1996) showed that translators’ negative attitudes may have an adverse effect on their translation quality. The study by Livbjerg and Mees (2003) revealed that students focus too much on lexical meaning and overuse dictionaries because they do not have sufficient self-confidence.

Different Subjects

As well as the differences in research interests, there have been differences in the nature of the subjects used in TAP research. These subjects can be categorized into three types: language students (e.g. Gerloff, 1986; Haastrup, 1987; Lörcher, 1991, 1992), students in translator training programs or less experienced translators (e.g. Jääskeläinen, 1989; Jääskeläinen and Tirkkonen-Condit, 1991), professional or more experienced translators (e.g. Asadi and Séguinot, 2005; Laukkanen, 1996; Lörcher, 1996; Séguinot, 1996). Quite a few researchers have used a mixture of two to three types of subjects (e.g. Jakobsen, 2003; Jensen and Jakobsen, 2000; Tirkkonen-Condit, 1989; Tirkkonen-Condit, 1996).

No matter what types of subjects are used, there seems to be an overt or covert assumption: as long as they know more about translation processes, successful

strategies, and differences between translators of different experience, translator trainers can apply the knowledge to the translation classroom (Chesterman, 1997; Séguinot, 1991), for example, recommending good strategies and avoiding pitfalls.

However, as Kiraly (1995) points out, translator trainers can introduce efficient and effective strategies found in the research but they cannot be sure that strategies effective for one translator will also be effective for another translator. This implies that it would benefit students if they could become aware of their own translating process. Kiraly (1995, p.113) suggests think-aloud activities can be used in translation classrooms to “enhance students’ awareness of their own mental processes while translating.”

TAP as a Learning Method

These suggestions have led translator trainers to use think-aloud techniques as teaching and learning methods in the translation classroom. According to Wakabayashi (2003), TAPs can help the teacher to identify students’ problems and inefficient and ineffective translation strategies. For instance, she found that her students tended not to have enough confidence to apply the correct meaning they inferred intuitively from the context of the source text to their translation. They had to verify the meaning by using dictionaries or native speakers of the source language.

Wakabayashi (2003, pp.61-62) also indicates that think-aloud exercises are able to help students become aware of ineffective problem-solving strategies, “which is the first step toward overcoming such inefficiencies” and “will encourage more informed reflection and hence better translations”. For example, her students realised through TAP exercises how confused their translating process had been, how inefficient use

of dictionary had slowed down their translating speed, and what the most frequent difficulties they had encountered were.

Wakabayashi also reported that her students tended to feel that thinking-aloud while translating interfered with their thinking processes. That comment is consistent with the finding of Jakobsen's research (2003), in which he shows that thinking aloud slows translation speed by about 25%.

The preceding review indicates that think-aloud may "have served a valuable pedagogical purpose" but it is important that cost-effectiveness issues, such as time spent on listening to think-aloud tapes, be considered (Wakabayashi, 2003, p.81).

2.1.3.3. Small-Group Discussion

Discussion, as a form of communication, occurs in nearly all learning groups (Jaques and Salmon, 2007), but may not constitute all the activities conducted by a learning group. Nevertheless group-based learning and discussion are often discussed together in relevant literature.

Some scholars focus more on discussion. Bligh (1986) summarises nineteen discussion methods, each of which occurs in a particular group, formed for a specific reason, such as case discussion and task-centred group discussion. Brookfield and Preskill (1999, p.5) stress the function of discussion in learning and regard it as an effort made by "a group of two or more to share views and engage in mutual and reciprocal critique." Other scholars place emphasis on the group more than the discussion and regard the latter as a behaviour or activity conducted by group members to exchange ideas and concepts (Exley and Dennick, 2004).

For the purpose of the present study, literature on both group learning and discussion will be reviewed together with a particular focus on discussion in small groups. It is also worth noting that the literature of group-based learning tends to regard only student-centred methods. Teacher-centred lectures are not regarded as a form of group-based learning though they take place in the presence of a group of people (Gregory and Thorley, 1994).

Advantages

Group discussion is widely used in higher education and supported by translation pedagogy scholars and teachers. It has several advantages. Discussion is seen as an effective way of learning how to think (Bligh, 1986) and can facilitate the development of high-level cognitive skills, such as problem solving, reasoning or justifying proposals and decisions (Kelly, 2005). Von Glasersfeld (1995, p.188) believes that discussing issues with others is conducive to reflection and describes how this may occur,

In order to describe verbally what we are perceiving, doing, or thinking, we have to distinguish and characterize the items and relations we are using. This often focuses attention on features of our construction that had remained unnoticed, and it is not at all uncommon that one of these features, when put into words, leads us to realize that some conclusion we had drawn from the situation is not tenable.

Some scholars see discussion as an effective way to facilitate the understanding and retention of disciplinary knowledge and skills (Gibbs and Habeshaw, 1989; McNally, 1994) and to increase the richness of ideas through sharing a variety of viewpoints

(Gibbs and Habeshaw, 1989, p.70). Discussing points of interest and controversy can help individuals to develop deep approaches to the processing of information. Discussion can also help individuals to construct their own meaning effectively, through negotiation of meaning with others (ibid.).

Discussion, as group-based learning, has also been found able to encourage students' active participation (MacDonald, 1997; Tribe, 1994), provide an environment where different learning styles are respected (González Davies, 2004; Tribe, 1994) and help students develop transferable skills (e.g. interpersonal skills), which are important for future employment (González Davies, 2004; Kelly, 2005; McNally, 1994).

In terms of translator training, Colina (2003, p.61) argues, based on empirical and theoretical research, that discussion can help students to acquire "self-confidence, self-awareness, expert behavior and the ability to defend translation decisions". Kiraly (2000, p.94) claims that, when working in a small group, students can often help each other comprehend a difficult text or understand the different author's points of views better than a teacher can.

Disadvantages

However, group-based learning is not without its disadvantages. Bligh (2000) points out that discussion may not be cost-effective for learning information and is better used with other methods on some occasions. Powell (1974) found that ill-informed students might dominate the group, and that some students feel anxious if they cannot see where their discussion or group is going, if teachers are not there to correct their mistakes, or if there is not a dynamic leader to lead the group. Communication difficulties, misunderstandings and false perceptions may also cause

conflict within a group and thus lead the group to fail (Dörnyei and Murphey, 2003).

Application to Translator Training

Group discussion is one of the most frequent activities in the translation classroom and often takes place in seminars, projects and tasks, where discussion is extensively employed. Doing a translation assignment and then having discussions in class is perhaps one of the simplest and most common forms of seminar-based approach. One example is the seminar system recommended by Snell-Hornby (1991). Students prepare and have topical discussions in pairs or groups before class and then give an oral presentation in class.

Projects can be defined as “multicompetence assignments that enable the students to engage in pedagogic and professional activities and tasks and work together towards an end project” (i.e. a translation) (González Davies (2004, p.28). The “translation praxis class”, proposed by Kiraly (2003, 2005) based on the work of Vienne (1994), Klaudy (1995) and others, is an example of the authentic project, where a group of students discuss and work together to complete an authentic translation project with the teacher as informant or project manager and a professional as editor.

Task-based learning is a discussion-related activity that is becoming increasingly prominent in translator’ training. Task-based learning is based on the design of “a chain of activities with the same global aim and a final product” and activities are “concrete and brief exercises that help to practise specific points, be they linguistic, encyclopaedic, transfer or professional” (González Davies, 2004, pp.22-23). González Davies offers a variety of suggestion for activities, tasks and projects. Nearly all of them use small group discussion extensively and emphasise the importance of learning through reflecting.

Group Size

According to Kelly (2005), small groups are perhaps the most common groups in translator training. Although it is common for a translation class to have more than more than twenty students, students are usually subdivided into smaller groups of two to five.

For Kiraly (2000, p.108), the ideal group size for promoting balanced, productive interaction” is of three or four, so that quieter students would not stay in the background and could assert themselves better without being interrupted and overruled by other more outspoken students. When commenting on its advantages, Kiraly (2000, p.96) states, working in a small group

is much less threatening than discussing one’s opinions in front of the whole class. There is little anxiety; students feel free to express what they do not understand and are not afraid of criticism.

Group Dynamics

There is an extensive body of literature on group dynamics in fields, such as psychology, sociology and business, so there is an extensive body of knowledge one can turn to if one wants to know about groups *in general*. Since group discussion is frequently used in translator training, it is quite puzzling that discussion or research devoted to understanding group dynamics in translator training is very limited in the literature of translation pedagogy (cf. González Davies, 2004). It seems to have been assumed that students would enjoy advantages of group learning as long as they are put together in groups (cf. Kelly, 2005). However, it has been shown in other disciplines that this is not the case. Success of the learner group depends largely on

its “dynamics -- i.e. its internal characteristics and its evolution over time” (Dörnyei and Murphey, 2003). Group size, composition, personality, leadership, student roles and even environment can all influence group dynamics (Dörnyei and Murphey, 2003; Kiraly, 2000).

Kiraly (2000, pp.108-109) is among the few translation scholars to have investigated group dynamics and identified five types of roles in the project group:

Organizer is one that initiates most discussion concerning problems, encourages the group to re-focus on problems and handles procedural issues. The problem with this type of student is that they may assume dominance over the group, assuming the role of a conventional, knowledge-distributing teacher and thus disempowering other group members and limiting the potential of the group to produce multiple perspectives.

Secretary is one that summarizes translated passages, writes down drafts and final versions, monitors cohesion and coherence of the text, and raises questions when necessary.

Assimilator-mediator is one that identifies new translation problems, explains them in more depth and detail and resolves conflicts between group members.

Devil's advocate is one that criticises others' translation solutions.

Entertainer is one that makes humorous comments to create a relaxed and non-aggressive group atmosphere, but sometimes may lead to too much private talk and unproductive group work.

For a group to succeed and stay well balanced, Kiraly (2000) suggests that students be told the importance of group dynamics and cooperation from the start and that roles be evenly shared among group members. As student learning is the most important factor, if a group simply does not work, there is little point in insisting on keeping a group together, and some reshuffling may be required (Kelly, 2005).

* * * * *

No matter whether it is diary, TAP or small group discussion, the literature review above has shown that they all involve students' introspection or reflection and have been claimed to be able to raise students' awareness of translation problems and problem-solving strategies and develop reflective, autonomous, competent translators. However, before these claims can be supported and these learning activities be applied to translator training with confidence, what is meant by reflection and autonomy should first be addressed. The following comment, made by Benson (2001, p.47), is directed at autonomy, but the same can be applied to reflection,

[...] programmes or innovations designed to foster autonomy are likely to be more effective if they are based on a clear understanding of the behavioural changes they aim to foster. Put simply, whether we are concerned with research or with practice, it is important that we know and are able to state what we mean when we talk about autonomy.

The rest of this chapter, then, will clarify concepts relevant to autonomy and reflection; it will discuss their respective elements and how to assess their attainment.

2.2. Learner Autonomy

Since the shift in translation pedagogy to learner-centredness, development of student autonomy has become a goal of translator training. This is not surprising since translation scholars, who support learner-centredness, tend to justify the learning approaches or activities they advocate by drawing heavily upon the same set of epistemological beliefs, educational psychology and learning theories (e.g. humanistic and constructivist views of learning) that the concept of autonomy draws on (Benson, 2001; González Davie, 2004; Kiraly, 2000, 2003, 2005; Little, 1991; see also 2.1.2.).

It can be said that learner autonomy has become “a key concept” in translator training. Helping students to develop autonomous learning skills has been regarded as essential for the students to conduct more complex translation projects (Kelly, 2005), and, ultimately, can ensure that they have the ability to continue to learn after leaving the training program (Kiraly, 2000). Learning to learn is also “much more important than memorising and regurgitating passively received knowledge” (González Davie, 2004:13).

However, in translator training, concepts and elements of autonomy are ill-defined (see 2.2.1-2.2.4), and translation pedagogy scholars often only consider the benefits that autonomous learning can bring to students as *learners*. This is certainly an important and justifiable aspect of translator training since autonomy is important to education and learning (cf. Benson and Voller, 1997; Little, 1991) and is applicable to all disciplines of knowledge (Boud, 1988); however, we should not lose sight of what autonomy means to students as *translators*. In other words, being an autonomous learner does not guarantee that the person can become an autonomous translator. A

learner could only be truly autonomous in a subject area after having attained deep-level knowledge of that subject area. This aspect of autonomy, much neglected in the literature of translation pedagogy, is what was described by Candy (1988) as *subject-matter autonomy*, and has been found to play an important role in trainee translators' reflective learning in the three learning activities in question and will be explained in detail in 2.2.4.

2.2.1. What Is Learner Autonomy?

Learner autonomy is a concept that is evolving. Any change in mainstream thought on learning may change the concept of learner autonomy. This has been reflected in the various definitions of learner autonomy in adult learning and language learning.

Learner autonomy is a goal of education. As Boud (1988, p.18) points out, "a fundamental purpose of education is assumed to be to develop in individuals the ability to make their own decisions about what they think and do." It can be used in a life-long sense, referring to "the qualities of moral, emotional and intellectual independence" one exhibits after leaving institutional educational settings (Candy, 1988). It can also be used in a more restricted sense, referring to learners' capability to behave responsibly as they are consciously making an effort to learn (Scharle and Szabó, 2000, p.4. cf. also Candy, 1988). No matter in which sense, it is generally agreed that autonomy is a desired quality of the learner.

There have been various justifications for promoting learner autonomy (Benson, 2001; Dickinson, 1995; Nunan, 1996). Most of the justifications overlap, more or less, with the benefits Little (1991, p.8) summarises: learning can be "more focussed and more purposeful and thus more effective both immediately and in the longer term" when it is

the learner who sets up the learning agenda, and, by shifting the responsibility for learning to the learner, the barriers between learning and real life do not arise, so the learner's capacity for autonomous behaviour can be transferred to all other areas in life.

Before discussing the details of autonomous learning, it is worth making clear that, although independent learning is often regarded a feature of an autonomous learner, it does not mean that the person learns *alone*. As Little (1991, p.5) explains,

[...] because we are social beings our independence is always balanced by dependence; our essential condition is one of interdependence. [...] Education, whether institutionalized or not, is likewise an interactive, social process. For most of us, important learning experiences are likely to be remembered at least partly in terms of our relationship either with one or more other learners or with a teacher.

2.2.2. Autonomy as Decision-making

One frequently cited definition of autonomy is perhaps the one given by Holec (1981, p.3), "the ability to take charge of one's own learning." This means to take responsibility for all the decisions concerning the following aspects of learning with which one is involved:

- determining the objectives;
- defining the contents and progressions;
- selecting methods and techniques to be used;
- monitoring the procedure of acquisition (rhythm, time, place, etc);

- evaluating what has been acquired (ibid.).

Holec's definition of learner autonomy is apparently one that focuses on empowering a learner to assume responsibilities traditionally taken by the teacher and also on the management and organisation of individual learning process (Benson, 2001; Little, 1991). This is similar to the "empowering technique" suggested by Kiraly (2003, pp.78-84) for a translation course, in which students are invited by the teacher to identify learning goals and contents and participate in the assessment of learning:

This is an empowering technique that strengthens the facilitator/learner relationship in the classroom by demonstrating to the students that they are decisive actors in planning our course (ibid., p.79).

2.2.3. Cognitive Components

As Benson (2001) points out, Holec's definition does not make the cognitive constructs involved in learner autonomy explicit. Little (1991) argues that learner autonomy is not merely about the organisation and management of the learning process.

Essentially, autonomy is a capacity – for detachment, critical reflection, decision-making, and independent action. It presupposes, but also entails, that the learner will develop a particular kind of psychological relation to the process and content of his learning. The capacity for autonomy will be displayed both in the way the learner learns and in the way he or she transfers what has been learned to wider contexts (ibid., p.4).

Based on this definition, autonomy is not merely about making decisions about one's learning process, but also involves critical reflection (cf. Candy, 1988). It is, therefore, "fundamental to autonomous learning that the learner should develop a capacity to reflect critically on the learning process, evaluate his progress, and if necessary make adjustments to his learning strategies" (Little, 1991, p.52). The problem is that students cannot be assumed to be able to reflect critically. Helping students to learn how to reflect critically should thus be an essential component of any teaching/learning method that promotes autonomy (Little, *ibid*; Nunan, 1996).

2.2.4. Autonomy as Discipline-based

While Little (1991) believes that it should be quite easy for an autonomous learner to transfer their autonomous capacity to other aspects of life, Candy (1988) proposes that attainment of autonomy is not universal but subject-dependent. In other words, a highly autonomous learner in a subject area does not guarantee that the person can become autonomous in another subject area. From this perspective, autonomy is not just an attitude to learning and life or an approach to learning and teaching (Boud, 1988) but is predicated upon subject- or discipline-based knowledge.

Candy (1988, p.75) also argues, mainly based on Curran's (1976), Nolan's (1981) and Perry's (1970) research findings, that attainment of subject-matter autonomy (i.e. attainment of autonomy in a particular subject area) is "developmental and cumulative". A learner's autonomy in any particular subject area increases when s/he moves through stages in learning from total dependency to full autonomy. Only through deep learning (see 2.1.2.3.) can one master the knowledge of a subject area and become truly autonomous in that subject area. When the person is truly autonomous, s/he should have developed "mental maps" or "anticipatory schemes"

(i.e. what the learner knows about the subject, Kuhn, 1981), which enable them to “distinguish defensible from indefensible knowledge claims” of that subject area (Candy, 1988, p.75) (See also discussion in 2.4.). This implies that students’ autonomy can be better described based on *how well* they master the body of knowledge of their discipline, upon which they can make wiser decisions, rather than *how much* they have learned for instance through rote learning.

2.2.5. Autonomy in Practice

Candy’s view that learner autonomy is content-dependent and developmental is shared by many researchers and teachers alike. This implies that teachers need to evaluate how autonomous a student is in a specific discipline. For instance, Nunan (1997) proposes a scheme through which foreign language students can gradually exercise more autonomy. This scheme starts from raising students’ awareness of learning goals and content to involving them in intervening, creating and ultimately transcending and applying what they have learned in the classroom to daily life.

Some have tried to identify discipline-specific features and develop different levels of learning through which students’ progress in autonomy can be observed. One example is the framework proposed by Littlewood (1996) for developing autonomy in and through foreign language learning. Based on the notion that communication is a core concept in language learning (see 2.1.1.6.), Littlewood (1996, pp.429-430) proposes that “autonomy as a communicator” be a specific component of autonomy in the context of language learning and be juxtaposed with “autonomy as a learner” and “autonomy as a person”. He suggests, for example, that language students’ autonomy level in making decision can be distinguished in practice: from making decision on grammar and vocabulary, choosing the meanings they want to express, to using

languages independently outside the classroom.

Both Nunan's scheme and Littlewood's progression of autonomy demonstrate how theories of autonomy can be applied in practice. The rationales of their proposals, and many others (e.g. Higgs, 1988), are consistent with the concepts of the zone of proximal development (ZPD) (see 2.1.2.1.), where students move progressively towards the next level of autonomy.

The distance students are prepared to travel towards full autonomy depends on many contextual factors, such as the learners themselves, the classroom and institutional environment and the societal and cultural background (Nunan, 1997). Teachers can set the criteria for the next level of autonomy and modify teaching methods by integrating learning contexts with content (Candy, 1988). However, in the end, it is the students who need to take up the responsibilities of learning. As Nunan (1997, p.202) reminds us,

Regardless of these constraints, some degree of autonomy is, I believe, a fact of life, for in the final analysis, if any learning is to take place, the learners must do it for themselves.

In other words, learners need to take a responsible attitude toward learning and be willing to contribute to their learning (Scharle and Szabó, 2000). Littlewood (1996, 1997) has also argued that the capacity for autonomy comprises both *ability* and *willingness*, because a person may have the ability to carry out a decision but is unwilling to do so, and vice versa. Littlewood (ibid.) further divides the two components each into two sub-components. Ability depends on possessing both

knowledge and *skills* for making and carrying out choices; willingness depends on having both the *motivation* and the *confidence* to take responsibilities for the choices. The four components are interdependent. For instance, a person possessing more knowledge and skills of a particular subject area is likely to be more confident and hence more motivated to perform independently.

* * * * *

It is apparent that autonomy is not simply a goal but a complex of a variety of educational concepts, which are interdependent and interactive. It is not just an educational ideal to be pursued but an attitude to learning. The above review has also shown that it is not enough to say that autonomy is desired. Why it is desired, how it can be developed and, more importantly, what it means to be an autonomous translator, all require clarification and investigation.

These concerns have led us to the theme of the next section: motivation. That is, what may influence students' willingness to take up responsibilities for their own learning?

2.3. Motivation

Motivation is an influential factor in learning of any kind, since any learning is most likely to occur when students themselves are willing to learn (Williams and Burden, 1997). Motivation has also been recognised as a crucial factor in translator training. There have been statements that describe why trainee translators are motivated and how they can be better motivated.

Some of the statements are based on learning theories. For instance, surface learning

is usually motivated by a desire, for instance, to get a higher mark and with little meaningful engagement, so it often results in low quality learning. Deep learning is usually highly motivated with active and meaningful engagement, so it is more likely to result in higher levels of understanding (Kelly, 2005). Other statements are more relevant for translators and are mostly based on teachers' observations and reflections. For instance, for post-graduate trainee translators, the expectation of becoming a professional translator is one major source of motivation to want to learn to translate (ibid.).

Before more research is done to reveal factors of motivation specific to translator training, research done in the fields of psychology and second language learning can serve as a starting point for us to understand trainee translators' motivation.

2.3.1. What is Motivation?

Early behaviourist views on motivation assumed that people's behaviour is initiated and reinforced by external forces (e.g. a reward) or driven passively by psychological deficiency to satisfy psychological needs (e.g. a lonely person seeks companions). Thus, the behaviourist emphasis in learning tends to be on elements outside personal control, such as how to provide rewards in order to get desired outcomes or on identification of psychological needs that cause inner tensions which have to be released (Williams and Burden, 1997; Deci *et al.*, 2000).

However, people do not simply react passively to their inner and outer environments. There are moments that we do things simply because we enjoy doing them. Deci and Ryan argue that people are

naturally inclined to act on their inner and outer environments, engage in activities that interest them, and move toward personal and interpersonal coherence (2000, p.230).

Motivation is dichotomised as intrinsic and extrinsic. If an act is performed for the activity itself in order to experience positive feelings (e.g. pleasure, satisfaction, enjoyment), the motivation is intrinsic; if an act is performed for reasons outside the activity (e.g. to make a living or gain other rewards), the motivation is extrinsic (Csikszentmihalyi and Nakamura, 1989; Ushioda, 1996; Williams and Burden, 1997). So, a person might translate for enjoyment (intrinsic) or for earning income (extrinsic).

Early research on motivation often viewed intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation as antagonistic to each other (Deci and Ryan, 2002; Rigby, et al., 1992; Williams and Burden, 1997). Intrinsic motivation was regarded as autonomous and thus desirable while extrinsic motivation was regarded as not self-determined and not autonomous and thus less desirable (de Charms, 1968, 1984; Deci and Ryan, 2000, 2002). A number of replicable findings have shown that offering extrinsic rewards tends to decrease people's motivation to do an intrinsically interesting activity (Deci, 1971; Deci and Ryan, 1980). However, later empirical research (e.g. Harter, 1981) has found that the two forms of motivation may correlate to improve learning (cf. discussion in Williams and Burden, 1997). These all implied that the relationship between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation is much more complex than early research had envisaged (Guay, et al., 2008). The dichotomous view of motivation was apparently over-simplified and insufficient to explain all empirical findings (Rigby et al., 1992).

An alternative is the view of Self-Determination Theory (SDT)³ on motivation. SDT emerged in the 1970s and has become a key theory of motivation today (for comprehensive and detailed reviews of SDT, see Deci and Ryan, 2000, 2002; Vallerand, et al., 1997). SDT proposes to view extrinsically motivated behaviours as presenting differing degree of autonomy and thus forming a continuum of autonomy. This view has enabled a more detailed categorisation of extrinsic motivation (external, introjected, identified and integrated), which has been found particularly useful in explaining empirical findings. The two ends of the continuum are intrinsic motivation and amotivation respectively, which are explained below along with the four forms of extrinsic motivation.

2.3.1.1. Intrinsic Motivation

An intrinsically motivated behaviour is performed for itself in order to experience the pleasure, satisfaction and enjoyment inherent in the activity (Vallerand, 1997; Williams and Burden, 1997). Such behaviours have an internal locus of causality (i.e. cause of action) so they are considered fully autonomous and self-determined (Deci and Ryan, 2000).

In the context of learning and education, intrinsic motivation is clearly desirable, as is evident in its dynamic processes (Ushioda, 1996): If students' learning is intrinsically motivated, they are likely to learn continuously because rewards of learning (e.g. positive feelings) are generated from learning itself. Resultant development and

³ Self-Determination Theory is composed of four underlying theories: cognitive evaluation theory (CET) (Deci, 1975; Deci and Ryan, 1980), Organismic integration theory (OIT) (Deci and Ryan, 1985a; Ryan & Connell, 1989), causality orientations theory (COT) (Deci and Ryan, 1985b) and basic needs theory (BNT) (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Here only components of SDT relevant to the present thesis are reviewed.

mastery in skills and competence will increase the intrinsic value of learning, which in turn further engages students in learning. This forms a self-sustaining learning cycle, motivating students to learn autonomously and continuously.

2.3.1.2. Extrinsic Motivation

In contrast to intrinsically motivated behaviours, extrinsically motivated behaviours are performed to gain something outside the activity and have an external locus of causality (e.g. significant others like parents and teachers). Although extrinsic motivation was traditionally viewed as instrumental, not self-determined and thus non-autonomous, SDT suggests that extrinsically motivated behaviours can still be self-determined but to a varying degree (Deci and Ryan, 1985(a) and (b), 2000, 2002).

This is because, much like Piaget's assimilation process (see 2.1.2.1.), SDT assumes that people are naturally inclined to internalise experiences. When people are doing an extrinsically motivated activity, they tend to internalise the regulation of that activity and integrate it with their own self. The more the regulation is integrated with the self, the more autonomous the activity is perceived; the less the regulation is internalised, the more controlled the activity is perceived (Deci and Ryan, 2002). Therefore, depending on the effectiveness of the internalisation and integration processes, SDT posits that there can be four differentiated regulatory styles of extrinsic motivation, which are summarised below (cf. Deci and Ryan, 1985(a), 2000, 2002; Deci *et al.*, 1991; Rigby *et al.*, 1992; Vallerand, 1997).

External regulation is the least self-determined or autonomous style, which refers to behaviours that are regulated and thus controlled by contingencies completely

external to the person, such as the promise of a reward or threat of a punishment. For example, students may do homework to gain teachers' praise or avoid punishment.

Introjected regulation refers to behaviours that are motivated by internalised rules, demands or pressures. For example, students do homework because they think they *should* do it so that they do not feel guilty. An introjected regulation is internal in the sense that it is controlled or coerced by internal contingencies (e.g. guilt). However, it has not been accepted by the person and has not been integrated with the person's self. In other words, the *perceived* locus of causality is still external to the person, so it is much like external control rather than self-initiation or self-determination.

Identified regulation occurs when the value of a behaviour or regulation has been identified as having personal importance. Take Kelly's (2005) observation of post-graduate trainee translators as an example. Such students join the translator training programme because they recognise that learning more translation skills and acquiring more translation competence is important to their career as a professional translator. Their behaviour is externally motivated because it is instrumental to a goal (e.g. becoming a professional translator) external to the behaviour (e.g. translating). However, due to identification with the underlying value of the behaviour, they tend to perceive its locus of causality as lying relatively within themselves, so they have more sense of choice, volition or autonomy about performing the behaviour (e.g. more willing to translate).

Integrated regulation is the most autonomous style of extrinsic motivation. It occurs when separate identifications have been evaluated and can co-exist congruently with and are assimilated fully into one's self. An example (Rigby *et al.*, 1992) is that a

parent may identify with being an authority figure to her children as well as being a friend to them. When the two identifications exist harmoniously with each other and with the parent's other aspects of self, the parent tends to play the two roles volitionally and experience them as autonomous. When the two identifications cannot co-exist, the parent tends to suffer from psychological stress or a feeling of being controlled.

With this more finely differentiated categorisation, some researchers have started to see motivation as autonomous vs. controlled. *Autonomous motivation* includes intrinsic motivation and well-internalised styles of motivation (i.e. identified and integrated). Autonomously motivated people tend to experience choice and volition. *Controlled motivation* includes poorly internalised styles of motivation (i.e. external and introjected). Controlled motivation tends to make people feel pressured or coerced to think or act in a particular way (Vansteenkiste *et al.*, 2006; Deci and Ryan, 1985(a), 2008).

2.3.1.3. Amotivation

In either autonomous or controlled motivation, people have the intention to act. When they have no intention of acting, they are regarded as in a state of **amotivation**, which occurs when people experience a sense of incompetence and uncontrollability and perceive a lack of contingency between their behaviour and a desired outcome (Deci and Ryan, 1985(a), 2000; Vallerand and Bissonnette, 1992). In other words, they feel no matter what they do, it will have no impact on the result. When in such a state, people have “no sense of purpose and no expectation of reward or of the possibility of changing the course of events” (Vallerand and Bissonnette, 1992, p.602). For instance, if trainee translators feel that their translation competence will not

improve no matter how many translation exercises they do, they are amotivated and have no interest in doing translation exercises at all.

2.3.2. Autonomy and Motivation

The finely differentiated categorisation of motivation is an important development for studies of autonomous learning. It links autonomy with motivation and thus provides a way to observe and evaluate the effect of autonomy and autonomous learning.

Autonomy is “not a single, easily described behaviour” (Little, 1990, p.7), but motivation, particularly the well-defined styles of motivation, is easier to describe both qualitatively and quantitative and can be linked with students’ performance in a variety of learning contexts and methods. Many empirical experiments have confirmed that autonomous motivation is desired in learning. As Guay and Ratelle (2008, p.237) concluded based on previous research,

the more students endorse autonomous forms of motivation, the higher their grades are, the more they persist, the better they learn, and the more they are satisfied and experience positive emotions at school.

If these are true, the next question to ask is how autonomous motivation can be enhanced.

2.3.3. Factors Influencing Autonomous Motivation

A variety of factors may influence autonomous motivation. Many practical suggestions have been made to enhance autonomous motivation in a variety of populations and contexts. Only those that are the most relevant to the discussion of the present study

are reviewed below.

2.3.3.1. Change of Attributions

People make their own sense of the world (see 2.1.2.1.) and have their own disposition so what motivates a person differ from individual to individual (Williams and Burden, 1997). However, since we are not isolated or living in an impersonal vacuum, we react to what we think others are perceiving, feeling, thinking and doing (Heider, 1958). Our own perception of events and others are important and may regulate or motivate our behaviour.

Based partly on Heider's idea, Weiner (1979, 1986) suggests that there are four main causes to which learners attribute their success or failure: **ability**, **task difficulty**, **effort**, and **luck**. He also proposed three attribution dimensions: **locus of causality** (internal or external), **stability** (changeable or unchangeable), and **controllability** (whether within one's control). The combinations of causes and attribution dimensions differ between individuals and are influenced by the nature of the event or situation.

When students perceive that they do not have the ability to perform a task and believe this is an internal stable cause beyond their control, they tend not to make much effort to carry out the task. When they attribute their failure to insufficient effort and perceive the amount of effort as within their control, they are more likely to make an effort to improve their learning; this means they are likely to be more motivated (see accounts in Child, 1994; Dickinson, 1995; Williams and Burden, 1997). It follows that if a person's attributions of failure can be changed from stable and uncontrollable to unstable and controllable, they are more likely to make efforts to change their status from failure (Hastings, 1994).

2.3.3.2. Change of Perceived Competence

From the concepts of attribution theory and intrinsic motivation, it is evident that how people perceive their ability or competence has important influences on their motivation to make future efforts in learning. As Ushioda (1996) points out,

“People will not easily develop intrinsic motivation in relation to skills or areas of activity where they hold negative perceptions of their abilities and effectiveness, or where their attempts at learning constantly meet with failure or poor performance.” (p. 47)

Experimental findings (Harter, 1992, p.83) have shown that one perceived competence “influenced one’s affective reaction to one’s competence, which, in turn, had an impact on one’s motivational orientation”. For instance, the more competent persons perceive themselves to be, the more positive they feel and the more likely they will have an intrinsic motivational orientation; the less competent they perceive themselves, the less likely they are to be intrinsically motivated.

Therefore, intrinsic motivation tends to be enhanced when an event (e.g. feedback, a learning activity) increases one’s perceived competence; it tends to be undermined when an event decreases one’s perceived competence (cf. Deci and Ryan, 2000, 2004; Vallerand and Reid, 1984).

2.3.3.3. Internalisation of Extrinsically Motivated Activities

If an activity is intrinsically liked by a student, what teachers need to do is often the promotion of the learning activity itself to make it more attractive to the student. However, teachers, or other training agents, frequently find it necessary to promote

uninteresting or disliked activities, so “the critical issue becomes how to promote autonomous regulation for extrinsically motivated behaviors” so that such behaviours or activities can continue (Ryan and Deci, 2000, p.73).

This can be achieved through prompts given by significant others (e.g. teachers) to whom students feel attached or related. When an activity is modelled or valued by significant others, students are more likely to start to perform it. However, for such behaviour to continue, students also need to perceive an increase in competence. “When an event increases perceived competence, intrinsic motivation will tend to be enhanced; whereas, when an event diminishes perceived competence, intrinsic motivation will be undermined” (Deci and Ryan, 2002, p.11). It is also worth noting that negative feedback tends to cause a decrease in perceived competence and thus undermines one’s intrinsic motivation; whereas positive feedback tends to enhance intrinsic motivation but only when people have a sense of autonomy in doing the activity for which they perceive they are competent (ibid.).

2.4. Reflective Learning

The importance of reflection has been increasingly discussed by translation scholars. It is regarded as a desired feature of professional translators, as in Baker’s (1992, p.4) statement:

[...] translators need to develop an ability to stand back and reflect on what they do and how they do it.....they have to prove to themselves as well as others that they are in control of what they do; that they do not just translate well because they have a ‘flair’ for translation, but rather because, like other professionals, they have made a conscious effort to understand various

aspects of their work.

Perhaps for similar reasons, some translation pedagogy scholars have started to attach an importance to the development of reflective translators, seeing it as a goal of translator training (Kiraly, 2000; Johnson, 2003).

Reflection has also been used by translator trainers as a learning method. González Davies, for example, suggests that students need to think about translation and be aware of the different approaches to translation and then learn through “*reflecting, communicating and translating*” (2004, p.129; italics added.).

Each of the three learning activities that the present study has investigated has been claimed as being able to develop reflective translators. What is intriguing is that how to achieve it has rarely been discussed, if at all. It appears to have been assumed that, as long as students think or discuss, they would automatically and eventually become reflective translators. Therefore, it is important to understand what reflection and reflective learning is.

2.4.1. Reflection

John Dewey (1910/1991) is usually regarded as the first scholar to attach educational value to reflection. For Dewey, reflection is a special form of thought, which he defines as “active, persistent, and careful consideration of any belief or supposed form of knowledge in the light of the grounds that support it, and the further conclusions to which it tends” (ibid., p.6).

Dewey held that a perplexing or ambiguous situation or some confusion or doubt,

which presents a problem or alternatives, is the starting point of a reflective thinking process, while decision on a solution marks the end of the process. Demand for the solution of a problematic situation guides a person to embark on a critical inquiry, which includes testing every suggested solution and reviewing evidence that supports the conclusion reached (ibid.; see also discussion in Mezirow, 1991; Moon, 1999). This hypothetical-deductive form of reasoning is similar to Piaget's *formal operational thinking*, the last developmental stage of learning, characterised by abstract reasoning and reflective intelligence (Piaget, 1947, p.123).

Since Dewey, different kinds of reflection models have been proposed. Some scholars are concerned about whether reflection leads to positive change or modified action in learning (Hatton and Smith, 1995). Kolb (1984, pp.40-43) proposes a learning cycle, which consists of four learning modes. *Reflective observation* brings in the *concrete experience* of an event to form abstract concepts through *abstract conceptualisation*, and then abstract concepts guide the action of *active experimentation*, which results in further concrete experience. The whole cycle then starts again. Kolb places reflection firmly in the process of learning and defines an orientation toward *reflective observation* as focusing

on understanding the meaning of ideas and situations by carefully observing and impartially describing them. It emphasizes understanding as opposed to practical application; a concern with what is true or how things happen as opposed to what will work; an emphasis on reflection as opposed to action (1984, p.68).

To Kolb, a reflective person is one that "enjoys intuiting the meaning of situation and

ideas” and is good at looking at things from different perspectives and seeing their implications (ibid).

Schön (1983, 1987) links reflection to the development of professional knowledge. He maintained that reflection not only occurs after a task is completed, but also occurs while working on the task. He has coined the former form of reflection as “reflection-on-action” and the latter as “reflection-in-action”. His basic idea is that, when professionals encounter a problem, which they are unable to solve based on their existing “frames”, they become aware of the need to reflect-in-action on the frames. When the professionals become aware of their frames, they also become aware of alternative ways of re-framing the situation they are facing and hence modify their actions.

Schön’s “frames” are what Habermas (1971) and Mezirow (1991) call “meaning perspectives”. Habermas differentiates three areas of cognitive interest: technical, practical and emancipatory. The technical area is associated with instrumental learning (e.g. engineering), which is about controlling and manipulating our objective environment. The practical interest is about social relationships and is associated with communicative learning, which involves understanding others and making ourselves understood as well as explaining intentions, values, concepts, etc. All these activities are shaped by linguistic codes and cultural and social norms. The emancipatory learning concerns identifying and challenging distorted meaning perspectives through self-reflection in order to emancipate oneself from libidinal, linguistic, institutional, epistemic or environmental forces that limit our options and our rational control over our lives (Habermas, 1971; Mezirow, 2000). Habermas’s views had great influence on Mezirow’s views of adult learning and reflection.

Mezirow is often regarded as the major developer of Transformative Adult Learning. According to Mezirow (1991), we understand and interpret our world through meaning schemes and meaning perspectives. Meaning schemes are “specific knowledge, beliefs, value judgments, or feelings involved in making an interpretation” (ibid., p.5). Changes to meaning schemes may occur through everyday reflection and do not necessarily involve reflection on our sense of self (ibid., p.167).

On the other hand, meaning perspectives are “rule systems governing perception and cognition”, which are uncritically assimilated presuppositions “created by ideologies, learning styles, neurotic self-deceptions” and serve “as schemes and as perceptual and interpretive codes” (ibid., pp.4-5). Changes to meaning perspectives occur less frequently than to meaning schemes and always involve critical reflection upon our sense of self and distorted presuppositions (ibid., p.167).

In some situations, uncritically assimilated meaning perspectives, or frames, formed by authority figures (parents, teachers, etc.), suffice for problem-solving. However, there are also situations where prior meaning schemes and meaning perspectives are found to be problematic and unable to provide solutions. This is when one needs to resort to reflective thinking to confirm or negate one’s prior meaning schemes, which in turn may lead to transformation of meaning perspectives (ibid.).

Therefore, to Mezirow, reflection is “the process of critically assessing the content, process, or premise(s) of our efforts to interpret and give meaning to an experience” (1991, p.104). It is more than being aware of our experience or our awareness. In reflection, we do not simply look at the content of a problem (what), but also “stop and

think” about our problem-solving process (how) and why we have done so (why).

Mezirow also distinguishes between non-reflective and reflective action. He identified three types of non-reflective action. *Habitual action* is one that we have done so frequently that we now perform it without needing to give much conscious thought to it (e.g. typing, riding a bicycle). *Thoughtful action* involves higher-orders of cognitive action, such as analysing, performing, discussing, remembering and judging, but such action is still based on pre-existing meaning schemes and perspectives. *Introspection* is thinking about ourselves, and our thoughts and feelings (e.g. how much one enjoys an experience). It does not involve validity testing of pre-existing learning so is not reflective.

Reflective action is “making decisions or taking other action predicated upon the insights resulting from reflection” (ibid., p.108). It starts from posing a problem, followed by scanning, propositional construal, reflection and imaginative insight, resulting in interpretation that leads to a change or a transformation in the meaning scheme (i.e. beliefs) if content and/or process reflection has occurred or in the meaning perspective (i.e. belief systems) if premise reflection has occurred.

Premise reflection is apparently a higher level of reflection, which is also what Dewey calls “reflective thinking” and Piaget’s (1947, pp.122-123) “decentralisation”, referring to a process that one frees oneself from egocentricity to a more objective one.

2.4.2. Evaluation of Reflection

Although not all learning requires reflective thinking, it is evident that reflective thinking is a desired objective of learning. However, a wide variety of terminology,

definitions and categorisation have made reflective learning difficult to implement and its effects difficult to assess (Rodgers, 2002). A variety of approaches have been used and claimed to be able to promote reflective learning, such as action research projects, case studies, microteaching, structured curriculum tasks, journal writing, but little research evidence has been found to show that reflective thinking was achieved (Hatton and Smith, 1995). That is why some scholars have started to establish distinct criteria for the assessment of reflective thinking.

Based on literature of reflection and through an empirical study, Hatton and Smith (1995) identified four distinct types of reflective writing through qualitative research. *Descriptive writing* is not reflective; it simply records what occurred and makes no attempt to provide reasons. *Descriptive reflection* tries to provide some reasons or justification, generally from one perspective or from the recognition of multiple perspectives. *Dialogic reflection* steps back from what occurred, has discourse with one's self, and explores possible reasons. *Critical reflection* gives reasons for decisions or what occurred which takes account of historical, social and political contexts.

Based on these criteria, Hatton and Smith analysed their subjects' writing and then proposed a framework for types of reflection as a basis for further research development in teacher education. They argue that students start from reflecting on technical rationality (examining one's use of skills or competencies through technical reflection) to reflection-on-action and then reflection-in-action. The nature of reflection used at the stage of reflection-on-action is descriptive, dialogic and critical, with the last the highest level of reflection. They see reflection-in-action as the most demanding type of reflection, where one reflects on all aspects of one's own practice

in a given situation as it is unfolding (Hatton and Smith, 1995, pp.45-46).

With a similar intention to Hatton and Smith to develop tools to determine whether and how students engage in reflective thinking, a Hong Kong research team developed a readily usable questionnaire through a quantitative research, (Kember et al., 2000; Appendix C.). Their questionnaire was based on a combination of literature review and initial testing and measures four constructs: *habitual action*, *understanding*, *reflection* and *critical reflection*. Except for the Understanding scale, the definitions of the other three scales are generally consistent with Mezirow's transformative theory. The Understanding scale was first based on Mezirow's thoughtful action but was later narrowed to the understanding of a concept without reflecting upon its significance in personal or practical situation. The reason was that thoughtful action covered too many actions to be workable as a questionnaire scale.

In spite of having been developed with different intentions, the criteria developed by Hatton and Smith and the four scales by the Hong Kong team share some common ground. *Descriptive Writing* and *Habitual Action* are both non-reflective; *Dialogic Reflection* and *Reflection* both involve examination of events and exploration of experience. The two sets of criteria both have *Critical Reflection* as the highest level of reflective thinking. Their difference lies in that Hatton and Smith's criteria focus more on perspectives and justifications (Descriptive Reflection) and broader contexts (Critical Reflection) while the Hong Kong team's criteria focus more on individuals' development. This is perhaps because Hatton and Smith's criteria were developed for pre-service teacher training while the Hong Kong team's questionnaire was intended for all disciplines. This seems to indicate that discipline-specific criteria would be different and need to incorporate elements relevant to that discipline.

The above has reviewed literature essential for the investigation of the usefulness of the three learning activities in question. It shows that it is not enough to assert that students' autonomous and reflective learning is encouraged by a learning activity simply by doing that activity. How they perceive themselves, how they use it and perceive its advantages and disadvantages, what its actual effects, and what role discipline-specific knowledge plays, all matter.

In order to meet the research goals set out in Chapter One and to answer the above questions, an empirical study was initiated, the methodology of which is explained in the next chapter.

Chapter Three

Methodology

3. METHODOLOGY

The research questions framed in the preceding chapters need to be answered empirically. Accordingly, a learning workshop was designed and held for the collection of qualitative and quantitative data (3.1), which was then analysed systematically (3.2).

3.1. Data Production

3.1.1. Pilot Study

As the three learning activities in question, i.e. diary, think-aloud (TA) and small group discussion (SGD), had seldom been investigated rigorously, there was little knowledge about how they should be implemented in an experiment. Before the main study was undertaken, a smaller-scale pilot study (Chen, 2007) was designed and carried out to find and correct any deficiencies in the design of the experiment.

Three students, who had just completed their first-year study in a translator and interpreter training programme in the U.K., were recruited to participate in the pilot study. Each completed three translation tasks; each task involved translating a literary text of around 350 words. They were interviewed before and after the three translation tasks to explore their experience of the learning workshop. The pilot study procedure is depicted in Figure 3-1.

In the first task, the students wrote a diary entry after completing their translation. In the second task, they thought aloud while translating and then wrote a diary entry. In the third task, they completed their translation, had a discussion together and then wrote a diary entry.

The findings of the pilot study suggested that the main study should (1) reduce potential subject dropout due to a heavy study load by using shorter source texts and have students do two tasks rather than three; (2) interview each student after completing each task to avoid their forgetting their perceptions of the learning activities; (3) have students do one learning activity at a time to avoid confusing their memories of each learning activity when interviewed; (4) select source texts from general genres rather than the literary genre to avoid deterring potential participants, and (5) provide guidelines for each learning activity so that students know what to do with each learning activity.

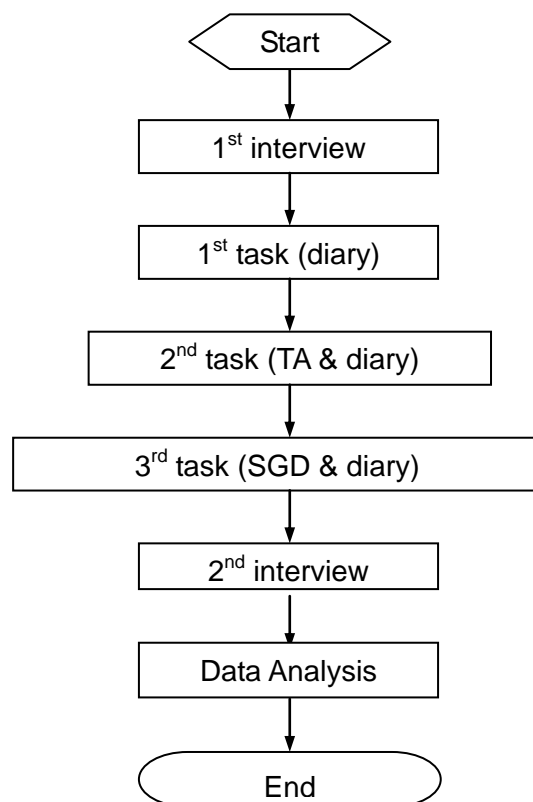


Figure 3-1 The Experimental Procedure of the Pilot Study

3.1.2. Main Study

Based on the findings of the pilot study, the design of the experiment for the main study was revised as depicted in Figure 3-2. The experiment used a learning

workshop and three rounds of questionnaire surveys and semi-structured interviews as its major devices for data collection.

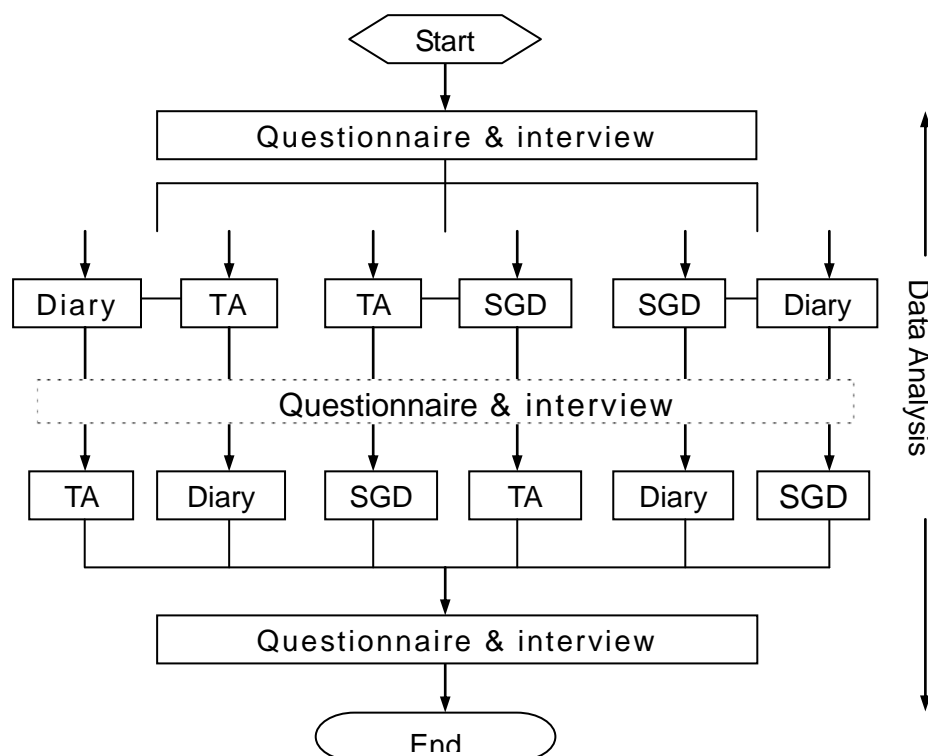


Figure 3-2 The Experimental Procedure of the Main Study

3.1.2.1. The Learning Workshop

The learning workshop lasted nearly 5 months. Before the workshop was launched, an invitation, explaining the purpose and procedure of the workshop, was circulated to the 51 Chinese students on a two-year postgraduate translator and interpreter training programme in the U.K.

The study's ethical principles were conveyed to all participating students. Participation in the workshop was voluntary, so they could opt out any time giving no reason. To ensure confidentiality and anonymity, the 23 participants were referred to by the

letters A to W in the naming of all data and in the thesis. No data collected from them for the present study has been, or will be, disclosed unless they give permission or request such action. Written consent was obtained from each student to allow the data to be used for the study.

As one of the study's objectives was to compare the strengths and weaknesses of the Diary, TA and SGD learning activities and to avoid overburdening students, each student only did two of the three learning activities.

The students were randomly assigned to one of the three groups shown in Figure 3-2, i.e. diary and TA, TA and SGD, or SGD and diary. In order to see if the sequence of the two learning activities had any influence on the students' learning and thus data, they were assigned to two sub-groups in each of the three groups. For instance, in the diary-TA group, a sub-group did diary first and then TA while the other sub-group did TA first and then diary. Data analysis revealed that the temporal order had no influence on the students' learning.

The Subjects

Twenty-seven students decided to participate in the workshop. Four of them dropped out without completing the second round of questionnaire/interview. Their data was regarded as invalid and not analysed. Another two students completed the second round of questionnaire/interview but decided not to continue due to heavy study load. Their data were regarded as valid and analysed.

Of the 23 students analysed, 8 were second-year and 15 were first-year students. All were Chinese-native speakers in their 20s or 30s. They had all heard of learning

diaries before. Some had kept a learning diary under teachers' instructions. Most of them were not familiar with TA and some had never heard of it, particularly the first-year students. All of them had small group discussion experience.

The Translation Tasks

For each learning mode, each student was required to translate three of the six English texts of around 200 words into Chinese (Appendix A). All were extracted from major newspapers or journals in the UK or the US.

Fifty English texts were initially selected and then filtered down to ten, based on the criteria that they were (1) of comparable levels of difficulty and (2) appropriate for postgraduate translation students. The ten texts were then sent for final selection based on the same criteria to four language experts, all experienced in translation studies and/or translator training. Four of the ten texts were filtered out because they deviated most from the others based on the criteria. The remaining six texts were randomly divided into two sets. Each learning activity used one set of texts.

The Learning Modes

To avoid confusion, in this thesis, a learning mode refers to a learning activity (i.e. diary, TA or SGD) and the linked translation tasks.

There was no deadline for completing a translation task or a learning mode, but students were not allowed to discuss the translation tasks before the learning workshop ended, except when they were involved in small group discussion.

In the diary-learning mode, students wrote a diary entry for each of the two translation

tasks they did. The guidelines for keeping a diary were as follows.

- (1) Please describe your translating process (How do you translate? How do you solve problems? What strategies do you use? How do you make decisions? How much time do you use? How do you feel while translating, etc.?)
- (2) Please assess your own translation (the product), (Do you feel it is an acceptable translation? Are there sentences/phrases/words that can be polished more but you don't know how? etc.?)
- (3) General impression of this task's difficulty (Why is it difficult or easy for you? etc.?)
- (4) Others: anything you think is important to your learning.

In the TA-learning mode, prior to the translation tasks, students were given brief training on how to think aloud. In the TA activity proper, students had to speak aloud and record what was in their mind while translating. Then they needed to listen to their own TA recordings and write a TA learning journal, i.e. comments on the recordings. In this thesis, the word *journal* is used for the TA learning activity while the word *diary*, for the diary learning activity. The guidelines for the TA journals were the same as those given for the diary learning activity.

In the discussion learning mode, students were grouped in threes and held a small group discussion after each translation task. Each group agreed among themselves on the time and date for their discussion. The guidelines for the small group discussion were the same as those for the diary and TA learning modes. All discussions were audio-recorded and transcribed.

As the present study investigated how the three learning activities were used in self-learning, so students completed their respective learning modes at their own workplace, could use any resources available, paced their own learning and decided

when to hand in their translation. Although the subjects were advised to submit their translation 4-10 days after receiving the source text, this time interval was for monitoring purposes -- so the researcher knew that the students were still in the workshop, not dropping out – rather than to pace their learning. However, due to the nature of small group discussion, where students needed to meet at the same place at the same time, those in the SGD learning mode needed to arrange when to meet for discussion. It turned out that all the SGD groups decided to have a discussion each week after they had completed their translation.

The data collected through the learning workshop were the subjects' translations, learning diaries, TA learning journals and recordings, and recordings of SGDs. Most of the SGD recordings were transcribed by the researcher and some were transcribed by others; the latter were carefully checked by the researcher.

3.1.2.2. The Questionnaires

Two questionnaires, A and B (Appendix B), were developed for the study. Questionnaire A was sent to students before the launch of the workshop, aiming at understanding the composition, nature and features of the students as a group. It consisted of three parts. Part I collected the students' basic information, including age group and language proficiency. Part II aimed at understanding students' existing learning, such as their reported translation strategies, their perception of their own learning progress, and their knowledge and views about the three learning activities being investigated. Part III investigated their motivation in enrolling themselves in the translator and interpreter training programme, and their expectation of themselves and the programme.

Questionnaire B was sent to the students after they had completed each of their two learning modes. It aimed at finding out their level of reflection (Part I) and their views on the learning mode just completed (Part II).

Questionnaire B, Part I contained 16 items, or statements, adapted from the questionnaire (Appendix C) developed by Kember et al. (2000) for measuring the level of students' reflective thinking in professional preparation courses. Kember et al. state that their questionnaire went through a series of statistical tests and evaluation to verify its validity and reliability, and was ready for use by academic programmes. Their questionnaire consists of four scales (habitual action, understanding, reflection, and critical reflection). Each scale has four items or statements. Each item is rated based on a 5-point rating, ranging from "strongly disagree" (1 point) to "strongly agree" (5 points). A student's total score for each scale is calculated by adding the scores of the four items in the respective scales. If a student scores highly on a scale, it means the student's thinking is more of that reflective level. For instance, if a student scores highly on the Reflection scale, it means they use more reflective thinking in a particular course (for detailed discussion, see 7.2.3.).

For the purpose of the present study, the original wording of the questionnaire was modified, as Kember et al. suggested. For example, "this course" was replaced by "this learning mode", and "do things" by "do translations. The modified Part I of Questionnaire B was as follows.

Habitual Action

1. When I am working on some translations, I can do them without thinking about what I am doing.
5. I have done translations so many times that I have started doing them

without thinking about it.

9. As long as I remember what I have learned about translating, I do not have to think too much.
13. If I follow the translation skills/concepts that I know, I do not have to think too much about them.

Understanding

2. To complete a translation task requires me to understand translation concepts.
6. To complete a translation task, I need to understand translation concepts.
10. I need to understand what I have learned about translating in order to perform translation tasks.
14. I have to think continually about the translation concepts/skills that I know.

Reflection

3. I sometimes question the way I/others do translations and try to think of a better way.
7. I like to think over what I have been translating and consider alternative ways of doing it.
11. I often reflect on my translating actions to see whether I could have improved on what I did.
15. I often re-appraise my experience so I can learn from it and improve for my next performance.

Critical Reflection

4. As a result of this learning activity I have changed the way I translate.
8. This activity has challenged some of my firmly held ideas.
12. As a result of this activity I have changed my normal way of doing translations.
16. During this activity I discovered faults in what I had previously believed to be right.

The scores obtained from Part I of Questionnaire B were the source of quantitative data for the present study.

Part II of Questionnaire B consisted of 12 open-ended questions. The questionnaire

used for the diary-learning mode is as follows.

1. What is your general impression of diary as a learning mode?
2. What are the advantages and/or disadvantages of keeping a learning diary?
3. Does keeping a learning diary help and/or hinder your reflection? In what ways?
4. How often and how long do you think it is appropriate to keep learning diaries?
5. Did knowing that you would keep a learning diary have any influence on your translating behaviours? If yes, what was the influence?
6. When did you decide what to write (e.g. while translating, before starting to write the diary, when you are writing a diary, other times, etc.)? There may be more than one answer.
7. Before you started to write your diary, did you organize your thoughts and think about what to write? If yes, how did you organize them? If no, how did you come up with a diary?
8. While you were writing your learning diary, did you come up with new ideas and/or questions? If yes, what were they? And what triggered them?
9. After you finished writing your learning diaries, have you ever thought about them? If yes, what aspects? If no, are there any reasons?
10. Did keeping a learning diary have any influence on your learning? If yes, what was the influence?
11. After completing this diary-learning mode, will you consider using diary as a learning method? If yes, why? If no, why not?
12. Please comment on your diaries as follows. How do you feel about them? Do you have any findings? If yes, what are they?

In the questionnaires used for the TA and SGD learning modes, the word “diary” was replaced by “TA” and “SGD” respectively. Data collected from Questionnaires A and B served as a source of questions to be asked in the interviews, as described below.

3.1.2.3. The Interviews

Three rounds of semi-structured interviews were conducted; first, immediately after the students joined the workshop and then after each of the two learning modes they

completed. The purpose of the interviews was to follow up interesting findings from questionnaires and earlier rounds of interviews, and to collect more data on and investigate deeply the emerging theoretical categories (3.2.1.). After the three rounds of interviews, some of the students were contacted for extra interviews when more data was needed or when the emerging theoretical concepts needed to be clarified.

The first round of interviews aimed at discovering more about students' learning needs based on their answers to the questionnaire. The second and third rounds of interviews probed students' perception of the learning activity that they had just completed, including its advantages and disadvantages and whether and how it facilitated their learning. All the interviews were recorded and transcribed for the purpose of analysis.

3.1.2.4. The Research Diary

Throughout the experiment, the researcher kept a research diary to note important observations with regard to the three learning activities. For example, an entry in the research diary recorded what a student said in an informal chat with the researcher. She found, after her first translation task in the TA learning mode, she sometimes "murmured" to herself while doing a translation task assigned by a lecturer, a behaviour she had not had before and found useful in sorting out translation strategies.

3.2. Data Analysis

Data collected in the present study was analysed according to data type: (1) qualitative data, (i.e. interviews, answers to the open-ended questions of the

questionnaires, the research diary, and students' learning diaries, TA learning journals, and transcriptions of SGD recordings); (2) quantitative data, (i.e. answers to the closed-ended questions in Part I of Questionnaire B); and (3) students' translations, which were analysed differently from the other qualitative data and the analytic method used is detailed in a separate section.

The qualitative data described above was the major data for the present study. The quantitative data and students' translations were only analysed to find evidence to evaluate or make comparisons with findings from the qualitative data.

3.2.1. Qualitative Data

3.2.1.1. Grounded Theory Approaches

Unlike traditional qualitative research, where data analysis is, in the main, carried out after data collection has been completed, this study employed grounded theory approaches.

Grounded theory approaches (Bryman, 2004; Charmaz, 2003, 2006; Creswell, 2003; Dey, 2004; Glaser and Strauss, 1967) generally have five repeated data collection and analysis phases. (1) Theoretical sampling — data sources are selected for their theoretical relevance, rather than for the sake of generalization per se. When there are important findings, the researcher needs to collect more data to help theorisation. (2) Coding — after data has been collected, the researcher looks for theory-relevant elements hidden in the data through coding and then forms categories for comparisons and for theorisation. (3) Memo writing — the researcher writes memos to help to analyse ideas about the codes and emerging categories. (4) Theoretical saturation — newly collected data is collected, analysed and compared with old data

until no new data can provide new insights. (5) Constant comparison — data is analysed as soon as received rather than waiting until all data has been collected. Theoretical ideas are successively refined, resulting in the generation of a hypothesis or theory.

Grounded theory approaches are not without criticism. They, seemingly, lack the methodological rigour of positivist approaches, which test hypotheses on data in order to refine a theory. However, as Charmaz (2006) argues, grounded theory provides an approach or attitude, which guides the researcher through their interpretative and theorising processes, rather than providing procedures on which to build a theory.

The present study employed grounded theory approaches for two main reasons. Firstly, there is little literature that describes trainee translators' learning behaviours in the three learning activities (2.1.3.), so there are no adequate pre-existing analytic frameworks that could be used to compare the three learning activities. Grounded theory approaches, with their repeated data collection-analysis-comparison processes, are particularly useful in forming categories for making comparisons.

Secondly, grounded theory approaches suit the longitudinal nature of the present study, which sampled fewer subjects repeatedly in order to chart development over time, rather than sampling more subjects just once. In terms of procedure, it was easier to manage small amounts of data over time than analysing all data at once.

3.2.1.2. Coding and Categorisation

All qualitative data first went through a line-by-line coding process to form initial categories. Then, the initially coded data was sorted, synthesised, integrated and

organised (“focus coding”) and was repeatedly compared to form more important categories, which were then investigated to find links and relationship (“theoretical coding”). During the coding processes, memos on intriguing findings were written and kept for future comparisons and analyses. Intriguing findings were followed up in later interviews. Repeated coding and comparison ensured that all categories were “grounded” in data. Below are two examples of coding and categorization of qualitative data.

Table 3-1 Example 1: Coding of Questionnaire Answers

Question: What are the advantages and/or disadvantages of SGD?	Initial Coding	Focus Coding
<p>Excerpt:</p> <p>Disadvantages: Sometimes, because of certain existing limitation, we still could not solve the problem finally.</p>	<p>Limitation (memo: <u>what limitation?</u>: to be followed-up in interviews) unsolved problems</p>	<p>Problem unsolved Limitation: no teacher and correct version (established in the later interview)</p>

Table 3-2 Example 2: Coding of Questionnaire Answers

Excerpt from SGD*	Initial coding	Focus coding	Theoretical coding
<p>Student K: I have problems with the first sentence of the second paragraph. Can we discuss it?</p> <p>Student H: Ok. Student L: Sure.</p>	<p>Ask a question (Student K)</p>	<p>Receiver</p>	<p>Student-type Teacher-type</p>
<p>Student H: How come you have problem with it?</p>	<p>Express no problem</p>	<p>Function: problem-solving</p>	

<p>Student K: Well...he said “the diagnosis is glib and alarmist”. I don’t know how to...glib and alarmist...</p> <p>Student H: You don’t know how to translate them?</p> <p>Student K: Yeah, doesn’t the “glib” mean...umm...</p> <p>Student H: It’s like 強... (back translation: sophistry)</p> <p>Student K: 強辯 (sophistry)?</p> <p>Student L: Yeah, to me, it is.</p> <p>Student H: Yes, it’s better translate it as 強辯 (sophistry).</p>	<p>(Student H)</p> <p>Giving answers (Students H and L)</p>	<p>(lexical problem)</p> <p>Givers</p>	
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Memo 1: There seemed to be a pattern emerging here. It was usually Student K, who raised a question and then Students H and L provided explanations, answers and solutions. Then Student K would agree to what Students H and L provided.

Memo 2: Is an asker usually a receiver? Are there other personality types in discussion? What is the influence of being one type most of the time on the learner? How does this influence their learning as a group? Although the discussions were conducted without the presence of a teacher, it seemed that there were two teachers and one student in the discussion. Just like a mini classroom.

* All students spoke Chinese in SGD, so the excerpts were translated into English.

The qualitative data about the students’ background, their learning needs, and the three learning activities went through the same analytical processes, but were analysed separately. Ultimately, important categories emerged from each learning

activity. These categories then went through comparative analyses to reveal commonalities and differences between the three learning activities. For example, “teacher’s presence” was found to be an important element to the subjects' learning in all the three learning activities, though they were conducted in a non-teacher setting. Some categories were found only in the discussion activity, such as collective reflection. The purpose of comparative analyses was to reveal special characteristics, advantages and disadvantages of each of the three learning activities.

3.2.2. Quantitative Data

The source of the quantitative data for the present study was the students’ answers to Part I of Questionnaire B. They were analysed to find how reflective a student perceived himself or herself to be when doing a particular learning activity.

When all of the answers to Part I of Questionnaire B were collected, each student’s score on each of the four reflectivity scales was calculated by adding together the scores of the four items under each scale, which were rated on a 5-point scale, from "strongly disagree" (1 point) to "strongly agree" (5 points). Then, ANOVA tests were used (1) to explore relationships between reflective levels and the three types of students found in the SGD learning activity because the SGD recordings only revealed how SGD reflected as a group but not how individual group members perceived their reflection, and (2) to find out whether the inter-group differences between the first-year and the second-year students had affected the findings of the present study. Relevant results and findings are detailed in Chapters Seven and Eight.

3.2.3. Translation Quality

As translation quality was not the interest of the present study, the translations

students generated in the learning workshop were only assessed to find evidence to evaluate findings of the qualitative analyses.

Each of the students' translations was commented on by the researcher regarding its overall quality and accuracy. Then five of 23 translations of each English source text, along with the researcher's comments on them, were randomly selected and sent to two translation teachers to see if they agreed with the researcher's comments. Both of the teachers had extensive experience in translator training at post-graduate and under-graduate levels and in professional translation practice.

A comparison between the researcher's and the two teachers' comments revealed that they were consistent. Only one comment made by the researcher on the translation of a sentence by a student was disputed by one of the translation teachers.

In the following chapters, all of the findings from the qualitative and quantitative analyses will be presented.

Chapter Four

Prior Learning Experience

4. Prior Learning Experience

This chapter presents the findings from the analysis of qualitative data collected for the present study through interviews and questionnaires administered immediately before the subjects started their first learning activity (diary, think-aloud or small group discussion). The analysis was useful in understanding the subjects' learning motivation (4.1.), learning difficulties and strategies (4.2.), self-perceived progress/non-progress (4.3.), experience with reflective learning (4.4.) and with diary, think-aloud and small-group discussion (4.5.) prior to the present study. All the findings were useful in explaining the subjects' autonomous and reflective learning behaviours.

4.1. Learning Motivation

Analyses of both interview and questionnaire data showed that all the 23 subjects had enrolled in the translating and interpreting program out of personal choice. Three main motivations were reported by the subjects: career considerations, interest in translation, and English enhancement. As summarised in Figure 4-1, some subjects reported more than one motivation, (For a detailed record, see Appendix D.)

(1) Career considerations

Of the 23 subjects, 17 reported having considered future career development when they decided to study translation. The reasons for their decisions ranged from regarding translation as a respectable job to feeling that learning translation skills may increase their employability in the translation and related job markets. Some of their comments are "*Translators are fantastic jobs*", "*translating skills are*

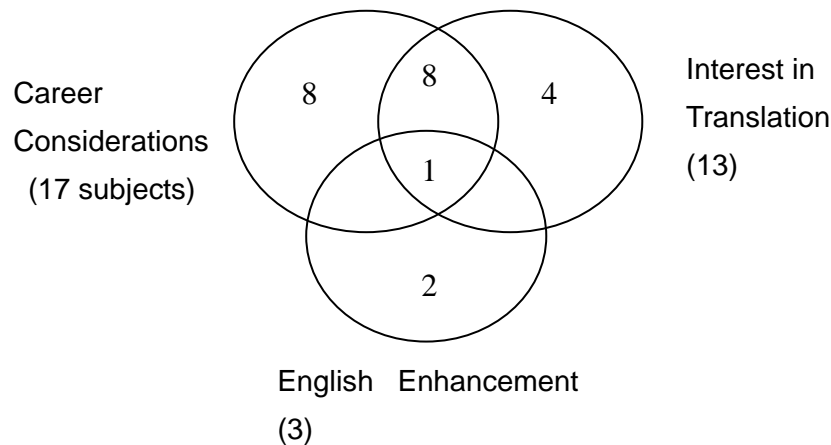


Figure 4-1 Subjects' Learning Motivations Prior to the Present Study

value-added professional skills even not working as a translator”, “I was tired of teaching [English], so I wanted to change to a related but different field”, and “I’ve found translation enabling me to broaden my horizon...so I chose translation as a window to my future career whatever it is.”

This result is consistent with Kelly’s (2005) assumption that, at postgraduate level, translation students are mainly motivated to learn translation by a desire to become professional translators. The subjects of the present study were apparently extrinsically motivated through identified regulation (for definition, see 2.3.1.2.). That is, they had identified the value of specialised training in translation as important for them to pursue their career goals.

(2) Interest in translation

Thirteen subjects reported that they decided to learn translation because of prior enjoyable experiences in doing translation. Words that they had used to describe translation include *“interesting”, “challenging”, “great sense of achievement [or*

satisfaction]”, “learning new things every time” and “extremely enjoyable to facilitate communication between two languages”.

These subjects were apparently intrinsically motivated (for definition, see 2.3.1.1.). This indicated that satisfying their psychological needs could play an important role in their learning.

(3) English Enhancement

Three subjects reported they decided to study translation in the hope of enhancing their English abilities. They all reported regarding translation as a good way to practice English. It was apparent that these subjects had been extrinsically motivated to learn translation and had identified its value in improving their English.

It is evident that these subjects are autonomously motivated to study translation since intrinsic motivation and identified regulation are both seen as autonomous motivations (Vansteenkiste *et al.*, 2006; Deci and Ryan, 1985(a), 2008; see also 2.3.1.2.). That is, they presented a sense of control over their learning, which could be internally fuelled and persist.

The subjects' willing participation in the workshop involved in the present study, which required them to do extra translation tasks, is an additional indication that they are autonomously motivated. In the interviews, when asked about their reasons for participating in the workshop, all the subjects mentioned one or both of the following reasons for participation: to see if new learning methods could improve their translation competence, and to do extra practice. As one of the subjects said in the interview, *“I want to try the learning methods you mentioned...well, who knows, they might be able to help me. At least, I can do more practice [in translation]. The time will not be wasted.”*

Although the subjects appear to be autonomous learners and have a certain degree of control over their learning, further analyses showed that this did not mean they could solve all the problems they met without support. They reported having encountered learning difficulties, as described below.

4.2. Learning Difficulties and Response Strategies

According to analyses of the interview and questionnaire data, learning difficulties reported by the subjects before the study proper could be categorised in five main areas, which are described below along with the response strategies reported by the subjects.

(1) **Translation skill:** All the subjects reported having recognised the importance of acquiring translation skills so that they could become good translators. When asked in the interview what translation skills are, most subjects' answers focused on skills in transferring the meaning of a source language sentence to an appropriate target language sentence. All the subjects mentioned at least one difficulty in this area, including "*difficult to break away from the influence of sentence structures of the source texts*", "*difficult to make decisions between foreignisation and domestication*", "*don't know how to translate similes or metaphors*". Some reported having difficulties with register and long English sentences.

Strategies reported by the subjects to cope with difficulties in this area included (a) demonstration of transfer strategies by teachers or classmates, mostly in class, and (b) the use of dictionaries for Chinese equivalents.

(2) **Translation speed:** Nearly all subjects reported worrying about slow translation speed and that after graduation this might make them unable to support

themselves financially in the translation market. Those who reported worrying about translation speed all regarded it as an important element to survive in the professional market.

Only one strategy was reported by the subjects to cope with the translation speed problem: translating more.

- (3) **Language ability:** in this area, most subjects regarded English comprehension as their most serious problem. They reported that English comprehension problems had led to their misunderstanding of the source text, resulting in inaccurate and unfaithful translation. Although they were all Chinese native speakers, nearly all the subjects felt that their Chinese language proficiency level was not high enough to generate good Chinese translations.

Strategies reported by the subjects to cope with difficulties in this area included (a) advice from native English speakers to clarify the meaning of words and to help with culture-specific problems, (b) advice from native Chinese speakers to see if their translation was fluent and reader-friendly, (c) advice and comment from teachers and (d) a range of dictionaries.

- (4) **Background knowledge:** all subjects recognised the importance of background knowledge but said they found it time-consuming to accumulate, partly due to their heavy study load and their slowness in absorbing information. Most reported that they did not know how to improve their knowledge accumulation process. Some said it was difficult to identify suitable sources of knowledge and, as a result, often spent a lot of time browsing, particularly on-line information.

The major strategy reported to cope with problems in this area was reading

newspapers and on-line information. Most subjects, however, stated they had usually only had time to read for their translation assignment, not for the accumulation of knowledge or for pleasure.

- (5) **Time management:** nearly all subjects reported having insufficient time for knowledge accumulation and the internalisation of translation skills. This could result in repeatedly checking the same background information or persistent translation problems.

No response strategy was reported by the subjects for this problem. One subject gave this description of her university life, *“I just translate assignments one after another. I have no time to think about my previous translations. Whenever I finish a translation assignment, the next is waiting.”*

- (6) **Learning:** Two main learning problems were reported by the subjects. First, they could not identify their own translation problems. For instance, one subject said, *“I think my translation is not good enough but I don’t know why and how to improve it.”* Secondly, they could not find solutions to identified translation problems. For example, *“I found learning from a better version of translation was a good strategy, but the problem is I don’t know which version is better unless it is pointed out by the teacher”*. Another example was *“I know my translation is not good enough and, for instance, her translation is better. But why can she translate so well? Why can’t I think of those good [Chinese] sentences? Unless I could re-live her life...but that’s impossible, right?”*

No other strategy than teachers’ advice was reported by the subjects for difficulties in this area. Subjects reported negative feelings, resulting from being unable to solve learning problems. The reported problems included anxiety, frustration, a sense of purposelessness and dissatisfaction with learning.

Although the above are all difficulties the subjects had experienced, it was evident that they had more strategies for responding to difficulties directly related to translation (i.e. language abilities, translation skills, translation speed, and background knowledge required to complete a translation assignment) than for responding to difficulties indirectly related to translation, i.e. time management and, in particular, learning. Difficulties in learning appeared to be those that caused the most negative feelings among the subjects. This indicates that students not only need to acquire translation-related skills but also learning approaches to use in solving translation-related problems.

4.3. Causes for Perceived Progress or No Progress

Among the 23 subjects, 12 reported having made progress since they enrolled in the T&I program and gave at least one reason for their perception. Nine reported having made no progress and gave at least one reason for their perception. Two subjects (N & R), underlined in Table 4-1, reported both having made progress and no progress and offered at least one reason for each perception. The attributed causes are summarised in Table 4.1. (see Appendix D for a complete list).

Table 4-1 Perceived Areas of Progress and Non-progress

Attributed Causes (improved/unimproved/worse)	12 Subjects Perceiving Progress	9 Subjects Perceiving Non-progress
Translation speed	6 (A, J, <u>N</u> , O, Q, W)	
Translation skill	12 (A, D, H, I, J, L, O, <u>R</u> , S, T, U, W)	1 (P)
Translation quality	1 (J)	5 (B, E, G, K, <u>R</u>)
English ability	3 (H, L, O)	2 (M, <u>N</u>)
Background knowledge	1 (U)	1 (C)
Time management		2 (E, <u>R</u>)
Self-effort		2 (F, V)

*: Letters in parentheses are codes assigned to each subject for the study.

(1) Perceived competence

Table 4.1 shows that improved translation skill and speed were the most attributed causes of progress. Twelve of the 14 subjects who perceived progress attributed it to improved translation skills. Such attribution was perhaps to be expected as according many motivation theories (see 2.3.). People are motivated by a sense of competence and achievement. Perception of competence is intrinsically rewarding and, in turn, can further motivate people to learn, thus, making them autonomous (see 2.3.3.2.). In the previous section evidence was presented showing that some of the subjects saw good translation skills and speed as important for professional translators. Improved translation skills and speed would mean they were closer to their learning goals or have satisfied their need for competence.

In other words, it was evident that the perception of translation competence (i.e. translation skills and speed in the present study) played an important role in the subjects' perception of progress (or achievement), which might generate intrinsic energy for further learning.

This finding indicates that how these subjects regard a learning activity (e.g. diary, TA or SGD) is likely to be influenced by whether they perceive that they are making improvement in translation skills and speed in the learning activity. If they see a learning activity as increasing their competence, their motivation to do the activity should increase (see Chapter Eight).

(2) Focus on product vs. focus on learning process

From the above analysis, it could be inferred that those who could not perceive

progress would attribute their lack of progress to unimproved translation skills or speed. Surprisingly, however, data analyses showed that this was not the case. Table 4.1. shows that 5 subjects attributed their lack of progress to poor translation quality while only one attributed it to unimproved translation skills. In contrast, only one of those who had perceived progress attributed their perception of progress to better translation quality.

Although these results might be explained by the small sample size (23 in total), the striking contrast may be explained better by examining the subjects' thinking patterns. Analysis of questionnaire data showed that those who reported having perceived progress seldom mentioned translation quality when answering questions about their progress, for example, *"Yes, my progress is acceptable but I'm still hoping to make better improvement. The comprehension of English articles, the translation speed and translating skills are generally improved, but I'm looking forward to improving the speed more"* and *"I think I have improved my translation in the areas of translating speed, the accuracy and ways of dealing with thorny problems, including long sentences"*. They focused on process competencies (i.e. skills, speed, and language abilities), and how much they had learned.

In contrast, the 5 subjects who reported non-progress focused mainly on weaknesses of their products (i.e. translations), for example, *"I don't think I am making acceptable progress so far because I still spend too much time on the first draft and always have awkward sentences due to sticking to the source text"*. They also often expressed a sense of uncertainty about what to do, for example, *"No, I don't think so. I think I still do not know how to make the target text more fluent, readable, elegant and still faithful to the original one at the same time."* Compared to those who had perceived progress, it appeared that these subjects had had less control of their learning.

These findings indicate that students are more likely to perceive progress when focusing on acquisition of translation process competencies and are less likely to perceive progress when focusing on translation product quality. The two subjects who reported having perceived both progress and non-progress also provided support for this view. Student N said she felt she had made progress because she “*can translate faster than before*” and had not made progress because her translation had “*become more stuck to the original text*”. Student R said she felt she had made progress because “*comparing to how I used to translate, I think I’ve found some techniques to make my translation sound more natural*” and had not made progress because she had had “*problems with register, accuracy and time management*”.

Many translation pedagogy scholars (e.g. Gile, 1995; Kelly, 2005) have argued that translation teachers pay more attention to translation process rather than a single focus on translation product. The above findings indicate that translation process is as important as translation product, and that students need to pay attention to their translation process. Emphasis on translation process might enhance students’ perception of progress, which in turn could support their autonomous learning (for a detailed discussion, see Chapter 8).

(3) Self-efficacy

The subjects’ thinking patterns played an important role in their perception of progress or lack of progress in their English ability. Table 4.1. shows that two subjects (M and N) attributed their lack of progress in learning translation to deteriorating English abilities. Both reported having become less confident in their ability to translate. For instance, Subject M said, “*I am so limited with my English ability...I found my English ability is decreasing maybe because the more I need, the more inadequate I realise I am.*” Subject N said, “*I used to be confident about my [English] reading skill, but now I am not so sure*

because sometimes I do misunderstand the meaning of the text, especially when it involved pronouns.” It seems that their previous competence in English acquisition had been detrimental to their self-efficacy, making them feel particularly incompetent in learning translation, even though their English and translation abilities might have actually been improving (see 2.2. “subject-matter autonomy”). In a later informal talk immediately before she graduated from the program, Student N said that she no longer wished to be a translator because *“I had realised that my abilities are not up to professional standards.”*

In contrast, three subjects (H, L and O) attributing their progress to enhanced English abilities all reported that doing translations had improved their English comprehension competence and this had increased their confidence in doing translations. They were also among those who attributed progress to translation skills. It appeared that they had maintained positive thinking about their learning; that is, they look at what they have learned and where they are, rather than at their inadequacies or achievements.

This finding is consistent with those of other motivation researchers (e.g.; Brown and Ryan; 2003 Ushioda, 1996; see 2.3.2.) that students’ interpretation of their learning situation (e.g. in a learning activity) and whether their thought processes are motivating or de-motivating play an important role in their autonomous learning. The influence that self-efficacy has on the subjects’ perception of the three learning activities in question will be discussed in more detail in Chapters Eight and Nine.

(4) Two subjects attributed their lack of progress to poor time management and two other subjects attributed their lack of progress to their inadequate efforts. However, there was no evidence that showed the two attributed causes are important factors in the subjects’ perception of competence.

4.4. Reflective Learning prior to the Present Study

When asked about the role reflection played in their learning, the subjects' answers varied greatly, from simply translating intuitively without reflecting on how they translated or what they had learned to frequently reflecting on their translation and how they should or should not have translated a text.

Some reported that reflection motivated them to seek peer assistance in finding solutions. Some reported that they would think about their weaknesses, find ways to improve their translation, and thus become more confident in dealing with their next translation assignment.

It was found that whether a subject reflected on their learning or translation was greatly influenced by two factors: available time and previous learning experience. For instance, one subject said, *"if I have time, I will do my best...to see where I went wrong or which part I should improve next time. Sometimes my time is not enough because I have to do the next translation (assignment)"*.

Some of the subjects reported that they were not used to thinking about their translation and learning because they had been used to getting answers directly from their teachers. However, as one of them stated, *"The teacher, here [the U.K.], they do not teach you directly, they just give you concepts...to think about it later. But I have got used to the way... teachers in the mainland [China] usually taught us directly...very concrete. Sometimes I want to know the teacher's opinion. If you translate it, how do you translate that sentence? But the teachers here won't give you answers. They just give you some ideas, but I want a model to compare"*. It is evident that this subject's learning style has been influenced by her past learning experience in China (see 8.1.1.3. for detailed discussion).

It was evident that there was a conflict between these subjects' perceived needs for explicit answers and models, and their teachers' expectations of them: autonomous learning (i.e. students taking control of their own learning; see 2.2.). The subjects' perception of how translation should be learned and taught would later prove to play a critical role in how they evaluated the effectiveness of the learning activities in question: diary, think-aloud and SGD (see Chapters Five to Eight for detailed discussions).

4.5. Prior Experience with Diary, Think-aloud and SGD

After investigation of the subjects' perceptions of their general learning experience in translator training, the next steps were to understand the subjects' previous experiences and impression of diary, think-aloud and small group discussion (SGD) in order to facilitate their learning.

4.5.1. Diary

An analysis of questionnaire data revealed that the 15 subjects who were assigned to the diary learning mode had different views about a learning diary (from now on, "diary"). Four reported having kept a diary for an interpreting course. Four said they had no idea what a diary was. Four reported they had heard that keeping a diary was helpful in improving language skills and writing skills, but they had never tried it. Two subjects said they had once kept a diary to improve their English skills. Only one subject was keeping a diary to improve her writing style and felt it was an efficient way to learn how to express herself. None of the subjects had ever used a diary to improve their translation skills.

However, it was later found through interviews that all, except one, of the subjects had

been required to keep a diary for the interpreting course, not just the four who reported the use of a diary. The reason most of the 15 subjects said they had never used a diary before was that they did not regard keeping the interpreting diary as a learning method. For them, the interpreting diary was more like a record, used to show their teacher and themselves the efforts and progress they had made. Most felt the greatest benefit from keeping the interpreting diary was to remind them to do interpreting practice so that they had something to write in the diary. One said keeping the interpreting diary was redundant and time-consuming.

It appeared that the subjects had no clear ideas about the purposes and optimal ways of keeping a learning diary. Whether this information should be provided would later become an issue when discussing the usefulness of a diary.

4.5.2. Think-aloud

Almost none of the subjects had heard of think-aloud techniques. Those who had heard of it were all second-year subjects. They had either heard of it from modules that taught translation theories or encountered it while reading literature on translation theories. One such subject said think-aloud techniques “can show how the translator translates a text.” Only one subject had tried it once but found it uncomfortable to speak her thoughts aloud. Another subject reported that she was keen to try think-aloud because she found reading aloud was a very good way to help her concentrate on what she was doing. She felt think-aloud might have the same effect.

4.5.3. Small Group Discussion

All of the subjects reported having used small group discussion (SGD) as a learning

method but it was usually initiated by the teacher and done in the classroom. The subjects seldom had purposeful discussions after class. When they did, they usually discussed with one peer rather than a group.

Based on their experience in the classroom, most subjects found discussion useful because: (1) it could inspire new thoughts, ideas and viewpoints about how to translate; (2) they could learn from each other's usage of language, such as how they used particular terms and phrases, and translation strategies; (3) it could help them appreciate that everyone had different thinking patterns; (4) their discussion partners might be able to identify their translation problems and blind spots, and (5) they could improve their communication skills and would become more skilful in expressing their ideas. The benefits of using discussion identified by the subject were quite similar to those presented by literature on discussion (e.g. Gibbs and Habeshaw, 1989; see also 2.1.3.3.).

Intriguingly, some of the subjects also stated that discussion could be a waste of time unless discussion partners were at a similar level of translation competence or had similar types of problems. They also reported discussion could make them feel frustrated or more uncertain because they were not able to reach conclusions or find solutions. They also reported that some peers were reserved in giving feedback because they did not want to hurt other group members' feelings or did not want others to think they were arrogant or superior. They also found they focused on whether their translation was correct rather than the skills or strategies they had used to tackle a translation assignment. Some reported having not had enough time to discuss all their problems or uncertainties.

It is evident that the subjects had mixed feelings about discussion as a learning method. Although It seemed to be generally perceived as a good learning method, group dynamics and individual personalities could influence its usefulness; a view which deserves further investigation.

Chapter Five
The Diary Learning Mode

5. THE DIARY LEARNING ACTIVITY

This chapter presents findings relevant to the diary-learning mode. Fifteen subjects participated in this learning mode. Seven of them were second-year and eight were first-year students. They each wrote a diary entry after each of the three translation tasks. Interviews and questionnaires were administered after they had completed all the three translation tasks. There were no restrictions on how and what they should write in their learning diary. A set of guidelines (Appendix E) was provided but only as suggestions.

To evaluate the usefulness of the diary-learning mode as fully as possible, both the subjects' perceptions of the diary-learning mode and their diary entries were analysed. The first section presents students' perceptions of this learning mode based on the interview and questionnaire data, followed by the findings derived from the analyses of the subjects' learning diaries.

5.1. Perceptions of the Diary-Learning Mode

The analyses of the interview and questionnaire data found that the subjects' perceptions of the diary-learning mode were quite consistent. In general, they perceived it as a good learning method in many ways, including helping them to identify their translation problems and heightening their awareness of translation process. However, they also identified several weaknesses and limitations of this learning mode.

5.1.1. Strengths

5.1.1.1. Wider and Deeper Reflection

According to the analyses of the interview and questionnaire data, increased reflection was one of the main strengths of the diary-learning mode perceived by the subjects. One of the subjects remarked,

If I hadn't had to keep a learning diary, I would have just translated, without really thinking about my translation processes and problems. [...] Keeping the learning diary provided me an opportunity to re-examine my translations and think about ways to improve their quality.

Fourteen of the 15 subjects reported having reflected much more in the diary-learning mode than they normally would have. The interviews revealed that this was partly because they had to find something to write in their learning diary, a finding consistent with what the subjects had reported before they started the diary-learning mode (4.5.1.). This indicates that diary-keeping has an effect of forcing students to think about at least what they have done or what has occurred.

Wider Reflection

Most of the subjects also reported finding that they had a lot more thoughts about their translation and learning than they had previously believed; the thoughts included thinking about their translation quality, weaknesses, problems, frequently made mistakes, learning strategies, translation strategies, and translating and decision-making processes. The analysis of the interview data reveals that the guidelines provided for the diary-learning mode (Appendix E) may have provided some of the subjects with areas to reflect upon. As one student said, "*if not for the*

Guidelines, I would not have known what to write. I would have had to think very hard about what to write."

Deeper Reflection

Most of the subjects reported that their thinking in the diary-learning mode was different from that they usually had in their translation assignments. One of the subjects described her thinking for writing a diary as "*a kind of reflection, a deeper level of thinking*". Another subject compared her thinking activities before and during the diary-learning mode and said she "*did think about [her] translation and learning before this learning mode, but these thoughts were more like vague and elusive feelings*". She said that, during the diary-learning mode, she felt she had to "*think thoroughly*" in order to describe her thoughts clearly in the diary. Such deeper thinking is a fundamental capacity that an autonomous learner should have (Candy, 1988; Little, 1991).

Benefits

Most of the subjects who claimed to have experienced wider and deeper thinking reported that such thinking had helped them to identify problems better, and this in turn contributed positively to their learning experience and translation quality. For example, some of the subjects said deeper thinking had led them to analyse their translating processes and assess their translations, which they normally would not do. One of them reported that she felt "*an urge to explain*" in her diary why she decided to translate a sentence in a particular way, so she started to reflect on and analyse all the steps leading to her final rendition. She stated these thinking and analysis processes were very helpful because she could "*skip unsuccessful steps in the future when encountering similar sentence structures.*" It appears that this learning mode may contribute to students' translation quality indirectly through improving their translation

process competencies.

5.1.1.2. Problem Identification

Analyses of the interview and questionnaire data revealed that problem identification was perceived by the subjects as one of the greatest advantages of the diary-learning mode.

Before

The subjects generally reported that, before this learning mode, they had had only vague ideas about their translation problems and could not describe them precisely. For example, they said they would say, "*my English (or Chinese) was not good enough*" or "*I am not good at Chinese delivery*". Some of these subjects complained in the interviews that such situations had left them frustrated, as one of them explained, "*if I cannot describe my problems clearly to myself, how do I describe them to the teachers? Not to mention solving them.*"

After

However, the subjects appeared to have a different experience in the diary-learning mode from previously. They reported that when they had to think about what to write in their diary, the problems they had encountered when translating usually came into their mind first. According to them, after two or three rounds of diary-writing, recurring problems attracted their attention, prompting them to think about the problems more deeply, and then they were able to describe them in much more detail than before. For instance, one of the subjects reported finding she had more comprehension problems when translating "*culturally specific topics*".

Benefits

Problem identification encourages some of the subjects to take positive actions. One subject said, “*that having identified and knowing my translation problems are there is like sitting on pins and needles*”. She felt she “*had to*” find solutions. Some such subjects said they normally would not, or only infrequently, take various actions, but because of the identification of their translation problems, they had taken these actions or would take them in the future. The actions they mentioned are summarised as follows:

- (1) intentionally considering and comparing different strategies they had learned for handling long sentences;
- (2) seeking help from translation theories (e.g. books that discuss translation strategies, such as sentence segmentation skills);
- (3) avoiding frequent problems or errors at the first onset, such as being alert to register when beginning to translate a text so as to minimise use and revision of inappropriate register;
- (4) shortening the time they spent on looking up new words in later translation tasks;
and
- (5) seeking native English informants’ help with culture-related problems.

5.1.1.3. Encouragement of New Approaches

The diary-learning mode may encourage students to experiment with new translation strategies and new ways of learning. Most of the subjects who reported having experimented with new strategies in this learning mode said that they felt “*safe*” to do so because they knew that they would assess their own translation, rather than a teacher or translation trainer. Some reported that they had assessed their own translation and evaluated whether their new approaches were effective and efficient in

their diary. For example, one of them said she “*used to translate every word of the source text for fear of being commented by the teacher as having inappropriate omission*”. However, in the diary-learning mode, she dared to use “*a new summary-like approach to see if it would result in more fluent translation*”. Then she assessed her translation in her diary and believed her new approach was effective. She later said in the interview that she started to use this approach to translation tasks assigned by her lecturer.

Another example was the adoption of machine translation software Dr. Eye by a subject to render her first draft of translation. In her diary, she wrote that she was shocked to find that the quality of her translation done for a translation examination was not much better than the first draft done by the translation software Dr. Eye. She reported having continued to use it and found it quite useful in translating, for instance, names of places. Later she concluded in the interview that, in the diary-learning mode,

When I was in the diary-learning mode, I felt freer to do things differently [...] and dared to try new methods because I felt...I could learn more this way. It was like I was doing my own experiments. I felt I could make more changes and see what happen.⁴

5.1.1.4. Revision Opportunity

Most of the subjects reported that they revised their translation while thinking about what to write in their diary. Revision may be a natural by-product of the diary-writing

⁴ Original Chinese contents: 做日記時有一件事就是我覺得我比較放得開 [...], 可是我在寫這個的時候, 我比較敢做大膽的嘗試, 因為我覺得... 這樣比較有東西可以學, 有點像我是在自己做實驗, 我想我可以做比較多的變化, 到最後看結果怎麼樣。

process, which contributes directly to students' translation quality.

Correcting Miscomprehension

These subjects reported that, when thinking about what to write in their diary, they would re-read the source text or re-examine their decisions. In these processes, they found miscomprehensions or new interpretations of the source text, as evidenced by one such subject's answer in the questionnaire,

In the 4th sentence of Paragraph one in Text 3, the “proliferation fatalism” was translated into “蔓延的宿命論”⁵ because I thought it referred to the fatalism which was prevalent; however, when I wrote the diary to explain the relationship between the fatalism and the nuclear power, I realized it should mean the fatalism about the proliferation of nuclear power. Therefore, I changed it into “關於伊朗會發展核武的宿命論”⁶.

It is evident that, even if students have previously revised their translation several times, writing a diary would provide them with another opportunity for revision, which may in turn contribute to their translation quality.

Stimulating New Ideas

Nearly all of the subjects reported that thinking and writing about the translations completed in the diary-learning mode had triggered new ideas about, for example, more appropriate Chinese equivalents, register, and sentence structures. As one of the subjects said, “I also found it extremely helpful for me to re-read and examine the entire translation against the original work. This can stimulate me to think from a different angle

⁵ Back translation: proliferation fatalism.

⁶ Back translation: about the fatalism that Iran will develop nuclear weapon.

and see other possibilities for translation.”

5.1.1.5. Diary as a Record

The diary was the written product of the diary-learning mode. Most students perceived the diary as material that they could reflect on later. The functions they perceived for a diary are summarised as follows:

- (1) recording a student's thoughts and translating processes, which the student could reflect on later without having to worry about forgetting;
- (2) recording one's translation habits or patterns so as to strengthen positive patterns and correct negative patterns when found;
- (3) observing one's own progress; and
- (4) gaining feedback from the teacher.

Most of the subjects reported that keeping a diary for a longer time than they did for the present study would be more helpful in observing one's pattern. Some of the subjects reported feeling a sense of achievement when looking back on their diary because they saw what they had accomplished during the diary-learning mode.

5.1.1.6. Positive Changes

In addition to the above strengths, analyses of the interview data shows that the diary-learning mode, which lasted for about one month, may have long-lasting effects on the subjects, resulting in changes in their translation behaviour, thinking pattern, and, in some cases, emancipation from their old ways of learning. Data analysis also revealed that most such changes could be attributed to recognition of the importance of problem identification and, particularly, reflective thinking. Here, “a long-lasting effect” refers to one that was perceived by the subjects even after they had completed

the diary-learning mode.

Change in Behaviour

Almost all of the subjects reported in the interviews that, after experiencing the diary-learning mode, they tended to mark on the source text or their translation the parts they were not sure of or had difficulty with; few had such behaviour, or only infrequently so, before experiencing the diary-learning mode.

Some of the subjects reported that they started to write down their problems or thoughts for their translation assignments even though they were not always written in the form of a diary. They said such marking and/or noting down behaviours helped them clearly identify their problem patterns and extend their memory span, allowing them to recall what questions or problems they had while translating.

Some also reported that their findings in the diary-learning mode helped them change to a more efficient translation practice. For example, one student said she no longer checked unfamiliar words up in the dictionary when she read the source text for the first time because she found from the diary-learning mode that she tended to check them again when translating. Such a behaviour change shortened the time she used in completing a translation.

Change in Learning

It was found from the interviews and questionnaires that those who had perceived the benefits of wider and deeper thinking brought about by the diary-learning mode tended to think consciously about their translation assignments. For instance, some of them purposefully analysed the style of the source text and their translating processes.

Some assessed their translation carefully, behaviour they had seldom had before experiencing the diary-learning mode. As one of the students stated in the questionnaire, *“after the diary learning mode, [...] I would do my translation more consciously, that is, think more [about] the process of my translation; why I do this or that. Try to familiarize [myself with] those strategies to speed up my translation.”* It seemed that, for these subjects, learning how to translate was not a process of just translating one source text after another anymore, but *“a more conscious and approach-oriented process”*, as one such subject described it.

Emancipation

From the interview data, the diary-learning mode may help to liberate students from their old learning mindset and even their life. One of the subjects said in the interview that, when looking back on the diary-learning mode, she found she seemed to be a person *“without much thought”* because she was used to being guided by others not only in learning, but also in her daily and religious life. She said in the interview,

I found I have been used to having a Truth out there to guide me...something always right out there...so I can move towards it... It will tell me what is right or wrong...just like in learning, I am used to teachers' guidance. I go to church and listen to the pastors preach.

However, through the diary-learning mode, she realized independent thinking was beneficial to her. She commented that at least she had identified some of her translation problems. She said this realization had led her to re-think about her learning, life and religious belief.

5.1.1.7. Convenience

Nearly all of the subjects said that keeping a diary was very easy operationally because all it required was pen and paper. According to them, there was little, if any, time and space limitation. They said they could write their diary when and wherever they wanted.

5.1.2 Weaknesses

5.1.2.1. Lack of Immediate Solutions

A lack of immediate solutions was perceived by all the subjects as the greatest weakness of the diary-learning mode. They generally reported that, when they had questions or felt confused, they needed to consult others, particularly teachers, to establish which decision was correct or which rendition was better. Some said that being unable to solve problems which they had found was more frustrating than being unable to find problems.

5.1.2.2. Problems not Found

Although problem identification was perceived by most of the subjects as one of the main strengths of the diary-learning mode, they also reported this mode could not help them identify problems that were beyond their ability to find.

5.1.2.3. No New Perspectives

The subjects generally said they had blind spots and needed outside input or new perspectives to help them improve their translation techniques. They also reported needing to compare with others to assess their own translation quality. Chapter Seven will explore whether group discussion would be able to help solve this concern.

5.1.2.4. Slow and Unapparent Effect

Some subjects expressed concerns about the efficiency of the diary-learning mode in improving their learning. They felt a learning diary should be kept for a longer period of time than the learning workshop for its effect, such as identification of patterns, to become apparent.

Some subjects said that the effect of the diary-learning mode was not apparent and that it was difficult for them to observe their own progress and improvement in learning to translate. For instance, one such subject said in the interview, *“I am not sure if I should keep doing this [keeping a learning diary]. What if I spend a lot of time on it and then find I can not get much from it?”* She felt in need of a method to assess cost-effectiveness of this learning activity to continue to use it confidently.

5.1.2.5. Extra Time

Some subjects reported that keeping a diary was time-consuming, particularly when they had a heavy study load. They reported feeling more anxious when having to spend time thinking about what to write in their diary. They also felt it was a waste of their time if the entries were repetitive.

5.1.2.6. Distraction

A few subjects reported that they could not concentrate on translating because they kept thinking about what to write in their diary while translating. Some of them reported wondering if this had compromised their translation quality.

5.1.3. Possibility of Use in the Future

Since the diary-learning mode was perceived as having both strengths and

weaknesses, it is necessary to consider how the subjects weight them when deciding whether to use it in the future. Seven of the 15 students said they would continue to use it, six said no, and two were not sure. From the reasons they gave for their answer, problem identification and keeping a diary as a record for reflection stood out as two main reasons for choosing to use it, while a lack of time and slow and uncertain effects were the two main reasons for choosing not to use it.

Some subjects said they would prefer a simplified form of diary. One said she would rather “*keep in mind its effect*”, doing all the thinking without actually writing it down. Another wrote in her questionnaire that she would “*not keep a diary, but would try to do my translation more consciously next time, that is, think more about the process of my translation; why I do this or that. Try to familiarize those strategies to speed up my translation.*” Another said she would prefer to “*just write down problems and potential solutions,*” not an evaluation of her own translation.

* * * * *

In the qualitative data, the subjects participating in this learning mode remarked more on its strengths than its weaknesses but only half of them said they were willing to use it in the future. Their decision was apparently a result of weighing the motivating strengths and the demotivating weaknesses. Since motivation plays an important role in autonomous learning, (Little, 1991; Ushioda, 1996), it is important that factors behind the strengths and weaknesses be clearly identified. For example, if students perceive more thinking as beneficial to their learning and hence are motivated to learn autonomously, what factors trigger more thinking? If the lack of immediate solution demotivates them from autonomous learning and since they had all produced a

rendition, why did they think they had no solutions? In an effort to answer such questions, the students' diary entries were analysed. The findings are presented in the next section.

5.2. Analysis and Findings of Diary Entries

The fifteen subjects participating in the diary-learning mode each generated 3 diary entries so there were 45 diary entries in total. After coding the content of their diary entries were coded according the principles of Grounded Theory (see 3.2.1.), five main themes emerged: **procedure**, **problem-solving process**, **source text (ST)**, **translation quality** and **time**.

In addition to the five themes, there were two distinct types of writing style: **reportive** and **reflective**. The terminology is borrowed from previous research in the field of reflective learning (see 2.4.). A **reportive** description simply reports what occurred without attempting to give reasons or justification for action or behaviour or discuss its implications. Based on the criteria proposed by Hatton and Smith (1995) (see 2.4.2.), this type of writing is not reflective at all. An example of reportive descriptions is: *"I first skimmed the whole passage, and then started to translate. I translated it word by word and used the online dictionary to help me. There were some events that I was not familiar with, so I browsed the Internet and downloaded some related news."* This description simply described the subject's sequence of activities.

A **Reflective** description not only describes what occurred but also attempts to give reasons/justification for action and behaviour, to compare choices, to assess quality, to consider multiple perspectives or to show other higher-order forms of cognitive activities. An example of a reflective description about the source text is *"I wanted it to*

sound natural, so sometimes I ignored the source text, so my translation might be slightly different in meaning." This description not only describes an action (*"ignored the source text"*) but also attempts to provide a reason for the action (*"because I wanted it to sound natural"*) and evaluates the result (*"my translation might be slightly different in meaning"*). Reflective descriptions often contain specific words, such as "because", "due to" and "the reason is", so they were quite easy to identify. Findings about the five themes and their relationship with the two levels of reflection are presented in the following subsection.

5.2.1. Themes and Levels of Reflection

5.2.1.1. Procedure

Descriptions within the procedure theme described a sequence of activities taken to handle a translation task. Nearly all such descriptions were reportive, for example, *"Read article, look up vocabulary, review first draft"*, *"I checked all the vocabulary and tried to find the right meaning applied to this text"* and *"read through the whole article, get the main idea and check new vocabulary"*. There is little evidence to suggest that such reports can help students except in being records.

Only few descriptions within the procedure theme were coded as reflective: *"I tried to start doing translation first because I felt I could identify more clearly where the problems were, and then I looked up the Internet for relevant information."* This subject later explained in the interview that she had been used to looking up unfamiliar words whenever she encountered one. In the diary-learning mode, she found that translating the whole source text first without looking up the dictionary made her translation problems clearer to her so that she could discuss them in her diary. The apparent ability of diary-learning mode to change students' behaviour by focusing their attention

on problems was noted earlier. This focusing of attention, according to Dewey (1910, see also 2.4.2.), is the starting point of reflection.

5.2.1.2. Problem-solving Process

Diary entries coded under this theme are those that identify a specific part of the source text as problematic, difficult or confusing. A specific part can be a word, phrase, clause, sentence, paragraph, or relationship between sentences or paragraphs. The subjects' diary contents about this theme were also coded as reportive or reflective. An example of a reportive description is: "*Another problem is how to translate special terms, like 'alternative interrogation tactics'*". This description only recorded a translation problem without saying how it was solved. A reflective example is "*The part of the first paragraph after the first two sentences is difficult for me to translate and sometimes to comprehend. I think one reason is that I am not clear about the history of the US dealing with Iran on nuclear weapons.*" In this description, at least one reason was given to explain why this specific part was difficult. However, it should be noted there are different levels of reflection. This description was coded as "reflective" but it was not yet up to the level of dialogic or critical reflection.

The findings presented below are from analysis of the descriptions in the problem-solving process theme. The analysis revealed several factors that may influence the usefulness of the diary-learning mode. Only two distinct levels of reflection were identified but the subjects' diary contents presented varying levels of sophistication in analysis of a translation problem.

5.2.1.2.1. Analysis of One's Own Diary

The previous section (5.1.1.) reported that the diary-learning mode was perceived by

most of the subjects as being able to help them identify translation problems and serve as records. As Bailey (1990) and Matsumoto (1996) suggested, the analysis of the subjects' diary found that analysis of one's own diary played an important role in helping the subjects to identify and become aware of their own recurring translation problems. That awareness led to a higher level of reflective thinking (cf. Dewey, 1910; Mezirow, 1995). Take Subject N as an example. The following descriptions were extracted one from each of her three diary entries:

[...] because I wanted it to sound natural, so sometimes I ignored the original text so my translation might be slightly different in meaning. (1st)

[I] tried to translate them by grasping the meaning, emphasizing the readability. So I omitted some words. (2nd)

I found I omitted several words in order to achieve the naturalness in TL. (3rd)

Subject N reported that it wasn't until she was prompted by the question "Have you had any findings?" in the questionnaire for the diary-learning mode (Appendix B) that she started to review her three diary entries and become aware of her constant use of omission as a strategy to achieve readability. This awareness apparently resulted in doubt about the effectiveness of this strategy. That was why she asked the researcher in the post-mode interview:

May I ask you a question? I found from my diary that I often omitted words because the teacher said my translation was not reader-friendly. Do you think it's right to omit words?

Comments on Subject N's three translations showed that she had quite a few inappropriate omissions. Therefore, her strategy of using omission to solve her problem of unnatural Chinese translation was apparently ineffective.

It was apparent that this awareness resulted in her shift of attention from the content of her translation problem (“*my translation is not reader-friendly.*”) to her problem-solving process (“*Is using omission to achieve reader-friendliness effective?*”). There was no evidence, at least in the present study, that Subject N questioned why omission should be used as a solution to this particular translation problem (cf. Mezirow, 1991), but the awareness did prompt her to ask the researcher about the omission strategy. Such initiative is like “capturing the leadership” of her own learning, a feature of autonomous learning according to Matsumoto (1996). This indicates that if diary were to become an autonomous learning activity, analysis would be an important factor.

5.2.1.2.2. Perceived Competence

Although important as they have been shown to be, analysis and resultant awareness and reflection do not necessarily lead to actions. The analysis of interview and diary data revealed that students’ perceived competence also plays an important role in the usefulness of the diary-learning mode as an autonomous learning activity. Take Subject G as an example. The word *literally* appeared three times in her third diary entry:

When I translated the third sentence, I do not know what the author exactly means by using ‘is clouded by a kind of historical amnesia’, so I just looked up the meaning of “amnesia” and translated it literally. (1st)

‘deterrence optimism’ means people overvalue the effect of deterrence. However, I do not know how to translate them into concise and more understandable Chinese sentences. Therefore, I just translated them literally. (2nd)

I am also not sure about the meaning of ‘wishful thinking’, so I translated it literally as well. (3rd)

Later her answer to the question “Have you had any findings?” in the questionnaire (Appendix B) was “*When I cannot understand something, I will translate literally.*” It was evident that the recurrence of the word “*literally*” in her diary raised her awareness of her frequent use of literal translation as a strategy. In the post-mode interview, when asked about what this awareness meant to her, she answered, “*That’s it. If I knew how to improve them, I would not have translated them literally. That’s the best I can do.*” It was apparent that the awareness of her recurring pattern did not initiate action. The analysis of the interview data and a comparison with other subjects identified two important factors: a sense of controllability and reliance on the teacher.

(A) A Sense of Controllability

Compared to Subject N, who used omission as a strategy to make her translation more reader-friendly, Subject G appeared to be less motivated to find alternative solutions. In Subject N’s diary, several descriptions indicated that she was in control of her learning, such as “*I need to learn how to reorganize them in a logical and fluent way*”, “*I also want to improve my Chinese*” and “*this time I have more control to the overall Chinese structure, I guess*”. Attribution Theory suggests that, when students feel they have the ability to make improvements, they are more likely to be intrinsically motivated to make efforts to improve and thus become more autonomous, as was the case for Subject N (Weiner, 1986; see also 2.3.3.1. & 2.3.3.2.). However, in Subject G’s case, it seemed that she felt the translation problem was beyond her ability and thus her control. This was perhaps why she was not motivated to take action to find solutions in spite of having identified her problem.

The above analysis seems to justify the inference that a learning diary has the potential to facilitate the development of autonomy, but simply using it does not

guarantee that students will become autonomous translators. At least two factors, i.e. controllability and perceived competence, have to be considered.

(B) Reliance on the Teacher

In addition to a sense of uncontrollability and low perceived competence, Subject G seemed to have a tendency to rely on the teacher to provide answers, as shown in the following extracts from her pre-mode interview:

Extract 1: Sometimes when I encounter problems, I don't know how to deal with them....We had some discussion today but didn't reach consensus. The teacher didn't give us advice as well.

Extract 2: Sometimes some classmates would have good strategies to deal with certain translation problems but sometimes we cannot come up with anything and didn't know what to do. I feel the teacher needs to tell us what to do.

Extract 3: Teachers know what kind of problem it is and what strategies we can use. So, if we encounter this kind of problem, we would know how to deal with it.

That Subject G expected the teacher to provide solutions may be due to her experience of doing translation as a method of learning English in China. Subject G reported in her pre-mode interview that translation tests were used in her English class, the teacher always provided the answers. While acknowledging that there was no fixed way of translating an English sentence, in the interview she contradicted herself, saying, “*you can never get the answer if the teacher didn't give any advice*”. Other subjects expressed similar views in the interview. For instance, Subject M said, “*I hope they [teachers] could tell me directly what I did wrong or good, but it seems they want me to find it myself.*” It was also worth noting that twelve of the 15 subjects doing the diary-learning mode said in the interviews that they hoped their diary could be read by

teachers to see, for example, if their thinking was logical.

It was apparent that Subject G's earlier experience in learning English affected her view of how translation should be taught and learned. Her experience shared the same presupposition of meaning as those of the Grammar Translation Method and Contrastive Analysis approaches (see 2.1.1.1. and 2.1.1.2.). In all three, meaning is seen as absolute and hence can be transmitted from the teacher to the student or be corrected by the teacher. It can be inferred that, if meanings were fixed, there would be no need to think about better solutions and provision of answers by the teacher would be the most efficient. However, it has been argued earlier that it is often not the case in translation (see 2.1.1.).

Subject M's case also revealed that difference between the teacher's and the student's belief on how translation should be learned and taught, also influenced the student's learning. Well-intended teaching methods might not be able to achieve their goals unless student perception is taken into consideration.

(C) Self-efficacy

Being unable to find solutions to identified problems was perceived by the subjects as one of the major disadvantages of the diary-learning mode. In order to identify the source of this perception, descriptions that specified unsolved translation problems or uncertain solutions were identified and counted. For example, "*I am still not sure how to translate the word "jihadists"*" and "*Reconsidering the word choice problem: what should the "true" be translated?*" were each counted as one uncertain solution. There were 65 such solutions, which were then checked against the teachers' comments (see 3.2.3.). It was found that 35 successfully solved the problem and 30 were unsuccessful. So,

although the subjects reported that the diary-learning mode could not help them find solutions, in fact, more than half of their solutions (54%) were effective. Their doubts about the effectiveness of their solutions may be due to their lack of disciplinary knowledge to judge whether their solution is effective (see 5.2.1.2.3. and Chapter Eight) or their low perceived competence and hence low self-confidence in the effectiveness of their solutions.

5.2.1.2.3. Sophistication of Analysis

Compared to the other themes, descriptions with the problem-solving process theme presented the most varying levels of sophistication in the analysis of the subjects' own problem-solving process. Take the following three descriptions as examples. All of them identified *"The reddest "red top"* (Appendix A: source text 4) as a translation problem or a difficult term to translation.

Subject N (reportive): *"Check new words, for example, 'redtop'?...looked for background information about [...] "the reddest of the red". [The student translated this phrase into "the tabloid of the tabloids"⁷"]*

Subject G (reflective): *"I still don't know what "The reddest "red top" means here. I guess it means the government because there is a phrase "red tape" which means official procedures." [The student translated this phrase as "government"⁸"]*

Subject K (reflective): *"The other term "red top" was found its meaning on Wikipedia in the section which explained tabloid. So I knew that it should refer to the nameplates of those tabloids, but I struggled whether I should translate its literal meaning "red tabloid"⁹ and added a footnote just the same as how I dealt with "spin doctors", or I should put the metaphorical meaning "tabloid"¹⁰."*

⁷ Back translation of “八卦報紙中的八卦報紙”.

⁸ Back translation of “政府”.

⁹ Back translation of “紅色商標報”.

¹⁰ Back translation of “八卦報”.

However, due to the cultural background, we did have tabloids in Taiwan, yet they were not represented in red logos. This is, the literal meaning may not share the same reflection to Taiwanese readers, so I chose to put it as “tabloid”¹¹ without adding any footnote.”

It was evident that the three examples presented different levels of sophistication in their analysis of how they translated the difficult phrase “*The reddest “red top”*”. Subject N’s description had a reportive writing style, simply reporting her action (i.e. looking for background information) and her solution (i.e. literal translation) without giving any explanation or justification for why she chose to translate the phrase literally. Although her understanding of the phrase was correct, her Chinese translation was not appropriate. In addition to the linguistic meaning of the term “red top”, which may be accommodated into her own meaning scheme, there was no other indication in her diary that she had learned from this experience in terms of translation process competence.

Subject G “guessed” based on her prior linguistic knowledge of “red tape” and misinterpreted “red top”. She did reflect on the content of the translation problem but failed to investigate whether her problem-solving process (i.e. using the meaning of “red tape” to interpret the meaning of “red top”) and premise (why the meaning of a word can be used to interpret another word) are justified. That is, she had thoughtful action (e.g. analysing and judging), but there was no change of meaning schemes, not to mention meaning perspectives (cf. Mezirow, 1991).

Subject K presented the most sophisticated level of analysis and the highest level of reflection among the three. She considered not only the linguistic meaning of “red top”

¹¹ Back translation of “八卦報”.

but also the Taiwanese culture and readers' response. This may be because she had internalised what translation theories meant to her. When asked why she had considered the Taiwanese culture, she answered, "we learned that in class, teachers and books about translation theories often emphasise the importance of readers' response". It is evident that, to Subject K, translation is not only about finding semantic equivalents but also about wider cultural contexts (cf. 2.1.1.). Her ability to consider translation from more perspectives (linguistic, cultural, human elements) also indicates that she has a higher level of subject-matter autonomy (2.2.4.), which allows her to make well-informed decisions in her translating process.

5.2.1.3. Source Text

The source text theme concerns the evaluation of the source text, including its level of difficulty and/or why it was regarded difficult without specifying any parts of the ST as problems. For example, "*In a whole, this text is difficult to translate for me*" and "*How to restructure the sentences [of the ST text] is the biggest problem for this article.*" All of the diary contents on this theme were coded as reportive.

According to Nord's translation model (see 2.1.1.5.), analysis of the source text, including its sender and the sender's intention, is an important step before translating. However, there was very little indication in the subjects' diary that they had done such analysis before translating. The subjects' attention in this learning mode was mostly on their translating process. This may be why their descriptions in the source text theme were all reportive without evidence of deeper level of thinking. However, it was quite different in the SGD-learning mode, where sender's meaning and intention often became the focus of discussion, particularly when there were different interpretations of the source text (see Chapter Seven).

5.2.1.4. Translation Quality

The translation quality theme relates to the assessment of one's own translation quality. Most of the descriptions with this theme were reportive, for example, "*on the whole, I think this translation is the best one I have done*" and "*assessing that my translation was nearly acceptable, need to be polished but I don't know how*".

Others were coded as reflective, such as "*In my point of view, this piece of translation is acceptable but may be too lengthy in some ways. Most of the translation is long and perhaps it's due to the long sentences in the source text, but I still think my work could be more succinct*" and "*In my opinion, this piece of translation is readable but not very fluent due to many complicated Chinese sentences. It seemed to be too wordy, but I am afraid if I take those words out, I may mislead readers' understanding of the text and the position the author held.*" Although coded as in a reflective writing style, such reflective descriptions only provided simple justification based on the subject's pre-existing knowledge. There was no evidence in the diary data that reflection on this theme had motivated the subjects to take action or had changed their meaning schemes or perspectives.

5.2.1.5. Time

Descriptions coded as having the time theme were those that reported how much time was spent on a translation task, for example, "*I spent about one and half an hour to translate*" and "*translated it two weeks later*". All of the descriptions with this theme were reportive. There was no indication that the subjects had learned from reflecting on the theme. This finding was surprising since time management was reported by most subjects as one of their major concerns (see 4.2.). In comparison, the subjects who participated in the TA-learning mode seemed to pay particular attention to this theme. There was evidence that they had learned from reflecting on this theme (see Chapter

Six).

5.2.2. Reflective Thinking Ability

The analysis of the diary data showed that the subjects had different reflective thinking abilities. Although all of the subjects had both reportive and reflective descriptions, their degree of sophistication varied greatly. Individual subjects tended to maintain similar levels of reflective thinking throughout the diary-learning mode. Some of them had a simple, non-analytic reportive style, as in Subject I's case:

I translated paragraph by paragraph. When I encountered new words, I looked them up in the dictionary or through on-line resources. When I was translating, I felt anxious and not confident; this was because I didn't translate the assignment this week well. Therefore, when I was translating, I didn't record how much time I used because I translated on and off.¹² I didn't feel this one was easy to translate. After I finished, I didn't know how to polish it. I always feel no article is easy to translate.¹³ (1st diary entry)

It is apparent that this diary entry was not reflective at all. In the main, it recorded the subject's translation procedures and her feelings. Apart from being a "safety valve" for her to vent her negative feelings (see 2.1.3.1.), there was little evidence that she had learned from thinking about the content. Her other two diary entries were very similar to this entry.

In contrast, some of the subjects tended to have highly analytic, reflective entries using sophisticated description. The following two passages were extracted from

¹² Back translation of “我是一段一段地翻，遇到不懂的單字，就查字典或上網找。翻的時候，覺得心很煩，很沒信心，與這星期的翻譯作業，翻的不好有關。所以，在翻時，也沒算時間，因為是斷斷續續翻的。”

¹³ Back translation of “也不覺得這篇好翻，翻完也不知如何修飾好。我總覺得沒有一篇是好翻的。”

Subject B's second and third diary entries respectively.

I had problems understanding what “totemic” implies. As I looked through dictionaries and the Internet, there was little information for me to find an appropriate translation for it. According to my dictionaries, I found the identical translation of it is 圖騰 [“totem”], which I was pretty sure it is not what it means under this context. So I checked with my Internet, and saw some article discussing the history of totem, including its functions in society as uniting people together. It is sort of a representation of certain ideology penetrating the entire society by which the society can really achieve unity and redeem the order. That is the most acceptable explanation among those I have found. That is why I translated it this way.

And I translated “We continue...” to “社會一再 [back translation: the society continue to]” on account that I felt it would be very awkward to translate that into “我們一再 [we continue]”, which sounds very unnatural in the TL, Chinese; since “我們 [we]” may sound too strong in Chinese. Chinese is a language that tends to stay distanced and neutral when it comes to addressing people which they believe is more polite, while direct addresses like you, me, we, are commonly used in English without any offensive meaning. Therefore, I solved the problem of cultural differences by taking this “we” as “people in the society” and making it sound as neutral as possible. I reversed the order of the sentence in order to achieve fluency of language, and to avoid the natural flow being cut by the inserted quotation. Hence, I got the answer following right after the question.

This description was reflective because the subject not only described her decision but also the reasons why she made that decision. Subject B was one of the few subjects that consistently provided very analytical descriptions of their problem-solving process. Where it occurred, the pattern was observed throughout the three diary entries of the subjects.

The finding that the subjects had different reflective thinking ability is consistent with earlier findings in reflective learning (cf. Hatton and Smith, 1995; Moon, 2004) (see 2.1.3.1.). It points out the importance of autonomous learning. Since students are at different stages of learning, it is difficult for institutionalised education to meet all

individual needs. Autonomous learning, with an emphasis on individual exploration and development, may be a solution.

In addition, the subjects in the diary-learning mode mostly reflected on problem contents and problem-solving processes within their existing meaning schemes and perspectives. There was no concrete evidence that they had experienced critical reflection, questioning their premise about translation or a translation problem. For instance, in Subject I's second passage above, she made her decision based on the presupposition that "*Chinese is a language that tends to stay distanced and neutral when it comes to addressing people*" but there was no evidence that she had questioned this claim, which may not be justified. This indicates that students need to learn how to reflect before learning activities, such as diary, can achieve the effect that they claim to have.

Chapter Six

The Think-Aloud Learning Mode

6. THE THINK-ALOUD LEARNING MODE

Fifteen subjects participated in the think-aloud (TA) learning mode. Five were second-year students; ten were first-year students. None had used think-aloud techniques as learning methods.

In the TA-learning mode, the subjects each translated three journal articles from English into Chinese. While translating, they spoke aloud and recorded their thoughts. Next, they listened to their own recording and wrote a think-aloud learning journal (TAJ). Guidelines (Appendix F) were provided for the subjects only for their reference. There was no limit on what they should write in their TAJ.

The subjects' perceptions of the strengths and weaknesses of the TA-learning mode were elicited through interviews and a questionnaire survey. The transcripts of the interviews and answers in the questionnaires were analysed based on the grounded theory principles described in Chapter Three. The findings of these analyses are presented in the first section of this chapter, and extracts from the interviews and questionnaires are provided to illustrate the findings.

The subjects' TAJs were also analysed and coded based on the grounded theory principles. The analyses and findings from the TAJ data are presented in the second section of this chapter.

6.1. Perceptions of the TA-Learning Mode

The analysis of the interview and questionnaire data identified five pairs of contrasting

effects of the TA-learning mode on the subjects and their translation processes and products: distracting vs. concentrating attention; slowing down vs. increasing translation speed; causing more translation mistakes vs. helping identify translation problems; improving vs. deteriorating translation quality and causing negative vs. positive feelings.

In addition to these contrasting effects, which include both strengths and weaknesses, the data analysis identified two additional strengths (6.1.2.) and two additional weaknesses (6.1.3.). The two additional strengths are promotion of reflection and generation of useful recordings and TAJs. The two additional weaknesses are high time consumption and a lack of solutions.

The comparison of the findings reveals that these contrasting effects, strengths and weaknesses may be attributed to the procedural activities involved in this learning mode: thinking aloud while translating, recording, listening to one's own recordings, and keeping the TAJ.

6.1.1. Contrasting Effects

6.1.1.1. Distracting vs. Concentrating Attention

6.1.1.1.1. Distraction

Twelve of the 15 subjects reported in the interviews and questionnaires that they often felt distracted when in the TA-learning mode. The analysis of the interview and questionnaires data identified three main sources of distraction: thinking-aloud, recording and multitasking.

Thinking-aloud

Most of the subjects reported that thinking-aloud had distracted their attention from their translation task by interrupting or obstructing their streams of thoughts. In the interview, a subject compared how she felt when she translated with and without thinking aloud in the following words:

When I think silently, my thoughts about my translation are complete. I can write down the final results of my thinking. However, in this learning mode, I found speaking out loud hindered my thoughts when I was trying to solve some problems or trying to read between the lines. I would forget what I was supposed to be thinking of next. Those thoughts simply fled away.

Some of the subjects reported that speaking aloud words that were not related to translating, such as “*I am moving the cursor*” and “*checking up the dictionary*”, distracted them from concentrating on translating.

Recording

The recording activity was identified as another source of distraction for some of the subjects. They reported worrying that their recorder might not be working, or their voice was too soft or low to be recorded. For example, one of them said in the interview, “*I was afraid my MP3 might not be working so I kept checking on it. This really distracted me from my translation task.*” Some of the subjects reported they raised their voice as a result and felt they were working in very unnatural conditions.

Multitasking

Some of the subjects reported they felt they were not good at doing several things at the same time, i.e. translating, thinking, speaking and typing.

6.1.1.1.2. Concentration

The analysis of interview and questionnaire data reveals that the TA-learning mode may help students to become more concentrated on translating through thinking aloud, through awareness of inefficient translating behaviour, and the recording activity.

Thinking Aloud

Three subjects reported they concentrated more on their translation task rather than feeling distracted in this learning mode. One reported that she found thinking aloud was like explaining things to herself and thus helped her concentrate harder on her translation problem-solving processes. The second subject said, "*thinking aloud can help me reorganise my thought*". The third said,

I feel my own voice would somehow remind me to think through things. That's because if I only think in my mind, sometimes my streams of thought would be interrupted or I would be distracted by other things. But if there is a voice, it would remind me to complete what I am thinking and doing and not to be distracted.

Awareness of Inefficient Translating Behaviour

Although only three subjects reported that thinking aloud had helped them concentrate on their translation task, more than half of the subjects doing the TA-learning mode reported they concentrated better they had become aware of their inefficient translating behaviour. One of them (Subject I) described how thinking aloud had helped her:

I used to spend a lot of time looking for equivalents of a term on the Internet. Then I became curious about how these equivalents had come along and spent a lot of time on-line. This ended up distracting me from my translation and costing me more time. The best thing with thinking aloud is that it helps me hold on to my thoughts. I would

not think this and think that. I found I became more concentrated on what I was doing.

Two of the subjects that reported feeling distracted by thinking aloud also reported they became more concentrated but this did not occur until they discovered from their TA recordings that they did not manage their time well. It appears that listening to one's own TA recording could raise the student's awareness of inefficient translation processes or behaviours, which in turn may cause the student to change their behaviour, e.g. managing their time better or concentrating better when translating. This finding is consistent with Wakabayashi's study (2003) using TA as a pedagogical tool, in which her students found through TA that looking up words had greatly slowed down their translation process.

It is evident, therefore, that the awareness-raising effect of the TA-learning mode is potentially very useful to students. It may serve as a starting point of students' problem-solving process (Dewey, 1910), as evidenced in the next section where some of the subjects reporting being prompted to take action to make their translating behaviour (e.g. dictionary use) more efficient. Such learner-initiated actions are also important in autonomous learning (Little, 1991).

Recording

Two subjects said recording their own voice was like "*a formal activity*", making them feel they needed to translate attentively and continuously so that they would not have too much silence or irrelevant activities recorded in their recording. One of them said, "*I would feel ashamed and embarrassed if the teacher finds through my recordings that I did not concentrate.*"

6.1.1.2. Slowing down vs. Increasing Translation Speed

Slowing down

Nearly all of the subjects who reported feeling distracted in the TA-learning mode reported their translating speed reduced, a finding consistent with Jakobson (2003), in which think-aloud was found to have a delaying effect on the translation process. Although thinking-aloud, recording and multitasking were all reported by these subjects as reasons for their slower translating speed, thinking-aloud was the most frequently mentioned one. The subjects reported that speaking compromised their thinking, making them unable to think continually. As a result, they said, they spent more time on the same parts of their translation.

Increasing speed

All of the three subjects, who reported thinking aloud had helped their thinking process (e.g. better organising of their thoughts), said they felt their translating speed was faster. It appears that this effect is short-term and only reduces the time students spend on thinking.

Most of the others who reported translating faster in the TA-learning mode attributed it to their awareness of inefficient translating behaviour. They reported in the interviews that this awareness had prompted them to take action to change their inefficient behaviour (e.g. daydreaming, looking up the same words many times without memorising them), resulting in shorter completion times for translation tasks. One subject said in the interview, *"I felt embarrassed when I could not think of anything to say during self-recording. So I would hurry myself up to move on quickly."*

The analysis of the interview data also found that awareness of the acceleration effect

of this learning mode resulted in changes in some of the subjects' translating behaviour, making them willing to use some of the activities of this learning mode, even though they were not fond of the whole TA-learning mode. This finding was consistent with the finding of the pre-mode interview, where translation speed was found to be an important factor in students' motivation.

One of the subjects provides a good example. This subject had reported worrying about slow translation speed in the pre-workshop interview. She also reported that, after the TA-learning mode, she probably would not continue to use this learning mode "*because it is a time-consuming and arduous task which might make me exhausted*". However, she also talked about her change after the learning mode:

When translating, I would now think aloud to emphasize the meaning of the words or phrases that I don't understand, and I would try to organize my sentence of translation faster to avoid repeating or murmuring them for quite a long time.

The analysis of the interview data also reveals that awareness of the complicated procedures of the TA-learning mode may make students accelerate their translation process in order to reduce the total time spent on these procedures. For instance, some of the subjects reported that, knowing they would do the TA-learning mode, they would purposefully set aside a time for translation so they could translate more attentively and finish as soon as possible. They said that, in this way, they would not need to spend too much additional time in listening to their recording because a longer translation time meant a longer recording and thus a longer time listening.

6.1.1.3. Causing More Mistakes vs. Helping Identify Problems

The analysis of the interview and questionnaire data revealed that, among the four main activities of this learning mode, the subjects generally felt thinking-aloud caused more translation mistakes while the listening and TAJ-writing activities helped them identify translation problems, including inefficient translating behaviours mentioned in the previous subsections.

Causing More Mistakes

Some subjects reported feeling that thinking aloud might cause more translation mistakes. One of them said, *“When I revised my translation work, I always found some mistakes I had made during the thinking-aloud process. If I didn’t use the think-aloud mode, I might have made fewer mistakes”*.

In the interview, the subjects who perceived they were making more translation mistakes in the TA-learning mode tended to attribute this to the distraction of thinking aloud. As another subject reported, *“speaking out loud seemed to interfere with my thinking, making me make mistakes more easily.”*

Helping Identify Problems

While some of the subjects felt that thinking-aloud might cause more translation mistakes, others reported thinking-aloud had helped raise their awareness of repeated problems simply because of having voiced them many times.

The analysis of the interview and questionnaire data revealed that the listening activity might have helped the subjects identify problems, particularly inefficient and repeated behaviours. Most of the subjects reported that listening to their own TA-recordings

was like reviewing their translation process “*from a different angle*”, particularly when they listened to the recordings some time after completing their translation. They reported this had helped them find their problems more easily.

For instance, one subject reported that the TA-learning mode raised her awareness of the long time she spent on translation. She said, “*[I found] I spent quite a long time [on my translation], but I was not aware of it until I listened to my recording and found it seemed there was no end to it.*” This heightened awareness resulted in changes in her translating behaviour. She reported that after she recognized that her long recordings were due to her long translation processes, she started to think about methods to shorten her translation time, including making more preparations (e.g. checking up new or technical words before translating to reduce interruption during translating).

The data analysis also revealed that listening to recordings of the translating processes of different translation drafts might help students identify translation problems. For instance, one subject reported that listening to her TA-recording revealed that she usually used redundant wording in her first draft and then spent time revising it. She said that this finding had helped her realize that she should use more precise wording in her first draft so that she could save herself some revision work and time on completing the translation task.

The listening and TAJ-writing process also appeared able to provide the subjects with an additional opportunity to check their translation against the source text, leading to revised or better renditions. For example, one of the subjects said, “*when I listened [to my recording], I found the way I interpreted the source text was not correct. So I revised it.*”

However, it was noteworthy that most of the problems that the subjects reported aware of and feeling able to solve were those that related to time management and efficiency of completing a translation task. The subjects also reported finding translation problems but few tried to find solutions. For instance, Subject D said,

When I listened to my TA recordings, I found some of my problems. Some of them were comprehension problems, or translation problems beyond my ability or a lack of background knowledge. [...] I solved some of them, but sometimes no matter how hard I tried, I was still unable to solve them. I don't know what to do, so I simply leave them.

It appeared that when students became aware of problems that they perceived as within their ability and control, such as translating first and look up unfamiliar words later, they tended to change their behaviour quickly. However, when they perceived the problems as beyond their ability and control, they tended to give up trying even when aware of their problems (cf. 2.3.3.1.). This finding was consistent with that of the diary-learning mode (see 5.2.1.2.2.).

6.1.1.4. Deteriorating vs. Improving Translation Quality

Think-aloud

As reported in the previous subsections, thinking-aloud was perceived by most of the subjects as obstructing their thinking. Some reported that this had resulted in poorer translation quality. As one reported, *“I felt my [Chinese] sentences were less elegant, very awkward. I feel if I don't need to say them, just thinking about them in my mind, I can come up with more elegant Chinese. If I am forced to speak out, I feel my Chinese would be very awkward. I did all the three translations very badly. They look ugly.”*¹⁴ This subject

¹⁴ Translated from an interview extract: “翻起來好像句子就比較不美，就會很硬，我覺得如果不要

explained later in the interview that the written Chinese language had graphic elements, and, to her, the beauty of the graphic elements was simply lost when she thought aloud.

However, others reported that they found thinking aloud had helped them see if their translation was fluent. As one of the subjects said, *“when speaking out loud, I felt I wanted the sentence to be as expressive as I would normally say it...because when you see some sentences, you can tell they were translations. Thinking-aloud had the effect of making my sentences more Chinese, less like translated ones.”*

Recording

Recording also appears to have effects of both improving and impairing translation quality, but in a more indirect way than thinking-aloud. Some subjects reported that self-recording was like having someone rushing them, making them feel nervous and anxious and wanting to finish their translation as soon as possible without thinking about better renditions.

However, others reported that self-recording made them feel they were doing something important and the resulting recording was the evidence of their efforts. Such feelings seem to result in a change in translation behaviour. For example, one reported that she found herself searching for background information instead of just translating the surface meaning of the source text, and she would not have done this before. She said recording seemed a serious thing to her, *“like making an album”*, so she needed to do her best.

講，就讓句子在轉，我會轉比較漂亮的中文，若硬要我講出來，我覺得我的中文很硬，我這三篇都翻很爛，字都很醜。”

6.1.1.5. Causing Negative vs. Positive Feelings

Negative Feelings

Some of the subjects claimed to have felt stressed, anxious, embarrassed, bored, and exhausted when doing the TA-learning mode, and such negative feelings mostly came from the complicated procedure of the TA-learning mode. One of these subjects talked about this in the interview, *“I simply felt exhausted because I had to do multitasking, speaking, typing, translating and recording at the same time. It’s too tedious for me.”* The others expressed similar feelings by saying that they felt psychologically, and in some cases physically exhausted because there were several activities involved. Among the activities involved in this learning mode, thinking-aloud, recording and listening to the recording were the most frequently mentioned by the subjects as evoking negative feelings.

Thinking-aloud

For instance, some subjects reported feeling embarrassed, uncomfortable, and unnatural when speaking their thoughts aloud because they were used to thinking silently. Some of them said they felt under pressure because they had to keep speaking and reminding themselves to speak. However, some subjects also reported that the uncomfortable feelings reduced after they became used to thinking aloud.

Recording

The data analysis showed that recording one’s voice was perceived by most of the subjects as a stressful activity, as can be seen in the following two extracts from the interviews.

When doing this [the TA-learning mode]...I often felt like stopping speaking every few seconds...but I knew I was recording myself, so I forced myself to open my mouth. I felt really pushed.

I felt anxious and nervous when self-recording. It seemed like a very formal activity because I had seldom been recorded. It was like someone pressing me to translate faster. Sometimes I felt I had recorded myself for such a long time that I'd better stop translating, no matter whether my translation was good or bad.

Listening to TA-recordings

Most of the subjects reported feeling bored and impatient when listening to the redundant and repeated contents in their own TA-recordings, such as “*I scrolled down to the next page*” and “*I clicked on the mouse*”.

Positive Feelings

However, several other subjects reported feeling particularly interested in using the TA-learning mode because it brought them new experience and gave them pleasure.

One of them said in the interview,

Reviewing my own translating process [in the TA-learning mode] is an interesting thing, in that I found out some strengths and weaknesses of my translation...It also made me feel doing translation was more fun. It was like observing myself from a different angle. A good and interesting learning method.

6.1.2 Two Additional Main Strengths

In addition to the five strengths of the TA-learning mode presented in the previous subsection (i.e. concentrating trainee translators' attention, increasing their translation speeds, helping identify translation problems, improving translation quality, and causing positive feelings), the data analysis identified two more strengths of this learning mode: more thinking and usefulness as records.

6.1.2.1. More Thinking on Translation Process

The data analysis found that the TA-learning mode had provided the subjects with more thinking opportunities, raising or heightening their awareness of translation processes and drawing their attention to, for instance, the reasons for their decision or their problems. As one of the subjects reported, *“I had seldom thought about why I would encounter certain translation problems and how to solve them. However, after this [learning mode], for later translation tasks, though I would not use TA on the whole source text, but I might think aloud part of it and analyse my recording to find out what I should pay more attention to...and what my problems are. This would help me the most.”*¹⁵

The data analysis also found that some of the subjects were motivated by their heightened awareness of translation processes to find new or better learning methods. For example, one of them reported that she had not paid much attention to her translation process but, after experiencing the TA-learning mode, she would compare how she and others handle similar sentences. She said, *“Making comparisons and reflecting on them is very helpful.”*

Some of the subjects reported that heightened awareness of translation process had led them to change their translating behaviour; even their perception of translation. One of them (Subject A) was already an experienced translator on enrolling in the translator training program. The quality of the six translations she did in the workshop

¹⁵ Translated from an interview extract: “以前很少去想爲什麼會遇到某些問題，也很少去想會怎麼解決，只是可能說查到就查到，沒查到就沒查到。不過做完之後可能就會再遇到別的翻譯，雖然不會通篇使用 TA 的方法，但是可能自己會不由自主地說出來一部分，然後再分析自己說的是什麼意思，該怎麼注意...應該是什麼問題。這個倒是幫助最大的。”

for the present study was rated as either the best or second best of all the subjects. She reported in the interview that she had used to believe that “*translating was a matter of talent, an unconscious conversion between two languages, and renditions would come out of one’s mind automatically*”. However, she changed her mind after the TA-learning mode. She talked about her change in the interview:

[When writing the TAJ,] I found I was really analysing my translation process. There really was a process. Therefore, afterwards when encountering source sentences that I don’t quite know how to translate, I would try to break them down to smaller parts and find out the subject and the verb, and try to find out which part is the adjective phrase and so on.

6.1.2.2. Usefulness as Records

Nearly all the subjects reported that TA recordings and TAJs were useful records that helped them find their translation patterns, weaknesses and strengths.

Recordings

The analysis of the interview and questionnaire data revealed that the subjects had identified three main advantages of TA recordings. First, they recorded their translation process in detail, which they could later use to analyse their work for mistakes or solutions, without having to worry about forgetting. For example, one subject reported that, when she found a translation mistake, she traced why she had made that mistake through listening to her recorded translation process.

Second, TA recordings could be used by others, such as teachers, to identify weaknesses that individuals could not find independently. For example, one subject reported that she had asked one of her informants to listen to how she had handled one sentence so that the informant could give her feedback.

Third, TA recordings could be kept for as long as needed so they could refer to them later to see if they would do things differently.

TAJs

Although both TA recordings and TAJs were perceived by the subjects as having recorded their translation process and thinking, most of the subjects reported preferring TAJs over TA recordings. The subjects' comments in the interviews indicated that TAJs have four main advantages. First, subjects could record their translation process and their reflection on their translation process, while TA recordings only recorded translation process. As one subject said in the interview, *"if only listening to my TA recording, I might forget what I was thinking while listening to it, such as a better translation solution. But a TAJ records what I thought was useful to my learning. I can consult it later if I encounter similar problems."*

Second, TAJs could be used to detect one's translation patterns and problems across several translation tasks. For example, one subject reported that she had found from her three TAJs that her main translation problems were at the comprehension and word levels. Another subject reported that she found from her TAJs that she had difficulties finding the relationship between sentences, a problem she had not noticed before.

Third, TAJs could summarise contents of a TA recording. As one subject reported, *"I used one sentence in my TAJ to summarize what had happened during a long period of time in the recording."*

Fourth, TAJs could be used to get feedback from others. One subject reported that she hoped she could use her TAJs to show her teachers the methods and process she used to handle translation problems and get feedback on the appropriateness of the methods.

6.1.3 Two Additional Weaknesses

In addition to the five weaknesses presented in the previous subsection (i.e. distracting trainee translators' attention, decreasing translation speed, making more mistakes, deteriorating translation quality, and causing negative feelings), data analysis identified two more weaknesses of this learning mode: its high time consumption and its inability to provide solutions and new perspectives.

6.1.3.1. High Time Consumption

The data analysis found that the subjects generally considered the TA-learning mode as very time-consuming, mostly because of its complicated procedure. In addition to translating, this learning mode includes four activities: thinking-aloud, recording, listening, and writing a TAJ. Some of the subjects reported that knowing that there were several activities involved in this learning mode had discouraged them from using it in the future. One of them said in the interview:

This learning mode really took time. I had to record everything. Then I had to listen to the recording. It was not very efficient to me. Every time when I thought of having to do all these, I felt reluctant to do even translation.

The data analysis also found that the thinking-aloud and listening activities were the main causes of complaints for high time consumption, particularly the listening activity. As presented in the previous subsections, it appears that thinking-aloud may slow

translation speed, prolonging translation time. However, it appeared that the listening activity had caused the most complaints. As one subject pointed out in the interview, she spent more than twice as much time as usual because she *“did the translation and had to listen to the process of doing it.”*

6.1.3.2. Lack of Solutions or New Perspectives

Most of the subjects reported in the interview that the TA-learning mode was unable to provide solutions or new perspectives. They reported that they could not solve problems which they did not know how to. As one of them said, *“what I didn’t understand, I still don’t understand.”*¹⁶

Some of the subjects also reported that they needed others’ input to find translation problems they themselves could not find. As one explained why she would not use this learning mode in the future because *“it takes a long time and it’s done alone most of the time. I think one will progress less this way. If one wants to be a good translator, s/he has to learn from others.”*¹⁷ The SGD-learning mode discussed in Chapter Seven may provide some insights into this.

6.1.4 Possibility of Use in the Future

Seven subjects said that they would not use the TA-learning mode in the future. One said she already applied it to her normal translation assignments; The remaining seven said they would consider using it but only on the difficult parts of the ST, on short paragraphs rather than the whole ST, or only use it from time to time (e.g. *“once*

¹⁶ Translated from an interview extract: “原本不明白,還是不明白”.

¹⁷ Translated from an interview extract: “...因為所要花費的時間長,而且因為多半是獨立完成,我認為進步的空間會比較小,要成為好的譯者,我覺得必須要多向他人學習。”

or twice a week instead of every time”). The analysis of the interview and questionnaire data showed seven main weaknesses of this learning mode (6.1.1. & 6.1.3.), however, high time consumption was the main reason that the seven subjects did not want to use it in the future. Improvement of translation fluency and Identification of one’s own problems were the two main reasons why the eight subjects would use or consider using it in the future.

* * * * *

The above analysis found that the TA-learning mode has contrasting effects, caused by the procedural activities involved in this learning mode (i.e. thinking aloud, recording, listening to one’s own recordings, writing TAJs). It appears that outcomes that are considered advantageous would motivate students to use this learning mode and the disadvantageous outcome would motivate them not to use it.

The data analysis also showed that these procedural activities were so intrusive that the subjects often spontaneously talked about them when asked about their perception of this learning mode; this was particularly so for the thinking aloud activity. In comparison, in the interviews and questionnaires administered after the Diary- and SGD-learning modes, the subjects seldom mentioned procedural issues, such as how often to write a diary entry or do a SGD unless asked by the researcher. This implies that the procedural activities play an important role in determining student’s motivation to use the TA-learning mode.

However, the above analysis showed that the writing activity -- that is, the generation of TA-learning journals (TAJs) -- was generally regarded by the subjects as beneficial to their learning. The next section will present findings from the analysis of the

subjects' TA learning journals (TAJs) and important factors influencing their usefulness.

6.2. Analysis and Findings of TAJs

Each of the fifteen subjects participating in the TA-learning mode generated 3 TA journal (TAJ) entries, so there were 45 TAJ entries in total. All of the TAJs were coded based on the grounded theory principles (3.2.1.) and six themes emerged. Five were found to overlap with five of the themes that emerged from the diary-learning mode: **procedure, problem-solving process, source text (ST), translation quality** and **time**. The only addition was the theme of **learning mode**.

As in the dairies, two styles of writing were observed in the subjects' TAJ entries, **reportive** and **reflective**, which were based on the same criteria as described in the diary-learning mode (see 5.2.) A **reportive** style simply described what happened without giving reasons or justification, while a **reflective** style provided at least reason or justification for what happened.

The analysis of the TAJs showed that, except the time and learning mode themes, descriptions relating to the other themes in the TAJs were similar to their counterparts in the diary learning mode. Both reportive and reflective styles of writing were found in all of these themes. Findings about all the themes are presented in 6.2.1.

Individual subjects' writing styles were found to be consistent throughout the TA-learning mode (6.2.2.), but a comparison between the diary and TAJ written by the same subjects revealed that some subjects' reflective thinking might have been influenced by the listening activity involved in the TA-learning mode (6.2.3.).

6.2.1 Themes and Levels of Reflection

6.2.1.1. Procedure

Nearly all the procedure descriptions in the subjects' TAJs were reportive, for example, *"I started from "buried within", and checked the information about Guantanamo Bay inmate".* Like their counterparts in the diary-learning mode, there was little evidence that such reportive Procedure descriptions would benefit students' learning except by being records.

One of the few reflective descriptions was *"I translated the text sentence by sentence without reading the whole article first. And I later found this led to mistranslation. So I saved the time reading the whole article first but ended up using more time on revision."* This new awareness is important to autonomous learning (Little, 1991) and may prompt students to change their process in translation tasks.

6.2.1.2. Problem-solving Process

The analysis showed that descriptions of this theme constituted most of the contents of the TAJs. It appeared that when writing their TAJ, the subjects focused mainly on their problems or problem-solving processes. However, unlike the other themes, where the subjects' descriptions were generally reportive, descriptions of this theme showed the most variation in levels of reflection among the 15 subjects. Seven subjects' (A, D, F, I, L, M & R) descriptions about this theme were largely reportive, three subjects' (G, J & K) were generally reflective, and the other 5 (C, E, M, Q, W) had both reportive and reflective descriptions.

6.2.1.2.1. Reportive Descriptions

The analysis of the TAJs showed that TAJs were useful as records. The following are two reportive extracts from two subjects' TAJs:

Subject Q: The reddest "red top": I think "red top" is the name of a news agency or an institute but I couldn't find it. I decided to translate it as 最正直的红头 [back translation: the most upright "red head"]. I think I may have been affected by Chinese. In Chinese, 红 [red] usually means good.

Subject A: The reddest "red top": at first I didn't know what it meant. After googling, I found red top means tabloid, but which tabloid? So I checked which news agency Piers Morgan worked for and found it's Sunday Mirror. But reddest should mean the colour, does it mean "最八卦的小報" [back translation: the tabloid of the tabloids]?

In their TAJs, both subjects recorded "the reddest 'red top'" as a translation problem and their own ways of solving it. It was apparent that Subject Q adopted the wrong meaning based on her inappropriate Chinese meaning schemes. The usefulness of their TAJs as records was evident as they could be read by teachers or peers to discuss whether their interpretation of the term or their way of solving this problem was appropriate. However, in terms of individual learning, it appears that deeper reflection on their own problem-solving process may help them solve the problem, such as questioning the reliability of on-line resources or pre-existing Chinese meaning schemes.

6.2.1.2.2. Reflective Descriptions

It was apparent that the four examples in the previous subsection all struggled at the linguistic levels. The subjects were trying to decide the semantic meaning of the term

“red top” without considering how the readers would respond to their version of translation. The following is a reflective description, which showed the subject not only tried to find out the semantic meaning of the term but also considered readers’ response:

Subject J: I went on-line to find out what “Red Top” meant and found it meant the red masthead of the tabloid. Although there was not a “tabloid” in the source text, I think if I only translated it as “紅色標題 [back translation: red masthead]”, the readers would not understand its meaning, so I added 小報 [back translation: tabloid] to explain it.

This description was coded reflective because it at least provided a reason for why the subject decided to translate “red top” as 紅標小報 [back translation : red-top tabloid] in Chinese. Subject J later reported in the post-mode interview that when she translated this text, she thought not only about the reader’s response but also the journalistic style of writing and the function of this journalistic text. This implies that she not only looks at translation from a linguistic perspective but also from a wider social context, and this in turn may have helped her make decisions during translating. This also implies that disciplinary knowledge (e.g. translation theory) could serve as a base for the translator’s reflection-in-action (Schön, 1983, 1987).

6.2.1.3. Source Text

Compared with their counterparts in the diaries, descriptions about this theme in the TAJs were much fewer. It seemed that most of the subjects’ TAJs focused on the problem-solving process theme. As in the diaries, all the descriptions on the source text theme were reportive. An example is “*I think that the article is not too hard to understand, but it is hard to find the right word and sentence structure in Chinese*”. These

descriptions focused mainly on the linguistic aspects of the ST rather than looking at the ST from a wider context, such as the author's intention (cf. Nord, 1988/1991).

6.2.1.4. Translation Quality

Similar to the ST theme, there were very few descriptions concerning the translation quality theme in the subjects' TAJs. Nearly all were reportive, reporting on the weaknesses they perceived without mentioning solutions, such as "*Although I tried my best to do it, I was not satisfied with the final draft of my translation; there are still some comprehension problems which I can't solve.*" There was little evidence in the TAJ or interview data that finding these difficulties had motivated the subjects to take action to improve their translation quality.

6.2.1.5. Time

Descriptions about this theme were mostly reportive, reporting how much time was spent on the whole source text or particular parts of the source text, such as "*It took me about 2 hours to finish this translation. I think it is too long to translate 200 words*" and "*The first sentence in the first paragraph is not difficult to understand but I spent more than 30 minutes on translating this sentence*".

Compared to the time descriptions in the dairies (see 5.2.1.5.), which were all reportive and mostly described how much time was spent on the whole text, the time descriptions in the TAJs were particularly detailed, such as "*I spent 6 minutes and 50 seconds in this sentence, too long*" and "*I went back to the word of 'red top' and spent a lot of time on it*". These timing details raised some of the subjects' awareness of which aspects took them the most time, for instance, "*[...] surprisingly, this short article which is not very difficult to understand for me almost took me an hour. I realized I spent about 6 to*

10 minutes in those long sentences or the vocabulary which I felt hard to find equivalences. The process is too long, and definitely I need to speed up myself in the future.”

In some cases, such awareness led to changes of behaviours. For instance, one of the subjects said in the interview,

when in the TA-learning mode, I paid particularly attention to time because I felt I needed to translate more efficiently. [...] I found I spent too much time on one problem. When I listened to my first TA recording, I found when I was reading the source text, I looked up the same word four times, meaning I simply forgot its meaning after looking it up. It might be better that I don't look it up until starting to translate. I can try both and use the more efficient method.

This subject later reported in the interview that she tried the second method in her second TA translation task and found she translated faster so she decided to use this strategy in her third TA translation task.

Compared with the Diary-learning mode, the TA-learning mode appears to be particularly useful in helping students identify how they can translate faster. As translating speed and time management have been identified (Chapter Four) as one of their main concerns, this strength of the TA-learning mode could motivate students to use it.

6.2.1.6. Learning Mode

This theme was unique to the TA-learning mode. Six of the 15 subjects participating in this learning mode wrote about their perceptions of the TA-learning mode in their TAJs and commented on its advantages and disadvantages. In comparison, no subjects wrote about how doing the diary-learning mode had influenced them. It appears that

the TA-learning mode was so unique or new to some subjects that they paid particular attention to its advantages and disadvantages and wrote about them in their TAJ.

Four of the six subjects described the advantages of this learning mode, mostly on the thinking-aloud activity and how this learning mode had made their translation more fluent. For instance, one said it “*can help translators to see whether the translation is natural, correct and smooth*”. One wrote about the negative influence of thinking aloud on her; another said she forgot to speak while translating.

What was noteworthy was that these six subjects reflected on this learning mode in at least two of their three TAJ entries, showing that there had been a change in their perceptions of this learning mode in the course of doing the three translation tasks, as in Subject N’s TAJ entries:

Subject N:

The first thing I found about this method was that it was annoying in terms of concentration because I had to keep reminding myself to talk. [...] This method actually slowed down my translation process because talking compromised thinking. This has made listening to my own recording a boring and frustrating thing. (1st)

I found if I get use to talking while translating, it helped to get better translation [...]. The awkwardness in the translation is very distinct when I read them out loud, but talking only helped me spot the problem. (2nd)

My translating speed seems to become quicker as I get used to the multitasking: thinking, talking and typing. I even use talking (sight interpreting) to obtain the first draft in the third task, which I found quite useful, maybe it is a new skill. (3rd)

In the post-mode interview, Subject N said she would use this learning mode mainly

because it could help her to identify her translation problems.

From the above case, it appears that the use of this learning mode is partly decided by individuals weighing of its strengths and weaknesses. Some students, like Subject N, may need to use it more than once before deciding that it is a useful learning method for them.

6.2.2. Reflective Thinking Ability

The analysis of the subjects' TAJs revealed that the subjects presented different levels of reflective thinking ability in their TAJ and tended to maintain the same level of reflection throughout their three TAJ entries. This finding was consistent with that of the Dairy-learning mode (5.2.2.). The analysis of the diaries and TAJs of those who did both the Diary- and TA-learning modes showed that their reflective levels were consistent in the two learning modes, as shown in Subjects I's and K's cases.

As reported in 5.2.2., Subject I had a simple, un-analytic reportive writing style in her diary. The same writing style was observed in her three TAJ entries. Her third TAJ entry is presented below:

- 1. This was the third time I thought aloud. I still feel this is a good learning method.*
- 2. I am not sure the meaning of these words: invisible outlaws, invisible, The answer?---I don't know whether I translated them correctly.*
- 3. I feel background knowledge is important. I should accumulate more. (3rd)*

Except for recording her problems, there was little evidence to show that keeping a TAJ could be of much use to her. There was also little evidence from the interview and questionnaire data to show that she had taken actions to find solutions to the problems she listed in her TAJ. In comparison, a sophisticated, analytic, reflective

writing style could be consistently observed in both Subject K's diary (an example, see 5.2.1.2.3.) and TAJ. The following passage was extracted from one of her TAJ entries.

I struggled whether I should translate the whole sentence “And disregard for authority is encoded in English DNA” literally or change a way to express the same meaning without mentioning the DNA. [...] I thought about [translating it as] “British people have rebellious blood and inherently disregard for authority¹⁸”, but the tone might be too strong and negative. Then another choice is “inherent nature of disregard for the government is like being coded in British people's DNA¹⁹”. In this case, the metaphor might be understandable to target readers, but it reads a bit awkward because we [Chinese] seldom express it in this way. Therefore, I chose to translate it in a more conservative way as “disregard for the government is inherent in the British nature²⁰”.

Subject K first discussed whether to keep the metaphor “DNA” in her Chinese translation, and then justified her decision based on balancing the readers' response and translation fluency. Such balancing was important because it showed that Subject K made her decision based on the linguistic meaning of words but also considered translation from a wider range of perspectives (e.g. culture, readership). However, it is noteworthy that her balancing still favoured her pre-existing schemes. There was no evidence to show that there was a change in her meaning schemes or perspectives. This finding was consistent with that of the Diary-learning mode.

According to the literature on reflective thinking, if autonomous learning is to occur, then reflective thinking is an essential element (Little, 1991) and there needs to be a change or improvement in one's meaning schemes or perspectives (Mezirow, 1995).

¹⁸ Back translation of “英國人流著叛逆的血液,天生就漠視政府”.

¹⁹ Back translation of “漠視政府的天性就像被編碼在英國人的DNA上”.

²⁰ Back translation of “漠視政府是英國人與生俱來的天性”.

It can be inferred that Subject K would need to have thought even more deeply in order to learn from these experiences.

6.2.3. Change in Level of Individual Reflection

The analysis of the TAJs revealed that the subjects tended to maintain similar levels of sophistication in the analysis of their own translating process and a similar reflective style of writing, as shown in the previous section. A comparison between the same subjects' diary and TAJ found that most subjects presented had similar levels of reflection in both of their diary and TAJ; however, subjects D and R had much more reflective descriptions in the diary-learning mode than in the TA-learning mode. This may be due to the influence of the listening activity, as reflected in Subjects D's and R's post-mode interview:

Subject D: When I was writing my learning journal, I didn't find new problems. I didn't come up with new ideas about what to do next time. [...] I just wrote down faithfully what I heard from my recordings.

When I was writing my diary, I wrote down what was in my mind. I would think about my problems

Subject R: Diary is like a summary of my problems. It tells me what kinds of problems I have, not detailed problems. Sometimes I would summarise. I think thinking itself is a strategy of learning.

When I was writing my think-aloud journal, I didn't find new problems. When I was listening to my recording and writing my journal, I simply recorded what I heard.

It appears that, for the two subjects, listening to their own TA recordings had hindered their reflection and made their TAJ-writing similar to bookkeeping, resulting in

reportive TAJs.

* * * * *

The above analyses and findings from the TA-learning mode and those from the Diary-learning mode (Chapter Five) showed that, as individual learning activities, both of the learning modes have the strengths of raising students' awareness of their own translation problems. However, it was found that whether such awareness leads to autonomous actions depends at least partly on motivational factors, such as perceived competence and controllability. The data analysis also showed that deeper levels of reflection (e.g. premise reflection) have the potential to help translation students to identify their own problems and improve their problem-solving process, but such reflection would require attainment of disciplinary knowledge so that they can look at translation or translating from new perspectives.

Since small group discussion is much more frequently used in the translation classroom than diary and think-aloud, it will be important to explore whether it shares the same advantages that the two individual learning activities provide for students or it can complement the weaknesses of the two learning activities.

Chapter 7

The Small Group Discussion Learning Mode

7. THE SGD LEARNING MODE

Fifteen students participated in the small group discussion (SGD) learning mode. Twelve were first-year and three were second-year students. The 12 first-year students were divided randomly into four groups of three and the 3 second-year students formed another group.

Each group of subjects met three times (after they translated each of the three texts from English into Chinese) for discussion without tutors. The groups set their own learning pace and discussed whatever they wanted without time limits. A set of guidelines (Appendix G) was provided but only as reference. Their discussions were audio taped for analysis. Interviews and questionnaires were administered after they completed all of the three rounds of discussion. For personal reasons, one first-year student neither completed the questionnaire nor took part in the interview.

The following sections will first present the subjects' perceptions of the SGD learning mode, followed by patterns emerged from the analysis of the transcripts of the recordings of the discussion.

7.1. Perceptions of SGD

The analysis of the interview and questionnaire data revealed that the subjects generally perceived SGD as an effective and efficient learning activity. Their perceptions of its strengths and weaknesses were quite similar. SGD also seemed to have an influence on their translation quality.

7.1.1. Strengths

According to the subjects, SGD encouraged mutual learning, providing a milieu where they could appreciate each other's translations, exchange views, find solutions, and identify their own translation problems and blind spots. These findings are all consistent with the findings of current research on group learning (cf. 2.1.3.3.) They also reported experiencing positive feelings in SGD and developing certain behaviours after the SGD-learning mode, such as marking difficult parts of the ST or writing down their tentative solutions in order to discuss them in the class or with peers.

7.1.1.1. Appreciation of Others' translation

All of the subjects reported having benefited from reading the other group members' translations. The analysis of the interview and questionnaire data revealed that comparing different translations raised the subjects' awareness of their own weaknesses and translation mistakes. For instance, after she read the other group members' translations one subject said she found that she used more colloquial expressions and was less skilful in handling certain sentence patterns than her SGD partners. She talked about feeling shocked at this finding, *"I used to know my grammar was weak but it was not until I compared my work [translation] with the others that I found I was really weak. I found the way I analysed a sentence was completely different from the others and grammatically wrong."*

Such an awareness-raising effect is seen as being of great educational value. Literature reviewed in Chapter Two indicated that awareness of one's own problem is the first step toward reflection, which in turn may lead to improvement in learning. The analyses in the previous chapters have showed that the diary- and TA-learning mode

also had awareness-raising effects.

7.1.1.2. Exchange of Views

The subjects generally reported feeling that listening to others' views in the SGD was very helpful. One subject remarked, *“we tend to be subject to our own way of thinking. It could be extremely helpful to hear others' views which can make me re-think my translation...or change my way of translating a text. [...] Sometimes there might be arguments, but at least it [the SGD] provided me with a chance to step outside the box and think about how I could improve my translation.”*

The subjects reported that their exchange of views focused mainly on the differences in translation technique, translation strategy, and interpretation of the ST, that they had noticed when reading each others' translation or during the discussion.

Different Translation Techniques

Nearly all the subjects said that SGD provided them with a platform where they could discuss and learn from others' translation techniques, including how to select appropriate wording and register and how to re-structure sentence segments. For example, one subject reported having learned from the way one of her SGD partners transferred an English pun into a corresponding Chinese one. She said that she had previously only conveyed the meaning of the pun, having been unable to create an equivalent Chinese pun.

Different Translation Strategies

According to the subjects, translation strategy was another main topic on which they exchanged views. It appeared that comparison of different strategies had raised the

subjects' awareness of their own weaknesses. One subject provided a good example. She recalled noticing that one of her SGD partners tended to adopt British informants' interpretation of the source text and argued strongly for such interpretation. The subject reflected on this in the interview,

they [her SGD partners] would find more informants to help them with their translation tasks than I would...so they could gain some insights from those foreigners. I tend not to do so. Therefore my thoughts might be limited by the information I found...translate based on my own understanding...This made me feel their translation might be right and mine be wrong though informants' explanations do not necessarily have higher credibility. Anyway, listening to more opinions does no harm and might help me to improve.

Different Interpretations of the ST

All the subjects reported that they had benefited from discussing different interpretations of the source text because it helped them to think about the reasons why one would choose one rendition instead of another. This seemed to cause some of them to reflect on translation in a wider context. One subject remarked on this, "*I found, for the same sentences, translators would have different explanations and interpretations. But I think there should be only one explanation, that is, the author's intention. An author should not want to confuse his readers, such as this author's descriptions of the two different political standpoints. I think we had different interpretations, that's because of our lack of background knowledge of these events.*" It was apparent that this subject had become aware of the importance of extra-linguistic knowledge so that the translator can understand the author's intentions (cf. Munday, 2001, see also 2.1.1.4.).

Some subjects also said that discussing different interpretations of the source text sometimes had helped generate new ideas, particularly when a conclusion or

agreement could not be reached. Those different interpretations of the same text would later be found in the analysis of the subjects' SGD transcript provided a starting point to reflect on their own meaning schemes and even perspectives.

7.1.1.3. Identification of Translation Problems and Blind Spots

Most of the subjects reported that SGD had helped them identify their translation mistakes and problems as well as blind spots. For example, one subject reported that it was not until one of her SGD partners attached great importance to the logic in the source text and the relationship between sentences that she started to pay attention to these aspects as well.

Another subject even said that the way in which SGD had benefited her most was that it had helped her to see the importance, to the correctness of her translation, of connectors and personal pronouns. She stated that this finding had greatly influenced how she handled her later translations.

SGD also seemed able to heighten the subjects' awareness of their own translation problems and difficulties. For instance, one subject said she had to pay more attention to the types of problems she had encountered during translation in order to raise them in SGD. All the subjects reported that they had marked difficult parts of the ST or written down their tentative solutions in order to discuss them in the SGD.

7.1.1.4. Immediate Provision of Solutions

Nearly all of the subjects said SGD had helped them clarify confusions and find solutions to their translation problems. Furthermore, the provision of solutions was perceived as fast and efficient, as one subject remarked, "*if I had translation problems*

during translating, I could find solutions in the discussion. We could also solve the problems we found during discussion immediately.”

7.1.1.5. Generation of Positive Feelings

SGD appeared to have eased some of the subjects' frustration resulting from doing translation. One of the subjects reported that, when she and her SGD partners were sharing ideas about how they tackled a translation problem, she felt a sense of empathy towards the others because they had experienced similar confusions and struggles during translating. She concluded, *“a person who has never translated before would not understand this feeling.”* This is similar to González Davies' argument that “positive team work – in which each member of the team strives towards attaining the best collective performance – can contribute to reduce peer pressure, improve communicative and social skills, bridge linguistic and cultural diversity, and increase group cohesion, thus resulting in more effective learning” (2004, p.13).

Some of the subjects reported feeling a sense of achievement when being complimented by their SGD partners on their translations.

7.1.2 Weaknesses

Although nearly all the subjects perceived SGD as a useful learning activity, there were also comments that pointed to its weaknesses.

7.1.2.1. Lack of Conclusion

According to most of the subjects, a lack of conclusion was the biggest weakness of this learning mode. For example, one subject said that sometimes there were *“too many different voices”* in her group, which made her group feel lost. She said they

could not get the correct meaning of the source text because they could not decide whose interpretation was correct.

In addition to the lack of conclusions, subjects also reported worrying about the correctness the conclusions they had reached. As one of them said, after all, *“we were still students, not experienced professionals yet.”*

7.1.2.2. Negative Feelings

Some subjects reported having felt frustrated or having sensed their SGD partners' frustration after SGD because they could not find conclusive answers. Some of the subjects reported feeling pressured before going to the SGD. For instance, one of them admitted that she felt reluctant to go to the SGD because she felt her translation quality was inferior to her SGD partners. She said, *“I still forced myself to go because I wanted to learn from them.”* According to this subject's SGD partners, this subject distanced herself from them after the SGD-learning mode. One of her SGD partners said in the interview, *“we used to be close friends but after experiencing the discussion learning mode in your research and, of course, the discussion in our translation class, I feel that we are not that close anymore.”*

7.1.3. Influence on Translation Quality

In addition to the strengths and weaknesses presented above, the data analysis revealed that SGD seemed to have influenced the subjects' translation quality in two contrasting ways. Around one-third of the subjects reported feeling that it was less necessary to generate best translation that they could because they might get better solutions from their SGD partners. One subject said, *“I tried not to spend too much time on the translation because I didn't have to hand in a perfect piece of work, and I would expect*

others to give me comments or provide solutions to my translation problems.”

Another subject compared the efforts she made for homework with that she made for the SGD-learning mode, saying that her translation in this learning mode was not the best she could have achieved because *“I hoped SGD could help me find a better translation...I would list all possible renditions but would not try to think of a better one. If the translation is done as homework, I will make every effort to think of a method or strategy to produce a translation as best as I can.”*²¹ Therefore, it appeared that, SGD, as an autonomous learning method, in some cases, could reduce students’ motivation to improve their own translation quality.

However, around one-third of the subjects reported that SGD had encouraged them to generate a good translation. This might be attributed to a sense of honour and fear of losing face. As one of the subjects explained, *“as long as I realize that I am going to show my translation to others, I will make every effort to generate a best translation.”* Another said that she would try to do better because she attached great importance to honour.

7.1.4. Group Dynamics

In addition to the above strengths and weaknesses, group dynamics was perceived by the subjects as having influenced the effectiveness of their SGD. The analysis of the interview data identified three main factors to which the subjects attached great importance.

²¹ Translated from an interview extract: “...等一下要討論,我會把可能性都列出來,但不會硬要自己去想一個更好的,但若要交作業,我可能就會拚命去想說,思考方式什麼,但若等一下大家可以討論...當時的譯文不會做得很好。”

7.1.4.1. Communication Skills

According to the subjects, poor communication skills compromised the effectiveness of SGD. As one subject stated in the interview, "I don't know whether it's because that sentence or concept was too complicated for me, I sometimes felt the others could not understand me. I couldn't understand their logic as well." She identified this as one reason why her group sometimes could not reach a conclusion.

Some subjects expressed the concern that poor communication skills, such as impatient or over assertive attitudes, sometimes caused uneasiness in their SGD group, particularly when one member held fast to his or her opinion and would not accept others' views.

7.1.4.2. Group Composition

From the analysis of the interview data, translation competence and personality were regarded by the subjects as two main factors they would consider when forming a small discussion group. All the subjects said that they would prefer doing SGD with someone who had superior translation competence. One subject claimed that "*when doing SGD with someone with inferior translation competence, most of the time you can only explain why you do this or that...this could heighten your awareness of your translation process but actually you can not learn much.*"

Some subjects reported that they would learn less if their SGD partners were passive, did not want to raise questions or were unwilling to share ideas. Analysis of the interview data identified two reasons why a SGD partner was perceived as passive. Sometimes it was because they had a passive personality; however, sometimes the reason was that SGD partners felt that they had inferior translation competence and,

thus, were forced to be passive.

7.2. Analysis of SGD Transcripts

Each of the five SGD groups had three discussions, which were all audio-recorded, transcribed and then coded based on the principles of the grounded theory (see Chapter Three). The analysis of the SGD transcripts revealed that the effect of SGD was mostly triggered by inter-personal communication and was evident in three main aspects: awareness-raising (7.2.1.), problem-solving (7.2.2.) and reflective thinking (7.2.3.). In problem-solving, two distinct types of scenarios emerged: **teacher-student** and **equal-partner**, which were found to have important influence on the subjects' autonomous learning and reflective thinking. The two terms were used by some of the subjects in their post-mode interviews to describe how they had felt in the SGD.

7.2.1. Awareness-raising Effect

The analysis of the discussion transcripts showed that the awareness-raising effect had persisted throughout the SGD. All the five groups started by reading one another's translation, a process that showed an important awareness-raising effect, particularly the awareness of one's own translation problems or differences between one's own and others' translations. For instance, the subjects often said, after reading the others' translations, "*I didn't notice that. I may have translated it incorrectly*". Such awareness of possible mistakes and differences in translation often led to discussion. For instance, one subject said, "*your interpretation is different from mine, I think we need to discuss this later.*"

However, the analysis also showed that the subjects' awareness centred on

translation (the product) rather than the translating process. Most of their discussion revolved around the linguistic meaning of a word, sentence or paragraph rather than how it was translated. This was consistent with the finding of the analysis of the post-mode interviews. When asked what the purpose of their discussion had been, most of the subjects' answers were similar to *"finding correct meaning"* or *"better equivalents or translations"*.

Although the translating process was suggested as a discussion topic in the Guidelines for the SGD-learning mode, only one SGD group discussed it briefly at the end of each of their three discussions. In comparison, the subjects, who did the Diary- and TA-learning mode, focused mainly on their own translating process, and that focus was found to be partly due to the Guidelines provided to them (see Chapters Five and Six).

However, the analysis of the SGD data showed that, when the subjects did become aware of their translating process problems or good translation strategies, those experiences tended to stand out and were reported in their post-mode questionnaires or interviews. For example, one subject said, *"I remember clearly. After one discussion, I became aware that I often neglected the relationship between sentences when translating"*. The pun example (in 7.1.1.2.) was another such experience.

7.2.2. Problem-solving

When asked to compare SGD with either DA- or TA-learning modes, most SGD subjects reported that the SGD-learning mode had the advantages of providing solutions but also had the disadvantage of the lack of conclusions. The analysis of the SGD transcripts showed that whether solutions and conclusions were reached was

greatly influenced by group dynamics (cf. Dörnyei and Murphey, 2003).

The SGD analysis identified two distinct types of scenario: **teacher-student** and **equal-partner**. In the teacher-student scenario, one subject asked a question about a translation problem or a difficult part of the source text like a student, and then the other(s) played the role of an answer-giving teacher. In the equal-partner scenario, all the three SGD partners discussed their problems on an equal footing. The total numbers of teacher-student and equal-partner scenarios that each SGD group had in their SGD-learning mode are presented in Table 7-1.

Table 7-1 Numbers of Teacher-student and Equal-partner Scenarios of SGD Group

No. Group	(A)	(B)	(C)	(D)	(E)	(F)	(G)	(H)	(I)
	Overall			Teacher-student	Perceived as Solved	Effective Solution	Equal-partner	Perceived as Solved	Effective Solution
	Pro-blems	Perceived as Solved	Effective Solution						
		(%= B/A)	(%= C/B)	(%= D/A)	(%= E/D)	(%= F/E)	(= A-D)	(%= H/G)	(%= I/H)
1	19	13	11	14	12	11	5	1	0
		68%	85%	74%	86%	92%	26%	20%	0
2	54	26	21	5	4	3	49	22	18
		48%	81%	9%	80%	75%	91%	45%	82%
3	47	27	21	28	25	19	19	2	2
		57%	78%	60%	89%	76%	40%	11%	100%
4	65	14	14	4	4	4	61	10	10
		22%	100%	6%	100%	100%	94%	16%	100%
5	48	22	22	7	6	6	41	16	16
		46%	100%	15%	100%	100%	85%	29%	100%

For instance, Group 1 raised a total of 19 questions - that is, 19 translation problems - in their SGDs (Column-A). Thirteen (Column-B) of them were perceived by the group

as solved, but a comparison with the teachers' comments showed that only 11 solutions (Column-C) were effective. Of the 19 questions, 14 were discussed in the teacher-student scenario (Column-D), and 5 were in the equal-partner scenario (Column-G).

From Table 7-1, it was evident that all five groups had both teacher-student and equal-partner scenarios but each group had a majority of one type of scenario. The analyses of the two types of scenario are presented in the following subsections.

7.2.2.1. Teacher-student Scenarios

The analysis of the interview data showed that most of the subjects were in favour of this type of scenario. The most frequently reported reason was that they felt their translation problems were solved efficiently and effectively. As presented in Column E of Table 7-1, all the five SGD groups perceived most of their problems as solved in this mode (86%, 80%, 89%, 100% and 100% respectively) but the risk was that some of their solutions were not effective (see Risk below).

Effectiveness and Efficiency

The analysis of the SGD transcripts found that most of the questions discussed in this type of scenario were about the semantic meanings or linguistic structures of the source texts. Those who had the linguistic knowledge to answer these questions played the role of the *teacher*, directly delivering knowledge to their SGD partners. This was, perhaps, the reason most of the subjects who were in favour of this type of scenario, said that their "*problems were solved very effectively and efficiently*", as in the following example.

Example 7.1.:

*The source sentence (Appendix A -- source text 3): lower-level disorders
Group 1 (Subjects A, E and J) (After reading one another's translation)*

Subject E: I didn't know what the "lower-level disorders" means.

Subject A: Meaning "mild", "not too severe".

Subject J: Yes. Disorder means psychological disorder.

Subject E: Yes, yes, yes. I mistook the "disorder" as referring to the criminal.

Then the three subjects moved on to discuss their next problem. It was apparent that this problem raised by Subject E was solved effectively and efficiently.

The analysis of the time each group used in discussion was consistent with this. As presented in Table 7-2, Groups 1 and 3, which had higher percentages of teacher-student scenarios, had the shorter average discussion times, 20 and 18 minutes respectively, than the other three groups.

Table 7-2 Discussion Time of Each SGD Group

Discussion Time (min) Group	1 st	2 nd	3 rd	Avg.
1	17	18	24	20
2	38	51	41	43
3	20	21	14	18
4	30	36	37	34
5	43	39	43	42

Risk

As shown in Table 7-1, Groups 1 and 3 had higher percentages of teacher-student scenarios (74% and 60% respectively, in Column-D) and perceived higher percentages of their problems as solved (68% and 57%) than the other groups. This is

perhaps not surprising, since both of the groups had teacher-type subjects to deliver knowledge or give answers to their SGD partners. What was noteworthy was that Groups 1 and 3 did not have higher percentages of effective solutions than the other groups. (All the subjects' translations were assessed by the researcher and the other two raters to see if their solutions were effective. See 3.2.3. for this.) In contrast, Groups 4 and 5 had very low percentages of teacher-student scenarios (6% and 15% respectively) and perceived only 22% and 46% (Column-B) of their problems as solved, but the solutions or conclusions they reached were all effective (both 100%, in Column-C). These findings imply that even though students feel SGD can help to solve translation problems, the solutions may not be effective.

Furthermore, the analysis of the SGD transcripts showed that such ineffective solutions and their discussion may distort students' meaning schemes or even perspectives. An example is provided below.

Example 7.2.:

The source sentence (Appendix A -- Source Text-4): The fact that he (a journalist) actually broke a story of international significance did not matter: editorial heads roll faster if it can be proved that they publish lies.

Group 3 (Subjects H, P and T) found they translated "editorial heads roll fast" differently and started to discuss its meaning.

Subject H said it meant "他们至少会学聪明一点 (back translation: they (these editors) become smarter)" and explained that it was because Chinese people would say "a person's brain rolls fast", meaning he is smart.

Subject P translated the same part as "编辑们的工作将会不保 (the editors might lose their job faster)" and said she derived this meaning based on the context of the source text. Her interpretation was actually appropriate but

she accepted Subject H's explanation.

Subject T translated the same part as “編輯首長們禁食抗議 (the editors went on a fast to protest)”. She knew her translation was not correct and accepted Subject H's explanation right away.

In the post-mode interviews, Subjects P and T were asked why they accepted Subject H's translation and explanation. Subject P said that “*she (Subject H) sounded very persuasive and her explanation was not without a sort of logic.*” Subject T said that “*she sounded persuasive, and she usually gets positive comments from the teacher on her translation assignments. Her explanation must be correct*”. When asked if they would adopt Subject H's explanation if later they were to translate the same phrase, they both stated that there was no reason not to. (The interview took place around 1.5 months after they had done this translation.)

It was apparent, in the above example, that Subject H was *the authority* of this trio group, telling the other two what she believed was the meaning of the problematic phrase. She had a distorted meaning scheme that made her believe that Chinese- and English-speaking people use the same metaphor to describe situations, at least the situation described in this phrase. This belief was so deeply rooted in her linguistic presupposition that she was able to voice her explanation so persuasively that her two SGD partners accepted her explanation. Subject H was similar to the Organiser that Kiraly (2000) identified (see, 2.1.3.3.) because she disempowered her SGD partners and limited the potential of the group to reach an appropriate interpretation.

Subject P's strategy for understanding the problematic phrase was right and gave the right solution, implying that she had had an effective meaning scheme through which she could find her own answer to the problematic phrase. However, due to Subject H,

her effective meaning scheme became distorted, which influenced her for at least 1.5 months and perhaps even longer. Subject T apparently uncritically assimilated Subject H's distorted meaning scheme to herself. This is perhaps because she perceives Subject H to be more competent than herself.

It was evident that the two teacher-student scenarios described above had features of a transmissionist translation classroom (cf. Kiraly, 2000), where knowledge flows from the teacher type to the student type. In such a scenario, students can get answers or solutions quicker if they believe what is provided by the authority figure is correct.

However, it is exactly due to the uncritical assimilation that the student type does not see the experience as problematic, so they would not strive to re-construct its meaning and hence would not critically reflect on their premise. The distorted meaning scheme may become permanent and lead to translation problems in the future.

7.2.2.2. Equal-partner Scenarios

The analysis of the interview and questionnaire data showed that most of the subjects perceived a lack of conclusion as one of the main weaknesses of the SGD-learning mode. As presented in Column H of Table 7-1, all the five SGD groups perceived fewer than half of the problems discussed in equal-partner scenarios as solved. However, interestingly, mostly of the solutions or conclusions reached in this type of scenario were actually effective, as presented in Column I of Table 7-1. Although it cannot be conclusively shown that equal-partner scenarios generate more effective solutions than the teacher-student scenarios, the analysis of their SGD transcripts showed that students may experience higher levels of reflection in this type of scenario. Such experience mainly occurred during discussion, as in Example 7.3. or

after the SGD, as in Example 7.4.

Example 7.3.:

The source sentence (Appendix A – Source Text-1): And too often it obscures a critical fact: that the vast majority of Europe's 15-20 million Muslims have nothing to do with radical Islamism and are struggling hard to fit in, not opt out.

Group 1 (Subjects A, E and J) was discussing Subject D's translation of the phrase "not opt out":

Subject A's translation: 他們努力地想要融入歐洲社會，不讓自己邊緣化 (Literal back translation: They try hard to integrate into the European society, not to let themselves marginalized.)

Subject E: ...marginalized...sounds that they are seriously rejected by the European society.

Subject J: It says they try to "fit in, not opt out", so I feel this choice is made actively, not passively.

Subject E: (thinking silently)...I think you are right.

Subject J: We usually use "邊緣化" (marginalized) to describe people who are from lower social classes. But I think there is a difference between radicals and people from lower social classes.

Subject A: Being marginalized doesn't necessarily mean that the person is from a lower social class. It only means that the person is not in the main stream of the society. He doesn't have to be a poor man. If a person who believes in a religion that is not in the main stream, we can also say the person is marginalized, I mean, not in the main stream."

Subject J: ...(thinking silently)...my question now is how we (the Chinese people) use the term "邊緣化" (marginalized)."

Group 1 did not reach any conclusion in this equal-partner scenario. After 1.5 months when they were interviewed and asked about this phrase, all the members of this group remembered what they had discussed and how they were influenced by experience.

Subject E said she found through this experience that she had only paid attention to *“the surface meaning of an English phrase without thinking about whether it was used actively or passively in the textual context. Now I knew it should be considered when doing translation.”* It was evident that this experience has raised her awareness of one aspect in translating to which she should pay attention.

Subject A said she still felt her translation of “not opt out” was *“acceptable, but in the future I would pay more attention to how my translation may be understood by the reader.”* It was evident that this experience heightened Subject A’s awareness of the reader’s response, enabling her to view how translation should be done from a broader social perspective.

When interviewed, Subject J showed the highest level of reflection in this group. She reported that *“I started to think about why we had different interpretations of the Chinese phrase ‘邊緣化’ (marginalized), even though we are all Chinese, and how it is used by the general Chinese. Is my interpretation of it correct? I asked others and found it should be correct.”* Obviously Subject J questioned her own old belief about the usage of the Chinese term ‘邊緣化’ (marginalized), took action to see if her interpretation was correct, and validate the meaning scheme she had used to view the problem.

Sometimes no reflective thinking occurred during the SGD but they said so after they had completed their SGDs and looked back on their experience of SGDs. For example, Group 5 had several equal-partner scenarios in their three SGDs. In several of these scenarios, they had encountered problems for which they could not reach a conclusion. The main reason was that they felt their own interpretation was correct, as in Example 7.4.

Example 7.4.:

The source sentence (Appendix A – Source Text-5): Now the government is arguing that by subjecting detainees to such treatment, the CIA gives them “top secret” classified information – and the government can then take extraordinary measures to keep them quiet about it.

Group 5 (Subjects O, U and V) was discussing how they interpreted this sentence:

Subject O: ...based on common sense, it should be the CIA gave them [the detainees] top secret for exchange of their keeping quiet.

Subject V: ...based on common sense, it should be the government, not the detainees, got top secret through interrogation.

Subject U: I think we should just translate what the sentence says.

At the end of the SGD-learning mode, the three subjects had the following conversation:

Subject V: I found, when the author's logics are different from yours, the text is usually difficult to translate.

Subject O: Yes.

Subject V: Maybe we had interpreted his meaning correctly but how come I feel that it's quite different from our own common sense.

Subject U: I think his meaning is understandable but the problem is how should we translate it?

[Thinking silently.]

Subject V: Have you found that? We would interpret the same text based on our own logics.

Subject O: Right. And you will interpret and translate it based on your own concept.

Subject V: Yes, you read the text based on your own concept, that may not be the author's. I think we have different interpretations. That's because we look at the text from our own logic...from the background we come from... and the beliefs we have had.

Subject O: And that often lead to mistranslation.

Subject V: Yes, when you interpret it based on your own logic, you feel that your interpretation is correct. But actually, it is because it is within your own

way of thinking.

It was evident that this group started to question their premise of doing translation, that is, interpreting the text based on their own concepts or perspectives. Although they did not reach a conclusion, such reflection proved to be very rewarding. As Subject V later said in the post-mode interview, *“This is perhaps the most important thing I learned from the SGD-learning mode.”*

It was evident that these two equal-partner scenarios were more conducive to the subjects’ learning than the previous two teacher-student scenarios. In an equal-partner scenario, when students find a problem due to different or conflicting interpretations of the problem, the awareness of such a problem is likely to lead them to inquire into their own meaning schemes or even perspectives, which in turn helps them to find ways to negate, validate or modify their prior meaning schemes or perspectives. As a result, they learned from this experience.

Risk

The analysis of the SGD transcripts showed that, useful as they are, the equal-partner scenarios had pitfalls, particularly when the SGD members did not base their discussions on disciplinary knowledge but instead on anecdotal information.

Example 7.5.:

The source sentence (Appendix A -- Source Text 5): Mr. Khan was one of the al-Qaeda suspects who was detained in a secret prison of the CIA and subjected to “alternative” interrogation tactics.

Group 4: (Subjects B, S and X)

Subject S: I read a news article, which says they used 16 methods to torture people, so I think it [“alternative”] means “a variety of”, not one of two methods.

Subject X: I think it means “special” because I read in the Internet that they used

“special” method to interrogate them.

Subject B: I think it means torture. It is just that the author uses this word [“alternative”] to make it sound nicer.

It was apparent that this group discussed how to translate the word “alternative” based on unverified on-line information. They did not reach a conclusion for a better Chinese equivalent of “alternative”. There was no evidence that they had learned from this experience. Such discussion was not reflective at all.

From the above examples, it is also evident that how much students learn from their SGD experience relies heavily on the level of reflection in the SGD. The more critical their reflection or reflective thinking is, the more possible it is for them to find their prior problematic concepts or practice, and then the deeper they can dig into their uncritically assimilated “tacit” concepts and make them more explicit to self. Such self-illumination can make one become more autonomous in finding good translation practices.

7.2.3. Subject Types and Reflective Levels

The analysis of the SGD transcripts identified three main SGD types of subjects, i.e. teacher-type, student-type and equal-partner-type, depending on the role they played in their SGD discussions. It was found that the subjects remained the same type throughout their three discussions.

In order to find the relationship between the three SGD types and their levels of reflection, their answers in Part 1 of Questionnaire D (Appendix B) were analysed using ANOVA tests. The subjects’ score on each of the four reflective scales (habitual action, understanding, reflection, critical reflection) was calculated by adding together

their scores for the four items under each scale (see 3.2.2.). The higher a subject's score on a scale was, the more the subject was at that reflective level. Table 7-3 shows the means of the three types of subjects' scores (teacher-, student- and equal-partner type) on each scale. Statistical comparison revealed that only two significant differences existed: between the teacher-type ($Mean = 8.33$) and the student-type ($Mean = 14.67, p = .017 < .05$) and between the teacher-type and the equal-partner type ($Mean = 14.13, p = .009 < .01$), and in both cases only on the scale of Critical Reflection.

Table 7-3 SGD Types and Levels of Reflection

Level of Reflect ion Subject Type	Habitual action	Under- standing	Reflection	Critical Reflection
Teacher-type	8.67	14	14	8.33
Student-type	11.33	14.33	18.33	14.67
Equal-partner type	10.00	13.38	16.25	14.13

These results showed that all the three types generally agreed that doing translation tasks involved habitual actions, and required understanding about translation concepts and reflection. However, the teacher type reported a significantly lower level of critical reflection than the student- and the equal-partner-types.

These results are consistent with the findings of the analysis of the SGD transcripts. As information and knowledge receivers (e.g. Subject E in Example 7.1.), the student type's meaning schemes and perspectives are more open to change. Increases in knowledge may make individual student-types feel that they get answers or solutions from participating in SGD and hence believe that SGD is a useful learning method.

However, it was noteworthy that some of the student-type subjects said in the post-mode interview that they sometimes felt embarrassed being “a student” in their SGD group, as the example described in 7.1.2.2. Therefore, whether the student type would continue to use this learning mode may be decided by the result of the tension between negative feelings and the desire for an increase in translation knowledge and competence.

In comparison, the teacher types (e.g. Subjects A & J in Example 7.1.) only give information and knowledge based on their pre-existing meaning schemes and perspectives and hence have less opportunity to change. Analysis of the post-mode interviews also showed that whether the teacher type would continue to use SGD would be partly decided by whether they were willing to be *a teacher* in the SGD. For instance, one teacher-type subject often kept quiet in her SGD unless she felt she needed to say something. She said in the interview, “*it seemed that what I gave was more than what I took. I am not saying I didn't learn from discussion. It is just that sometimes I feel it is a waste of time for me.*” It appears that when a student expects to be a learner but has to play an unexpected role then the conflict of expectations can result in frustration and boredom.

The result that the equal-partner-type subjects perceived higher level of critical reflection than the teacher-type ones (14.13>8.33, Table 7-3) was consistent with the findings of the analysis of the SGD transcripts, as presented in Examples 7.3. and 7.4. Most of the equal-partner-type subjects reported in the post-mode interviews that they questioned their own and others' views a lot during the discussion, and the discussions helped them to think more about how they completed their translations and how translations should be done. Most reported that they felt satisfied with discussion as a learning mode. Their major complaint was that most of the time they

could not reach consensus on problems or questions, and were left more confused than they had been before the discussions.

However, it seemed that it was the situation of not being able to find solutions that had helped them reach a higher level of reflective learning. They seemed to be able to look at translating from a broader context, not just regarding translating as an action of language transfer. For instance, one of the subjects reported,

I feel discussion changed some of my old habits in translating...I seldom thought about my translating problems or what improvements can be made to some of the problematic sentences in my translation. However, after discussion, I started to think about solutions and questions at deeper levels.

It is apparent that taking the initiative to think about one's own translation practice demonstrate self-empowerment, meaning that the person is assuming responsibility for their learning, an action much emphasised in the literature of autonomous learning (cf. Benson, 2001).

Chapter Eight

Discussion

8. DISCUSSION

The present study investigated how learner-centred, process-oriented learning activities may influence trainee translators' autonomous learning and reflective learning. Specifically, it focused on three learning activities, i.e. diary, think-aloud (TA) and small group discussion (SGD), which have been claimed to be able to develop autonomous, reflective translators.

As expected, the present study found that each of the three learning activities has its unique strengths and weaknesses but they also share common grounds. It also found that they can provide a learning environment that facilitates students' autonomous and reflective learning, but whether individual students can benefit from it depends on several factors, including their reflective thinking ability, motivation, previous learning experience and group dynamics in the case of SGD. All these findings and their implications for translation pedagogy are discussed in 8.1.

Although the present study has yielded findings that have important pedagogical implications, as with all research, it is not without limitations. Its limitations revolve around aspects of research design and generalisation of research findings (8.2).

8.1. Comparison of the Three Learning Activities

The previous three chapters have reported the data analyses of the Diary, TA and SGD learning activities. It is apparent that they each have unique features but also share commonality. For the purpose of comparison and discussion below, their main strengths and weaknesses perceived by the subjects participating in the present study

are summarised in Table 8-1

Table 8-1 Comparison between Diary, TA and SGD

Features		DIARY	TA	SGD
(1)	Reflection	√	√	√
(2)	Awareness-raising	√	√	√
(3)	Translation quality	√	√X	√X
(4)	Affective reaction	√	√X	√X
(5)	Use as records	√	√	X
(6)	Procedural convenience	√	X	---
(7)	Translation speed	---	√X	---
(8)	Concentration on translating	---	√X	---
(9)	Appreciation of others' translation	X	X	√
(10)	Identification of problems unknown to self	X	X	√
(11)	Exchange of views/new perspectives	X	X	√
(12)	Immediate solution (or conclusion)	X	X	√X

*√ : having positive effect on a feature;

X: having negative effect on a feature;

√X: having both positive and negative effects on a feature, usually depending on individuals;

---: having no apparent effect on a feature.

As presented in Table 8-1, all the three learning activities can promote trainee translators' reflection, raise their awareness of different aspects of translation, and have a positive effect on their translation quality and affections, but the TA and SGD also have a negative effect on their translation quality and affective aspects (Features (1)~(4)). These are discussed together in 8.1.1. and 8.1.2. because they are closely related to one another.

It is apparent that the diary and TA learning activities both produce useful written records but the SGD does not (5) (see 8.1.3.). Features (6)-(8) are apparently more related to the TA-learning activity so they are discussed together in 8.1.4. The discussion is the only learning activity where students can appreciate one another's

translation, identify problems they did not know previously, exchange views and perspectives, and gain immediate solutions, but sometimes students cannot reach conclusions on solutions ((9)~(12)). All these differences and commonality are discussed in the following sections along with their implications for translators' training.

8.1.1. Promotion of Reflection

According to the analyses reported in the previous three chapters, diary, TA and SGD all have the effect of helping the subjects to have more reflection than they normally would have. This finding is generally consistent with previous research in adult learning and translator training (see 2.1.3.) but there are also some inconsistencies. In addition, it is worth emphasising that the term "reflection" used in this chapter is not equivalent to casual thinking, as the literature review of reflective learning has pointed out that reflection is a special type of thinking, which involves higher-orders of cognitive activities (see 2.4.).

8.1.1.1. Translating Process vs. Translation Products

The main difference among the three learning activities in promoting translation students' reflection is the focus to which they draw students' attention. The data analyses showed that the subjects who did the diary and TA learning modes mainly reflected on their translating processes rather than their translation products (i.e. translations), which, by contrast, are the focus of most reflection in the SGD groups.

Diary

The finding of this effect of the diary mode is consistent with Fox's research (2000), in

which she found that diary use encouraged her translation students to think critically and to reflect on their translating processes. However, the present study also found that this effect may be largely due to the provision of guidelines for keeping a learning diary. The interview data showed the subjects seldom thought about their translating processes before participating in the present study and reported they would not have thought about them had it not been for the guidelines. Therefore, it may be better, at least at the beginning of using diary as a learning activity, interventions, such as provision of guidelines or teachers' guidance, can help students to get started in diary writing (Moon, 1999).

TA

The finding of this effect of the TA-learning activity is generally consistent with Wakabayashi's study (2003), in which she also reported that her students reflected more on their translation process after doing the think-aloud task. However, the finding of the present study is slightly different from Wakabayashi's study. In the present study, it was found that this effect of the TA-learning activity is a natural result of thinking-aloud and listening to one's own TA-recordings and the provision of guidelines for keeping a TA learning journal. Wakabayashi's study (2003, p.76) found that the challenging nature of thinking aloud "precludes directing attention to explicit reflection" to the translation task. The difference between the two studies may be because Wakabayashi did not ask her translation students to listen to their own TA-recordings. Therefore, listening to one's own TA-recordings may be a decisive factor if TA is to be used as a translating process-oriented learning activity to promote individual students' reflection. In fact, Wakabayashi (ibid.) also suggests that students can learn from listening to their peers' TA-recordings.

SGD

Unlike doing the diary and TA activities, the SGD data analyses showed that the subjects mainly focused on their translations, at least in the beginning of discussion of a translation problem. This may be because they exchanged and appreciated each other's translations first and such actions focused their attention on their translations, particularly different meanings or interpretations presented in their translations. The provision of guidelines for small group discussion appeared to have very little effect on the subjects, unlike that in the diary and TA-learning modes.

In the teacher-student scenarios it was also found that differences between translations often led to the transmission of knowledge, resulting in little reflection on either translating processes or translation products in the SGD group, particularly for the teacher-type students (see 7.2.2.). In an equal-partner scenario, such differences often led to discussion of the meaning of the source text, sometimes resulting in deep individual and collective reflection. However, in both of the scenarios, reflection on translating processes (e.g. strategies, decision-making) was barely observed.

The above findings are in stark contrast with general beliefs about the effect of discussion in translator training (2.1.3.3.), particularly as a translating process-oriented learning activity (see 1.2.). It can be inferred from these findings that doing small group discussion does not necessarily lead to reflection in general or reflection on translating process specifically.

In addition, it is noteworthy that the SGD in the present study occurred in free-discussion groups, which were given no discussion topic or task. In comparison, task-based learning settings, as described by González Davies (2004) may have the

advantage of the provision of specific topics, which can direct students' thoughts towards certain areas. However, the provision of guidelines for the SGD appeared to have had little effect on directing the SGD groups' reflections. This may imply that more specific methods than the provision of guidelines, as provided to the subjects in the present study, may be required to direct students' reflection on their translating process in SGD. Methods such as specifying translating process as the topic for discussion or including it in the topics for discussion may be of value.

8.1.1.2. Quality of Reflection

The analyses of the subjects' diaries, TAJs and SGD transcripts showed that individual subjects' reflective level seldom changed, except in some equal-partner scenarios of SGD. They maintained a similar reflective style (i.e. reportive vs. reflective) in their diary and/or TAJ and played nearly the same role (i.e. teacher-type vs. student-type) in the teacher-student scenarios of their SGDs. It appears, therefore, that doing any of the three learning activities does not guarantee that trainee translators' reflective thinking ability will be improved.

Reflective Levels and Translation Perspectives

In addition, the analyses found that most subjects' reflective thinking ability was weak. This finding is consistent with previous research in reflective learning (see 2.4.). One main reason is that most students do not know how to reflect critically (e.g. Moon, 1999, 2004). Some previous TAP research and studies in translation pedagogy have found that most trainee translators' thinking or reflection focus on linguistic meaning (e.g. Livbjerg and Mees, 2003; Wakabayashi, 2003). The present study supports their finding by showing that most subjects reported how they derived linguistic meaning and they appeared to have only relied on a semantic frame of reference for meaning

(see 2.1.1.1~2.).

The analyses also found that some subjects showed higher levels of reflection in their diary and/or TAJ, providing reasons or justifications for their translation decisions -- representation of reflective thinking according to Hatton et al. (1995). Most of these subjects still based their reasons or justifications on a semantic frame of reference for meaning. However, a few presented a higher level of reflection by basing their reasons or justifications on both linguistic meaning, readers' response and/or requirement of journalist articles (see 5.2.1. and 6.2.1.); thus, indicating that their frame of reference of meaning comprises more than a single dimension: linguistic equivalence (2.1.1.1~2), dynamic equivalence (see 2.1.1.3.) and functionalist perspective (2.1.1.5.). According to the literature on reflective thinking (see 2.4.), the ability to reflect on the content of one's translation problems (i.e. meaning) and their problem-solving process (e.g. provision of justification based on readers' response) from multiple perspectives (e.g. linguistic and dynamic equivalence) is evidence of higher levels of reflection (see 2.4.).

Furthermore, previous TAP research suggested that weaker translators focus only on linguistic meaning while successful translators pay attention to both the contents of the ST and the readers' response (Jääskeläinen, 1990). Although the present study cannot conclude that the latter subjects had better translation quality because their translations were not assessed and compared with one another, the reasons they provided did make their translation decisions appear logical and justified.

The data analyses also found that a few SGD subjects presented the highest levels of reflection found in the present study (e.g. those in Example 7.4. of 7.2.2.2.). These

subjects reflected not only on the content and solving process of their translation problems but also on how their own belief systems might have influenced their interpretation of the source text and hence their translation. According to the literature on reflective thinking, this represents a possible change in their belief systems or meaning schemes or even meaning perspectives (Mezirow, 1991, 2000).

Although the present study did not find evidence that the subjects had ever considered the influence of cultural or translators' norms on their translating process and translation (a systemic perspective, see 2.1.1.6.), Fox's diary research (2000) did find that her students started to take on their role as translators in society and reflect on what translators should do.

From the above discussion, it is evident that trainee translators' level of reflective thinking is closely related with their frame of reference of meaning. It appears that the more perspectives their frame of reference of meaning accommodates, the deeper their reflective thinking can be. This implies that if the three learning activities are to play their full potential in developing students into reflective translators, the students need to have good quality of reflection: knowing what to reflect on, and how to reflect on it.

8.1.1.2.1. What to Reflect on

From the above discussion, it is apparent that those who have higher levels of reflective thinking usually considered their translation or translating process from a wider context or multiple perspectives, such as making their judgments based on readership, social and cultural issues rather than simply considering the linguistic meaning of the source text. All such consideration of perspectives reveals one's frame

of reference of meaning and hence theoretical position towards translating and translation (cf. Bartrina, 2005; see also 2.1.1.). For instance, those who only consider linguistic meaning reveal a theoretical position similar to contrastive analysis approaches (2.1.1.2.), whereas those who consider both linguistic meaning and readership may have a theoretical position closer to Nord's idea of dual "loyalty" (Nord, 2001, p.185).

This implies that translation theory, particularly with regard to different frames of reference for meaning, should be an integral element in translation students' reflective learning (cf. Baker, 1992; Bartrina, 2005). It is reasonable to say and the data analyses of the three learning activities support the view that, if students do not have a translation theory base for their reflective thinking, it is difficult for them to have deep reflection on their translating and translation. If they do not know that the meaning of a translation is not necessarily equivalent to the meaning of the source text because meaning may be influenced by social agents or the translator's interpretation, for example, it is unlikely they would consider such influences when making translation decisions.

Furthermore, according to the concept of subject-matter autonomy (Candy, 1988; Littlewood, 1996; see also 2.4.4.), the better a student masters his or her discipline-based knowledge (i.e. translation theory), the more autonomous the student is in his or her discipline. Therefore, it can be inferred that trainee translators who consider translation from a wider context or multiple perspectives are more likely to reflect well and make their decisions wisely with fewer restrictions, leading in turn to the development of autonomy.

8.1.1.2.1. How to Reflect

It is evident that if one has attained discipline-based knowledge but does not know how to reflect on it, one is unlikely to experience reflective learning. The data analyses showed that the subjects in the present study had generally not achieved critical reflection (Chapters Five~Seven). This was apparently due to a lack of the ability to think reflectively.

According to the literature on reflective thinking, one can reflect on the content of a problem or on one's problem-solving process. When such reflection results in a change in their meaning schemes (beliefs, e.g. a change in one's belief regarding the use of a Chinese word), the person is said to have experienced reflective learning. When one reflects on the premise of one's problem-solving process and, as a result, this premise is changed, one is said to have experienced critical reflective learning (e.g. change in the frame of reference of meaning in translation; see 2.4.).

The analyses of the present study showed that most of the subjects in the present study reflected on the content and problem-solving process of their translation problems, but there was little evidence that their meaning schemes had changed as a result. When students do not perceive such change, they may feel that they have not learned from the reflection. This may partly be the reason why some of the subjects who did the diary- and TA-learning modes in the present study reported that they perceived the learning modes they did were useful, but they could not feel their progress, except having done more translation practice.

In addition, when there is no change in their meaning schemes or perspectives, students may continue to make the same or similar mistakes due to a reliance on

existing meaning schemes or perspectives, which in turn may strengthen their feeling of a lack of progress. For instance, some of the subjects were so shackled by their distorted linguistic or translation beliefs (e.g. “red” means “good” in Chinese and such a concept is universal and can be applied to English) that they interpreted the source text inappropriately, made inappropriate translation decisions and even “transmitted” the distorted meaning schemes or perspectives to peers when in SGD.

In contrast, some subjects in the few equal-partner scenarios (e.g. those in Examples 7.3 and 7.4.) in the SGD-learning mode reported that they had experienced “important enlightenment”. This may be due to that, when thinking in a group, one’s attention is sometimes focused by group members on concepts or beliefs that one had not noticed before (Von Glasersfeld, 1995; see also 2.1.3.3.). As a result, students are more likely to feel that they have made progress.

From the above discussion, it is apparent that it is essential that trainee translators acquire reflective thinking skills. This would enable them to reflect deeply in learning settings (e.g. diary and TA) where there are no peers to provide new insights, and in situations where there is a possibility that their own meaning schemes or perspectives will be distorted by others (cf. Moon, 1999, 2004). This implies that trainee translators not only need to reflect on their translations (what) and translating process (how), but also on their premise about translation and translating (why), such as reflecting on the frame of reference of meaning they rely on to make translation judgments or decisions.

The importance of critical reflection, particularly that on one’s frame of reference of meaning, cannot be overstated in trainee translators’ reflective and autonomous

learning. According to the literature, only when one has the capacity to examine and free oneself from deeply ingrained beliefs can one be regarded as having true control over one's own learning and hence be regarded as an autonomous learner (cf. Habermas, 1971, Mezirow, 1991, 2000). Therefore, it can be concluded that if the three learning activities in question are to realise their full potential to develop reflective and autonomous translators, as claimed by some translation scholars, reflective thinking skills are essential.

8.1.1.3. Prior Learning Experience

The above discussion has made it apparent that both discipline-based knowledge and reflective thinking ability are essential to trainee translators' reflective and autonomous learning in and beyond the three learning activities in question. The problem is how such knowledge and ability can be acquired and used by trainee translators. The data analyses showed that trainee translators' prior learning experience plays an important role in the acquisition and use of such knowledge and ability.

8.1.1.3.1. Influence on Frame of Reference of Meaning

It was found that some subjects did translation in the same way they had answered translation quizzes in English tests in their prior English courses, in which they looked endlessly for "accurate" meaning or teachers' answers (cf. Gile, 1995; Kiraly, 1995; see also 2.1.1.1.). They sometimes felt frustrated when they could not find such meaning or answers, as was shown in the examples in Chapter 5 (5.2.1.2.2.). It was evident that these subjects saw the meaning of the source text as fixed, absolute and thus findable, a presumption of meaning similar to that of Grammar Translation Method or contrastive analysis approaches (2.1.1.1~2.). With such a presumption,

meaning can be taught by the teacher.

8.1.1.3.2. Influence on Learning Approaches

However, it appears that such prior learning experience not only has influence on the subjects' frame of reference for meaning in doing translation but also on their learning approaches, particularly on their perceptions of how translation should be learned and taught. That is, it appears that they believe meaning, translation equivalents, translation strategies and other discipline-based knowledge are all transmissible from the teacher to the student. This was perhaps why some subjects reported in the interviews that they hoped their teachers could tell them directly what translation strategies they should use rather than asking them to think for themselves. It is evident that when students deeply believe that knowledge is to be transmitted, there is no need or it is ineffective and inefficient for them to look for and reflect on translation solutions for themselves.

In the two recent decades, such a transmissionist view of knowledge and approaches to teaching and learning have been criticised by some scholars as apedagogical (see 1.2.). Some of them have been calling for an adoption and application of constructivist approaches to all aspects of translation learning (e.g. Kiraly, 2000).

At the same time, however, it has been found that, in the teacher-student scenarios of the SGD-learning mode, knowledge did flow effectively and efficiently from the teacher-type subjects to the students-type subjects when the former were well-informed (see 7.2.2.1.), showing that transmissionist approaches to learning are not always problematic. Some translation scholars, therefore, advocate a multi-track approach to teaching. For instance, González Davies (2004, p.225) advocates

adopting transmissionist, transactional (group work and interaction) and transformational (collaborative and extramural practice) approaches, depending on the learning settings but relying heavily on the latter two (see also 1.2.). All these paradoxes point to the need to differentiate between transmissionist *epistemological perspectives* and transmissionist *learning approaches*, as outlined below.

8.1.1.3.3. Transmissionism vs. Constructivism

As was reviewed in 2.1.1., translation involves individual interpretation, which cannot be completely objective because individuals are situated in and inevitably influenced by their educational, social and cultural environment (Nida, 1964; Baker 1992, 2002; see also 2.1.1.). This is why there can be many renditions of the same source text. This is also why “an apple is red”, for example, may not be a reasonable expression to a person’s world only has green apples (Von Glasersfeld, 1995), and a literal translation of this expression may not make sense to the person.

It is apparent that constructivist epistemological perspectives are useful in explaining this. When meaning is construed and constructed by individual translators, it is inevitable that each translator will generate a different rendition. Therefore, when it comes to translating process, which involves individual interpretation and decision, it is quite unlikely that translating skills and their application can be transmitted intact from one student to another or from the teacher to the student. Just as what one of the subjects said, she could not think of her peer’s beautiful translation or effective translating strategies unless she could re-live her peer’s life. A transmissionist epistemological perspective, by contrast, cannot provide an effective explanation for the above.

However, when it comes to the teaching and learning of translation knowledge, it is undeniable that direct provision of such knowledge by the teacher is very efficient and effective. The reason is that teachers, presumably experts in translation, should have full subject-matter autonomy and hence the ability to decide *what* knowledge is useful to trainee translators (Candy, 1988; Gile, 1995). As Kegan (2000:49) points out, learning that aims at changing *what* we know is a crucial process to any discipline because its purpose is to expand and deepen the resources available to an existing frame of reference so as to “bring valuable new contents into the existing form of our way of knowing”. In other words, when knowledge, such as a functionalist frame of reference of meaning, is taught in the classroom, it is likely that students will not adopt this frame of reference of meaning right away. However, when they encounter a translation text where this very frame of reference of meaning is relevant, they have this particular resource at hand to use, and so change in their existing frame of reference of meaning can occur.

Therefore, what is crucial here is how knowledge is assimilated or accommodated by the students after it is transmitted to them and, ultimately, how knowledge can change *how* the student knows. As Kegan (*ibid.*) stresses, change in *what* we know is “within a preexisting frame of mind while change in *how* we know is the “reconstructing of the very frame”. The latter is what has been called critical reflective learning (see 2.4.) or transformative learning (Kegan, 2000; Mezirow, 1991, 2000).

Based on the above discussion, it seems justifiable to say that knowledge and skills can be transmitted and that this can be an effective and efficient approach to learning. However, if such knowledge and skills are to be meaningful to students, they have to be construed internally by the students so that they can construct new knowledge that

is their own and hence can be applied by them confidently and autonomously.

It is, therefore, not surprising that the subjects who believed that transmission by teachers is *sufficient* for knowledge and skills to develop tended to have a lasting reliance on teachers. The main reason might be that they had not construed what the knowledge and skills that they had received from the teacher meant to them. Therefore, no new knowledge was constructed and could be applied confidently and autonomously to solve other translation problems. When they encountered a new translation problem, they had to rely on teachers again, and the whole cycle went on.

From the above, it is evident that if the three learning activities (i.e. diary, TA and SGD) -- and perhaps all other learning activities -- are to have their claimed effects, trainee translators need to have appropriate learning approaches in addition to attainment of discipline-based knowledge and reflective thinking skills.

8.1.2. Awareness-raising Effect

8.1.2.1. Comparison between Diary, TA and SGD

As presented in Table 8-1, in addition to the promotion of reflection, awareness-raising was found to be a common feature of the three learning activities. The present study found that both the diary- and TA-learning activities have the effect of raising students' awareness of a variety of translation problems in their translating process. This finding is consistent with prior studies. For instance, Fox (2000) found that her subjects had heightened awareness of readers' expectations. Wakabayashi (2003) reported that her students became aware of ineffective problem-solving strategies after doing think-aloud (2.1.3.2.~2.1.3.3.).

As discussed in 8.1.1.1. provision of guidelines for the diary and TA learning activities plays an important role in raising students' awareness of their translating process. This suggests that, at least at the beginning of using diary as a learning activity, interventions, such as a set of guidelines or teachers' facilitation, can help students to get started in diary writing (Moon, 1999).

In comparison, awareness of one's own translation process seems to be a natural result of the TA-learning activity but it can also be heightened by guidelines. The data analyses showed that the TA-learning activity is particularly useful in raising students' awareness of inefficient translation behaviours (6.1.1.2.), such as looking up the same words several times and shortening translation time through strengthened concentration. Wakabayashi's study (2003) had similar findings, in which her students found looking up unknown words greatly slowed down their translation speed. As time management and translation speed were perceived by the subjects as requirements for professional translators (see 4.2.), the function of TA in identifying and subsequently prompting students to refrain from inefficient translation behaviour may be a main motivation for students to adopt it as a learning activity.

Unlike the other two learning activities, the awareness-raising effect of SGD was found to be mainly on translation product or translation quality rather than translating process (see 8.1.1.1.), even when the Guidelines were provided. This implies that if SGD is to be a translation process-oriented learning activity, as claimed by some translation scholars (see Chapter One), an intentional emphasis on translating process through mechanisms, such as assigning translating process as a discussion topic, may be required.

8.1.2.2. Awareness of Problems Unknown to Self

As presented in Table 8-1, identification of problems unknown to self (Feature (10)) was perceived by most subjects as a unique advantage of the SGD-learning activity over the other two learning activities. However, the data analyses showed that the diary- and TA-learning activities are also able to raise students' awareness of problems unknown to themselves through the process of reviewing their diaries and TAs.

This finding is consistent with that of previous research in diary or journal learning, which found that analyzing one's own learning diary or journal can help the person to find and then examine recurring patterns or problems (see 2.1.3.1.). The present study also found evidence that such analysis is able to lead students to take actions to find solutions to their problems (5.2.1.2.1.). This is equivalent to taking control of one's learning and thus it should contribute to the students' development of autonomy (cf. Matsumotio, 1996).

In comparison, in Fox's diary research (2000) and Wakabayashi's TA research (2003), it appears that students' diaries and TA recordings are mainly generated for teachers to review in order to help identify students' translation problems. This is in itself an important function of diary and journal recordings where teachers, as translation experts, can help identify problems that students do not yet have the expertise to find. However, this also means that part of the initiative of learning is "occupied" by the teacher. In this regard, the portfolio learning activity, that Johnson (2003, p.106) proposes, has the advantage of "vacating" some judgment space for students. In the portfolio activity that Johnson uses, the individual students compile their own portfolio and self-assess their own translation works while teachers make comments based on

individual students' self-assessment in their portfolio.

Therefore, it seems justified to conclude that if the diary- and TA-learning activities are to be used to develop autonomous translators, analysis of one's own diary should be an important element.

8.1.2.3. Awareness and Reflection

The awareness-raising effect is a valuable feature of the three learning activities because it serves as a starting point of reflection. According to the literature on reflective learning, reflection is a process of problem-solving, understanding others and oneself, and freeing oneself from the limitations of linguistic, cultural and social norms (see 2.4.1.). These processes would not occur if one were not aware of the existence of problems and the need to understand others and to emancipate oneself. Both Dewey (1910/1991) and Mezirow (1991) attached great importance to awareness. Dewey saw awareness as a prerequisite of the problem-solving process while Mezirow sees awareness as part of premise reflection.

In other words, if students are not aware of their translation problems, they will not embark on a problem-solving process in the first place. Evidence was found in the three learning activities in question, that awareness of translation problems motivates students to take the initiative in looking for solutions (Chapters Five~Seven).

8.1.2.4. Awareness and Motivation

8.1.2.4.1. The Diary- and TA-learning Activities

Intriguingly, however, it was found in the diary- and TA-learning modes that some subjects did not take actions to solve their translation problems even though their

awareness of such problems had been raised. This implies that awareness alone cannot motivate students to take problem-solving actions. There are more factors involved.

According to Littlewood (1996, 1997), the capacity for autonomy comprises both ability (i.e. knowledge and skill) and willingness (i.e. motivation and confidence). Students need to have not only motivation but also confidence, knowledge and skills to take actions or carry out decisions. When students perceive that all these factors are under their control, they become both more autonomous (Deci and Ryan, 2002) and more motivated to take actions (Weiner, 1986; Williams and Burden, 1997).

The analysis of the subjects' experience prior to the present study found that all the subjects were intrinsically motivated and/or extrinsically motivated through identified regulation to learn translation (see 4.1.). This indicates that they had a strong motivation to solve their translation problems so that their translation competence would be improved. That they volunteered to use extra time to participate in the present study is apparent evidence of such motivation. Therefore, their lack of problem-solving actions after awareness of their own translation problems was raised can be attributed, at least partially, to their low self-perceived competence (e.g. translation knowledge and translating skills) and low self-confidence. The analyses of the qualitative data presented in Chapters Five and Six support this attribution, as discussed below.

Self-perceived Competence

The data analyses found that some of the subjects did not take problem-solving actions after awareness of their translation problems because they did not believe

they had the ability to find solutions, as described in the examples in 5.2.1.2. and 6.2.1.2. According to theory of motivation, in particular Attribution Theory (see 2.3.), when students attribute a task (i.e. finding translation solutions) as beyond their ability and perceive the attributed cause (i.e. translation competence) as internally stable and unchangeable, they tend to be less motivated to make an effort to change their status of learning. This can explain why these subjects did not take actions to find solutions to their translation problems.

However, what is more important is why they perceived themselves to lack competence since they all generated a translation in the end anyway. It was found that this might be due to their low self-confidence and a focus on translation product rather than translating process.

Low Self-confidence

The data analyses of the diary- and TA-learning modes revealed that some subjects had actually found appropriate solutions to their translation problems (meaning they were competent) but their self-confidence was too low for them to believe in their capability to find appropriate solutions. As a result, they often voiced doubts about the effectiveness of their solutions (see 5.2.1.2.2. (C)). This might have contributed to their perception that the diary- and TA-learning activities could not help them to find solutions.

In comparison, it was found others who described their translation strategies and provided theory-based reasons and justifications (e.g. importance of readership or genre styles) for their decisions on such strategies seldom mentioned doubts about their decision. It is apparent that translation theories and models provided an

“explanatory power” or framework, based on which they discriminated between good and less desired strategies (Gile, 1995, pp.13-14). This in turn gave them the confidence to justify or defend their decisions.

It can be inferred, therefore, that if students have acquired sufficient theoretical knowledge and know how to apply it to defend their translation decisions, they would become more confident and perceive higher self-confidence, which, in turn, can generate more autonomous motivation in them to seek solutions.

The above evidence once again shows the usefulness and importance of translation theories to trainee translators’ learning. Besides being a foundation for reflection (see 8.1.1.2.1.), translation theory or discipline-based knowledge can be a source of self-confidence for trainee translators. When their confidence increases, their self-perceived competence is likely to increase and generate autonomous motivation for learning.

Focus on Product vs. Process

In addition to self-confidence, a focus on translation process or translation product appears to be able to influence students’ perception of their own competence. The data analyses found that those who focus on translation process competencies (e.g. translating skills, speed) are more likely to perceive progress in learning; those who focus on translation product quality are less likely to perceive progress (see 4.1.).

Due to a lack of literature on motivation in trainee translators, it is difficult to find a translation-specific theoretical rationale for the relationship between trainee translators’ motivation and their focus on translation product vs. process. However,

according to theories of motivation, when one perceives that one is making progress (meaning one is becoming more competent) in doing an activity, one is more likely to be autonomously motivated to do the activity (cf. Deci et al., 2002, 2008; Ushioda, 1996). Therefore, it seems justified to infer that trainee translators who focus on translation process are more likely to be motivated; on the contrary, when they focus more on translation product quality, they are less likely to perceive increased competence and hence less likely to be motivated.

In addition, it appears that translation process competence, such as translating skills, speed, and language abilities, can be more easily assessed and hence controlled by the trainee translators. For instance, students can decide to translate faster through strengthened concentration, do more translation exercises to hone their translating skills, or go to English or Chinese classes to improve their language abilities.

In contrast, it appears that translation quality is difficult to assess (cf. Hatim and Mason, 1997) and hence less likely to be within the trainee translators' control. For instance, they may feel their register is not appropriate, as one of the subjects reported, but it would be difficult for them to assess and decide whether their register problems have been solved or improved. When they feel this activity is not within their ability to control, they become less motivated to take actions.

Based on the above discussion, it can be said that attainment of discipline-based knowledge and a focus on translating process rather than translation product are important factors in improving students' self-perceived competence and motivating students to learn in the diary- and TA-learning activities.

8.1.2.4.2. The SGD-learning Activity

In contrast to the diary- and TA-learning activities, the data analyses of the SGD-learning activity showed that whenever awareness of a translation problem was raised, the SGD groups always tried to find solutions. It appeared that individuals' self-perceived competence and confidence did not directly hinder the SGD group from taking problem-solving actions, but there was evidence that their perception of competence of themselves and others had an influence on the group dynamics of the SGD, which in turn influenced individual SGD members' motivation to use this learning activity.

Discussion is one of the most frequently used learning activities in the translation classroom and, as a group-based learning activity, has won support from scholars and practitioners in higher education as well as in translator training (see 2.1.2.4. and 2.1.3.3.). The data analyses also showed that where subjects had participated in SGD in this study most favoured it over the other learning activity in which they had participated. However, the analyses also found that when the group dynamics of SGD had a negative effect on SGD members, the results were often more serious than for the diary- and TA-learning modes.

Teacher-student vs. Equal-partner

The present study identified two types of scenario in trainee translators' SGD: the teacher-student and the equal-partner. In the former scenario, individual SGD members play either the role of a teacher or the role of a student. In the latter, all SGD members discuss as equal partners (see 7.2.2.).

Teacher-Student Scenario

The data analysis found that, in the teacher-student scenario, when the teacher-type is well informed and willing to help, the group can get solutions to their translation problems effectively and efficiently. Such a scenario is just like a mini-transmissionist translation classroom, where information and knowledge are conveyed from the teacher-type to the student-type. As has been discussed previously, such a transmissionist flow of information and knowledge is not necessarily a negative thing (8.1.3.3.).

What is worrying is that, when the teacher-type is ill-informed and dominating, the group may fail to find appropriate solutions and exchange views (cf. Dörnyei and Murphey, 2003; Powell, 1974). The analysis has shown that, when the teacher-type is ill-informed but perceived by the other group members as competent, the consequence is usually the most severe among the three learning activities in question and their learning tends to be gravely influenced.

The reason is that, in the diary- and TA-learning activities, students tend to base their reflection on their existing meaning schemes and perspectives. If they have good reflective thinking ability, the result tends to be refinement or improvement of their existing schemes and perspectives (see 8.1.1.2.). There may be a slim chance that their meaning schemes and perspectives will be distorted. However, the present study has shown that, in SGD, there is a possibility that the less dominant trainee translators' meaning schemes and perspectives be distorted by those of the more dominant trainee translators.

In addition to a possibility of negative change in trainee translators' meaning schemes

and perspectives, what is noteworthy, or worrying, is that this type of scenario sometimes has a similar negative affective effect on SGD members to that caused by a transmissionist translation classroom. A solely transmissionist translation classroom, particularly one that only uses model translation and “read and translate” directives (cf. González Davies, 2004), is often criticised as causing frustration in trainee translators and disempowering them (Kiraly, 2000). The data analyses of the present study found similar negative effects between teacher-type subjects and student-type subjects. Some student-type subjects reported feeling frustrated and reluctant to go to SGD due to fear of losing face (7.1.2.2.). Some teacher-type subjects reported feeling reluctant to go to SGD because they could not feel their competence had been increased. The motivational process of the two student types to attend the SGD is discussed below.

Student-type

According to the above findings, it is apparent that whether trainee translators would go to SGD is decided by weighing their affective experience and perceived competence in SGD. It can be inferred that, on the one hand, the student-type is more likely to experience negative feelings such as frustration, embarrassment and shame in SGD because they have perceived that their own competence is lower than the teacher-type. Such feelings tend to decrease their autonomous motivation to attend SGD (see 2.4.).

On the other hand, trainee translators at the postgraduate level usually learn in order to achieve their career goals (Kelly, 2005; see also Chapter Four) and such a desire can feed into their autonomous motivation to learn. When the influence of negative feelings is greater than the desire to increase their translation competence, trainee

translators are more likely to discontinue SGD, and vice versa.

Due to the relatively small sample size of the present study, it cannot conclusively demonstrate that affective experience weighs more than perceived competence. Nonetheless, the data analysis did find that those who had more negative feelings tended to give up using SGD. It is apparent that negative feelings (i.e. frustration and shame) were so detrimental to these students' motivation that they decided not to attend SGD. This also points out that, in addition to cost-effectiveness in learning (see 8.1.1.), the psychological cost of doing a learning activity should also be taken into consideration.

Teacher-type

As for the teacher-type, it seems that their motivational process is more complex. It can be expected that they may experience fewer negative feelings, such as shame caused by lower perceived competence, but they may experience dissatisfaction because their learning need is not satisfied. In addition, compared to the student-type who is a student in both real life and SGD, the teacher-type assumes two different roles: a student in real life but a teacher in SGD. This conflict of identity may cause different results.

If the teacher-type can identify with the underlying value of being a teacher in SGD (e.g. helping peers, learning how to explain translation skills so one can be a translation teacher in the future), their autonomous motivation will increase through integrated regulation and they are likely to continue to use SGD (see 2.3.1.2.). However, if they cannot identify with the teacher's role (e.g. seeing the purpose to participate in SGD is to learn how to translate, not to teach), they are likely to

experience negative feelings (e.g. stress, discontent), which then reduce their autonomous motivation to use SGD.

Goal of Groups

The teacher-type is sometimes like the Organizer in the project group described by Kiraly (2000), in that they may dominate the group, disempower their peers and limit the potential of the group to explore new and more perspectives (see 2.1.3.3.). However, they are also different. The Organizer in Kiraly's study tends to be an active participant of the group while the teacher-type of the present study sometimes is active but sometimes is passive. This difference may be caused by whether the group is goal-oriented.

In Kiraly's study, every group had a translation project to complete and group members needed to work collaboratively because they shared a common fate and were jointly responsible for the result of their project (see 2.1.2.4.). Therefore, it can be expected that the group members' motivation would be strong and their sense of achievement is expected to come at least partially from the completion of their translation project.

In comparison, the SGD group of the present study had no fixed goal. Therefore it can be expected whether SGD group members would continue to use it would depend largely on how much they can learn from it. This implies that goal setting may be able to help to increase students' motivation in doing SGD, particularly in the equal-partner scenario when the group members do not know where their discussion will lead, as discussed below.

Equal-partner Scenario

As shown by the data analysis, in the equal-partner scenario, group members' competence appears to be the main factor that decides the groups' success in finding translation solutions. When group members are more or less equally competent, they are more capable of finding solutions, becoming aware of their blind spots, or having deeper levels of reflection. When they are able to do so, they feel more satisfied with SGD. Such satisfaction, in turn, increases their motivation to do SGD.

When the group members are relatively equally ill-informed and less competent, they are less likely to reach conclusions, which often lead to frustration, confusion and disorientation about where the SGD group was leading them, as shown in 7.2.2.2 (see also 2.1.3.3.). Such negative feelings may decrease their autonomous motivation to use the SGD. Therefore, as previously mentioned, goal-setting can be a potential solution to increase their motivation to use SGD.

8.1.2.5. From Awareness to Autonomy

The above discussion shows that whether a learning activity can develop autonomous translators depends not only on whether students have acquired discipline-based knowledge, reflective thinking ability and translation experience but also on whether individual trainee translators are autonomously motivated.

According to Self-Determination Theory (Deci & Ryan, 2000, 2002; see also 2.3.1.), the pursuit of autonomy is part of human nature. It is a psychological need, just like water and air are physiological needs. When a learning setting or activity enhances autonomy, better forms of motivation (intrinsic motivation, identified regulation and integrated regulation) may occur, which in turn may result in more satisfying learning

outcomes (Vallerand *et al.*, 2008). However, what matters is not the setting or activity *per se* but how such a setting or activity can allow one to “experience feelings of competence, autonomy, and relatedness” to significant others (*ibid.*:257).

The discussion in the previous sections has shown that the diary, TA and SGD learning activities can all provide an autonomy-enhancing learning setting. They can all raise trainee translators’ awareness of translation problems, which is the starting point of reflective learning and problem-solving actions. However, as the above discussion has also made apparent, there is a psychological gap between awareness and actions. This gap can only be bridged through enhancing autonomous motivation (i.e. the better form of motivation). When trainee translators are autonomously motivated, they naturally experiences a feeling of autonomy, which may lead they to take responsibility for their own learning and to take actions to solve their own translation problems. This may result in the learning outcome they desire, such as improved translating skills and translation quality.

8.1.3. Use of Diary and TAJ as Records

One main difference in the design of the diary, TA and SGD learning modes is that the first two generate written records (diary and TAJ) while SGD does not. It was found that diaries and TAJs were perceived by the subjects as useful records, through which they could identify their own translation problems. Such actions turn students into researchers and give them the drive to understand their own learning, which can lead to reflective thinking and autonomous learning (Matsumoto, 1996, see also 8.1.1-2.).

What is noteworthy is that most of the subjects did not review their diary or TAJ until they were prompted to do by the post-mode questionnaire. This implies that, in

addition to learning how to reflect appropriately when writing their diary and TAJ, students may need to learn how to analyse their diary and TAJ so that the potential of the two learning activities can be fully realised (Matsumoto, 1996).

The problem is how students might learn to analyse their diary and TAJ. The findings of the pilot study of the present study may shed some light on this. In the pilot study of the present study (Chen, 2007; see also 3.1.1.), three subjects were asked to analyse their own TA recordings by using a coding system (Appendix H) developed by the researcher mainly based on research findings by Krings (1986), Gerloff (1987) and Lam (1995). It comprised two sets of codes: translation problems (comprehension-, author-, transfer-related and other problems) and translation strategies (comprehension, retrieval, decision-making strategies). Each type of problem and strategy was given a code. The three subjects coded the translation problems they found when listening to their own TA recordings.

After the pilot study, the three subjects reported that codes in the coding system were too meticulous for them to differentiate so that sometimes they did not know which code(s) should be assigned to a translation problem. They also reported that coding their problems took a lot of time, resulting in a reluctance to use TA as a learning method. However, they also reported that the coding system had raised their awareness of a variety of aspects of translation, which they had never thought about before, such as issues of domestication and foreignization, and these aspects prompted them to explore the nature of translation and translating. It is apparent that the coding system had helped these subjects to take on the role of a researcher and to develop motivation and hence autonomy in learning about translation.

Although this coding system was not adopted in the main study because of methodological reasons (e.g. for an equal comparison among the three learning activities, see 8.2.), it does show that some form of system can be introduced to raise students' awareness of specific aspects or problems, such as the issue of domestication and foreignization in literary translation. In comparison, the Guidelines of the present study, which were a simplified version of the coding system, appear to be able mainly to raise students' awareness of their translation processes in general. Their analysis of their own diary and/or TAJ prompted by the post-mode questionnaire appeared to be short and shallow and focused mainly on recurring translation behaviours and strategies relative to the subjects in the pilot study.

These results suggest that it may be better that a specific goal be set for trainee translators for the purpose of analysis rather than simply asking them to review their diary, TAJ or even portfolio. If students cannot be assumed to have the ability to think reflectively and critically, neither can they be assumed to know on what to reflect.

The SGD-learning mode of the present study does not generate written records. This was considered by most of the subjects as a major disadvantage. This may have contributed to the subjects' discussion focusing mainly on their translations, which they could see in front of them. This might be particularly so if their previous learning experience with translation had been influenced by how they had learned English. They may focus on the discussion of the appropriateness of different equivalents in their translation, which they only encounter once or twice, rather than on issues that may influence their whole of their translating practice. In this regard, task-based approaches (e.g. González Davies, 2004), in which students discuss one or two specific topics in each task, may have the advantage of directing students' thoughts to

a certain area. In addition, as some of the subjects suggested, SGD can be used in conjunction with diary, TAJ or other forms of learning activities, which generate written records.

8.1.4. Procedural Issues and Efficiency

8.1.4.1. Procedural Convenience

As presented in Table 8-1, compared to the diary- and SGD-learning modes, the complex procedure is the major disadvantage of the TA-learning mode. This learning mode is mainly composed of five sub-activities: translating, thinking-aloud, recording, listening, and TAJ-writing. Translating is what trainee translators are learning to do. Based on the data analyses of the TA-learning mode (see 6.1.), TAJ-writing is the most rewarding learning process, though it takes more time. It is quite similar to diary-writing in that both have the function of promoting students' reflective learning (see 8.1.1.). Thinking-aloud and recording, though implemented along with translating, have a mixed effect on students' translating speed and the total time they use to complete a translation task (see 8.1.4.2.).

Listening to one's own TA-recordings can be said to be a prerequisite for TAJ-writing but the process of listening may bore students if the TA-recording is too long. Since the length of a TA-recording is decided by the time a student spends on translating, as Wakabayashi (2003) suggests, cost efficiency should be considered carefully if think-aloud is to be used as a learning activity. It may be more cost-efficient if students only think aloud the difficult passages or a short source text.

In addition to cost-efficiency, the length of time spent on a learning activity may also cause psychological discomfort, de-motivating students from using the learning

activity or even to de-motivate or a-motivate them from doing translating tasks (see 2.3.). As shown in 6.1., some of the subjects reported that they felt reluctant to do translation tasks and sometimes even lost interest in doing them. Therefore, whether to use a learning activity is not just decided by cost-effectiveness (see 8.1.1.) and cost-efficiency (see also 8.1.4.2. & 8.1.4.3.) but also by the psychological cost, such as boredom, de-motivation and even a-motivation (cf. 8.1.2.4.2).

In comparison, in the diary-learning activity, what is needed is only pen and paper. There is not much temporal and spatial limitation. Although the subjects commented little on the convenience issues of the SGD-learning mode, it is reasonable to expect that there would be little procedural limitation in the implementation of SGD if the discussion partners could agree on the time, date and place of their discussion.

However, it is worth noting that the SGD may exert time pressure on students because that they need to complete their translation before the group meeting so that they have materials for discussion. In comparison, the time pressure of project-based discussion (cf. González Davies, 2004; Kiraly, 2000) may lie in how efficiently a group can complete a translation project. Therefore, the time allocated to discussion should be within the limits allowed by the project. This may cause stress to group members.

8.1.4.2. Translation Speed

As mentioned in the previous sub-section, the TA-learning mode has a mixed effect on trainee translators' translation speed. It is worth differentiating its effect on their translating speed and the time they use to complete a translation task. Based on the findings of the data analyses, the effect of the TA-learning mode on translation speed is mainly caused by the thinking-aloud activity.

Translating Speed

Most of the subjects in the present study reported that thinking aloud interfered with and slowed down their thinking. This finding is consistent with findings in TAP research and its pedagogical application (Jakobsen, 2003; Wakabayashi, 2003). This feature of thinking aloud is generally regarded as negative in research. For instance, the interference of TA with the translating process may influence the validity of data in TAP research (for detailed discussion and debate, see Bernardini, 2001; Jääskeläinen, 2002). In pedagogical application, slow translating speed is generally disfavoured by students due to the longer time they need to complete a translation task, while fast translating speed is desired by students and is a requirement of the professional translation market (Robinson, 2003).

However, if the purpose of education is to help trainee translators become better translators, what should be looked for in a learning method or activity is to weigh the results of both negative and positive effects on students' learning and the cost it causes. The negative effect of thinking-aloud on learning is apparently that it may result in inferior translation quality due to interference with thinking process; however, it was also found that it contributes positively to the fluency of translation. If thinking-aloud can help students to identify the reason(s) why their translation is not fluent enough, then thinking-aloud is worth doing at the cost of inferior translation quality for once, because a longer effect on learning may be perceived by the students. In contrast, some students may not feel comfortable voicing their thoughts; therefore, if the discomfort caused by thinking aloud is so great that students lose interest in translating, thinking-aloud may not be worth doing for these students.

Efficiency of Completing a Translation Task

According to the findings of the data analysis, the TA-learning mode is the only one of the three learning activities in question that has the effect of helping trainee translators to identify their inefficient translation-related behaviours, such as looking up the same words many times. Uniquely it has the side effect of helping students improve their concentration on their translation task.

The awareness of such effects of TA may lead students to change their translation-related behaviour, as shown in Chapter Six, and hence have a far-reaching effect on their long-term translation practice, helping them to shorten the total time they spend on a translation task. However, due to the finding that nearly all of the subjects preferred diary and SGD to TA, it may be better that TA be used much less frequently to avoid high psychological costs, as discussed in the previous sub-section.

8.1.5. Individual vs. Cooperative Learning

8.1.5.1. Collective Reflection

As presented in Table 8-1, according to the subjects' perception, the SGD-learning activity has the advantage of providing a learning setting where trainee translators can appreciate one another's translation, identify others' translation problems which are unknown to the others, provide new perspectives and ideas, and provide potential translation solutions.

Learning from others' translation is perhaps one of the most frequently mentioned functions of discussion, but the present study found very little evidence that the subjects had learned through exchanging and reading each others' translations (See

Chapter Seven). This may be because that what they were thinking while reading their SGD partners' translation was not accessible and was not investigated in the present study. However, there was evidence in the interviews that the subjects felt frustrated when sensing that their SGD partners' translation quality was superior and questioning why they could not have achieved similar levels of translation quality. It appeared that they could get immediate solutions, such as a better equivalent, but the problem is how they can more readily come up with such better equivalents.

This emphasises the importance of including the sharing of translating process in SGD. If the translating process, which results in a good translation or a good choice of translation strategies and equivalents can be shared, students can at least compare it with a translating process which results in inferior translation quality. Such comparison may lead one to identify inappropriate or distorted meaning schemes and perspectives that one did not notice before (Von Glasersfeld, 1995; see also 8.1.1.).

For those who have good translation quality, partners' praise can of course increase their autonomous motivation to continue to generate good translations (see 2.3.). However, the data analyses showed that constantly being the more competent student in the SGD group sometimes makes the student frustrated because they may feel they are not learning, particularly when they cannot identify with their role as a teacher in the group (see 8.1.2.). Therefore, it may be more beneficial to such students if their attention can be directed to their translating process. Voicing one's translating process is likely to involve provision of justifications for their translation decisions (Von Glasersfeld, 1995). The need to reflect can help the students to develop a deeper approach to their learning because of the reflection on their learning process and experience (cf. Gibbs, 1989; Kelly, 2005).

Therefore, appreciating others' translations and exchanging views are themselves important because they are the starting point of in-depth, reflective discussion. However, if such actions cannot be followed by in-depth collective reflection, their usefulness seems to be very limited.

8.1.5.2. Relatedness

Exchanging views and perspectives is beneficial to trainee translators' feelings. The data analysis found that (see 7.1.1.5.) some subjects preferred SGD to diary and TA because they felt a sense of empathy and subsequent relief of frustration. Previous research has found that one's motivating style influences others' motivation, emotion, learning and performance. When students experience relatedness to others, particularly when the others can increase their autonomous motivation, they usually have greater perceived competence (Reeve, 1998, 2002; Reeve *et al.*, 2004; Ryan *et al.*, 1986).

The empathy and relatedness felt by students in the SGD is a positive feeling and experience, which increased their intrinsic motivation to use the SGD. In comparison, in the diary- and TA-learning modes, students cannot get autonomous support from others. This also points out the importance of teachers' autonomous support if they encourage students to use diary and TA as learning activities.

* * * * *

The above discussion has shown that translation theory, translation practice and effective learning are all essential elements of trainee translators' learning. Any two of them will not work without the other. If a student knows about translation theory and does translation practice but does not have effective learning approaches, the student

may achieve half the result with twice the effort.

When using an activity to facilitate learning, it is important that the features of the learning activity be fully understood so that its full potential can be realised. The present study shows that the diary, TA and SGD can all facilitate trainee translators' reflective learning and autonomous learning, as has been claimed by some translation pedagogy scholars. However, if individual trainee translators are to benefit from it, they need to know translation theory on which they can base their reflection. They also need to learn how to reflect critically so that they can maximise their learning effect.

The present study also shows that the three learning activities can provide a learning setting that may facilitate the development of autonomy in trainee translators, but whether individual trainee translators can become autonomous depends greatly on the balance between motivating and de-motivating factors.

8.2. Limitations

As with all research, there are limitations to the research design and the interpretation of the findings of the present study, which need to be taken into consideration when trying to generalise the research findings to broader contexts of interest.

8.2.1. Sample

Although the present study included a pilot test prior to its implementation to find factors that might influence students' willingness to participate, only 23 students participated in and completed the whole experiment. Because of the small sample, relatively few quantitative analyses could be carried out in the present study. Although

the Grounded Theory principles were adopted to establish the reliability of the present research through repeated coding procedures (see 3.2.1.1.), the researcher's bias in interpretation of the results is difficult to avoid completely – as in most qualitative research. However, although causing some limitation, the relatively small sample and qualitative analysis enabled the researcher to make in-depth exploration into the subjects' learning experience, such as their motivation, learning process and reflective style, within a longitudinal design.

The small sample also led to an uneven distribution of the first-year and the second-year students in the three learning activities. To see if this uneven distribution had any influence on the findings of the present study, diaries and TA journals were compared between the first-year and the second-year students. The results showed that both years of students had reportive and reflective descriptions. ANOVA tests also showed that there was no significant difference in the reflective level between the first-year students and the second year students (*Mean Difference* = .141, $p = .948 > .05$). In addition, the comments by the researcher and the two translation teachers on these students' translations also showed that the second-year students did not necessarily have better translation quality than the first-year students. These all indicated that the sample of the present study was homogeneous and one year of difference in translator training in the translator training program did not have significant effect on the results of the present study. However, caution should be taken when there are more years of difference in translator training among subjects.

The generalisability of the findings of the present study is also limited by the fact that the sample was made up of exclusively Chinese translation students, who had learned English or translation in colleges or universities in either China or Taiwan.

Therefore, caution would be needed when attempting to generalise the findings of the present study to translation students from other areas or non-Chinese students. For instance, it was found that prior English learning experience had great influence on the subjects' reflective learning ability. This finding was interpreted as the result of influence of Grammar-Translation Method (GTM) approach that they had previously experienced in English classes. This interpretation may not apply to students from areas where GTM does not prevail. However, the homogeneous sample also reduced student background variable effects, making identification and interpretation of causes for some of their learning behaviour easier.

In addition, the subjects studied at a postgraduate translation programme. Some of the findings may not be applicable to undergraduate translation students. One main reason is that postgraduate trainee translators are strongly motivated by their career goal: to become professional translators. Undergraduate students may not have decided what to do or even whether to be language teachers (cf. Kelly, 2005). Therefore there may be a difference in their motivating factors between postgraduate and undergraduate translation students. However, factors concerning their reflective learning may well be similar.

8.2.2. Source Texts

In order to standardise the selection of source texts, all the source texts used in the present study were extracted from journal articles, so the findings may or may not be applicable to other genres of text. Though no genre-specific effects were noted, very different genres (e.g. poetry or drama) may have certain features that could influence the use of the three learning activities tested.

In addition, individual subjects' perception of the level of difficulty of the six source texts might be different, and this in turn might have influenced their perception of the three learning activities. However, the present study had enough texts and subjects (i.e. six texts and 23 subjects rather than one single text and one subject) for this not to be a problem.

8.2.3. Guidelines

In order to compare the three learning activities on an equal footing, similar guidelines were provided for each of the learning activities. However, as the TA-learning mode already involved several activities, writing the TAJ might have strengthened the subjects' negative perception of the complex procedure in this learning mode and hence de-motivated them from using it. In comparison, in Wakabayashi's study (2003), her students were not asked to write a learning journal.

However, since the TAJ-writing sub-activity was generally regarded by the subjects as the most useful of all the sub-activities, it is expected this should have not greatly influenced the subjects' perception.

* * * * *

This chapter discussed the effects the three learning activities tested in the present study may have on translation students, and factors identified in the present study that may have important influence on the students' learning. It also discussed how the generalisation of the findings of the present study might be limited and what measures it had taken to minimise the effect of these limitations. The next chapter will summarise the findings of the present study and present what future research can be done based on them.

Chapter Nine

Conclusions and Future Research

9. Conclusions and Future Research

This chapter summarises the findings of the present study (9.1.) and makes suggestions for using the three learning activities tested (9.2.). It goes on to revisit the four traditional beliefs outlined in Chapter One to present how this study may contribute to the current debate on translator training (9.3.). The final sub-section makes suggestions for future research (9.4), followed by final remarks.

9.1. Summary

As formulated in Chapter One, the goal of the present study has been to broaden and deepen our understanding of trainee translators' autonomous and reflective learning. In particular, it has focused on investigating factors behind the advantages and disadvantages of the diary, think-aloud (TA) and small-group discussion (SGD) activities. All have been claimed by some translation scholars as learner-centred, process-oriented and able to facilitate the development of autonomous, reflective translators.

9.1.1. Learning Process

Figure 9-1 summarises the trainee translators' learning process in the three learning activities revealed in the present study using the methodology described in Chapter Three and the detailed analyses and discussion reported in Chapters Four to Eight.

Reading from left to right in Figure 9-1, all three learning activities (Diary, TA and SGD) raised trainee translators' awareness of their own translation problems. However, it depends on students' motivation whether they take problem-solving actions after becoming aware of the problems. The motivational factors identified in this study

include prior learning experience, group dynamics, perceived competence and learning focus. The problem-solving actions may lead to better learning results. An autonomously motivated trainee translator may move from left to right (in Figure 9-1) and become increasingly reflective and autonomous in doing so.

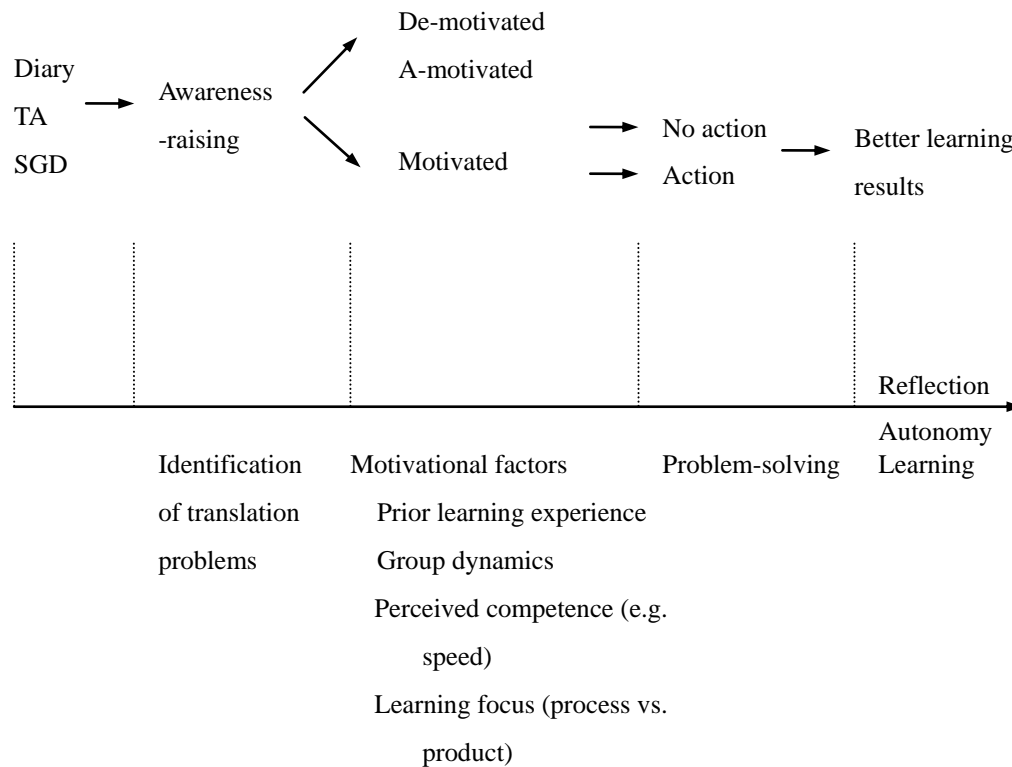


Figure 9-1 A Provisional Learning Process In the Diary, TA and SGD Activities

The present study showed that all three learning activities are able to provide an autonomy-enhancing learning environment mainly due to the reflective thinking activity and awareness-raising function involved in the nature of the three learning activities. Their awareness-raising function can also be enhanced by the provision of guidelines on how to carry out the three learning activities.

However, it was also found that doing any of the three learning activities does not necessarily lead to autonomous and reflective learning. Success in developing as

autonomous and reflective translators depends greatly on individual trainee translators' motivation and reflective thinking abilities. Whether trainee translators are motivated to take problem-solving actions after their awareness of a translation problem has been raised involves weighing up a variety of motivational factors. For instance, a trainee translator may be autonomously motivated to acquire translation competence, but the psychological cost (e.g. stress and frustration) caused by interaction with his or her SGD peers may be too high for this trainee translator to continue using SGD.

Some factors have more weight in one or two of the three learning activities than the other(s) (see Chapter Eight). For instance, the TA-learning activity was found to be the only one that can raise trainee translators' awareness of slow translating speed, which is an important career concern. SGD, as a cooperative learning method, is the only one that may result in the psychological costs caused by group dynamics.

Moreover, how deeply trainee translators can learn in the three learning activities is determined by their individual reflective thinking ability. The more critical their reflection is, the deeper and more far-reaching their learning can be. However, the present study found trainee translators could not be assumed to have attained good reflective thinking abilities even though they are studying translation at the post-graduate level. Most students tend to reflect on their translation (*what*) and their translating process (*how*), particularly when prompted, such as through the use of guidelines, but fewer students have the ability to reflect on the presumption (*why*) behind their decision on, for example, an equivalent or a strategy. Even fewer students have the ability to intentionally reflect on their frame of reference of meaning and learning approaches.

9.1.2. Essential Elements

Based on the findings and discussion of the present study, it is suggested that trainee translators' autonomous and reflective learning should include at least six essential elements: autonomy-supporting learner setting (Circle-A), autonomous motivation (Circle-B), translation theory, translation practice, individual learning approaches (Circle-C), and reflection (Circle-D), as presented in Figure 9.2.

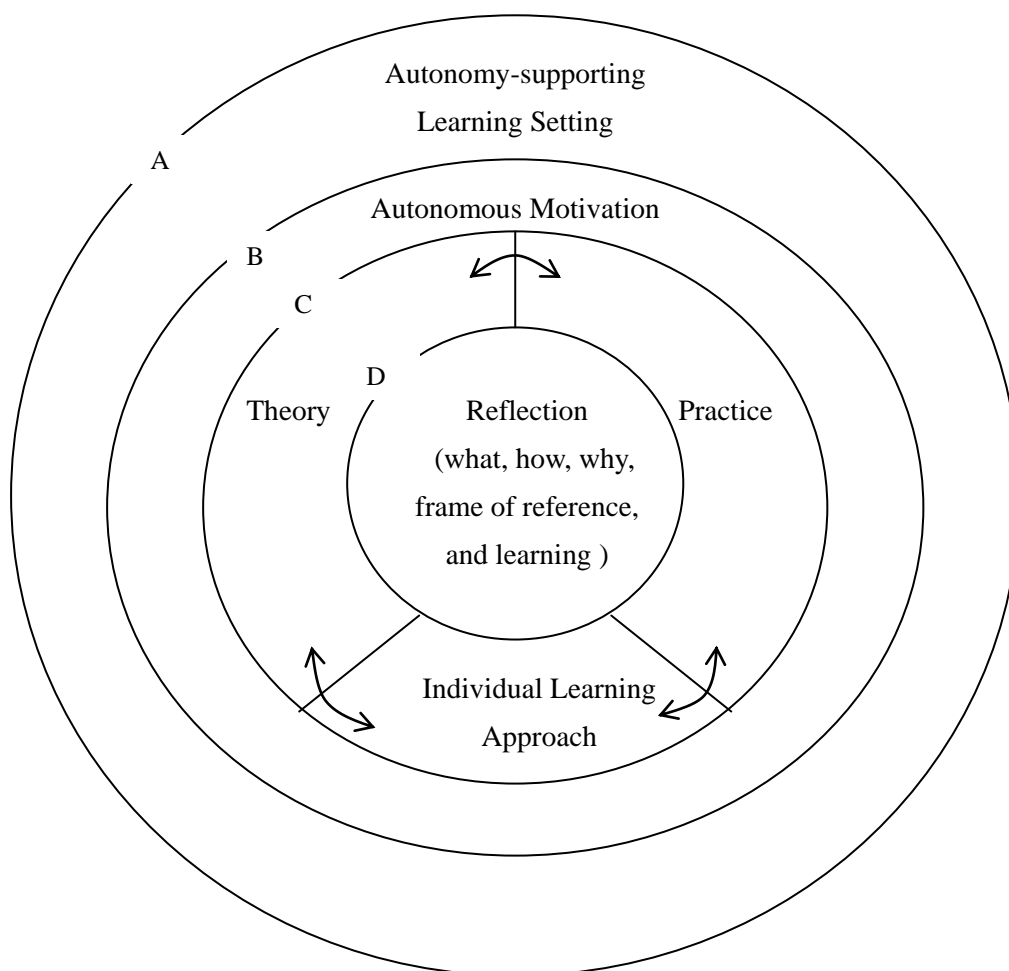


Figure 9-2 Trainee Translators' Autonomous and Reflective Learning

A learning setting that supports learner autonomy (Circle-A) is essential for trainee

translators' autonomous and reflective learning to take place. It is difficult for students to become autonomous in a *controlling* learning setting, such as one prescribing how translation *should* be done as if it is the only way (cf. Robinson, 1991) or the teacher-student SGD scenario found in the present study. Controlling settings may even decrease students' autonomous motivation, making them less motivated to learn or more frustrated in learning, as described by Kiraly (2000).

Autonomous motivation (Circle-B) is essential because it decides whether an autonomy-supporting learning activity can have autonomy-enhancing effect on students. Trainee translators' autonomous motivation can be influenced by a variety of factors. Those that have been identified in the present study are listed under Motivational Factors in Figure 9.1. When prior learning experience is compatible with one's current learning experience or when group dynamics generate positive feelings, trainee translators' autonomous motivation tends to increase; otherwise, it does not. When trainee translators perceive an increase in translation competence or translation speed, such perception tends to result in positive feelings and hence contribute to their autonomous motivation. When trainee translators focus more on process than on product, their autonomous motivation also tends to increase.

According to the findings of the present study, trainee translators' reflection needs to be on at least five aspects: *what* (translation), *how* (translating process), *why* (justification for translation decisions and strategies), *frame of reference of meaning* (how meaning of the ST is decided), and *learning*. Such reflection cannot occur in a vacuum but it should be firmly rooted in translation theories. Translation theories form an explanatory foundation and provide a variety of perspectives on translation (i.e. frames of reference of meaning). Based on the translation theories, trainee translators

can reflect on their experience in translating. They can also examine the theories to see if their learning approach is distorted due to inappropriate perspectives of translation resulting from previous learning experience and if their own meaning schemes/perspectives related to translation need to be modified.

9.2. Suggestions for Translation Teachers

As shown in the discussion in Chapter Eight, each of the three learning activities in question has unique features but they can all provide an autonomy-enhancing learning setting. Therefore, it is suggested that they are used in ways so that their potential can be maximised (see 9.2.5.). Furthermore, as shown in Chapters Four to Eight, in addition to the practical use of the learning modes, it is more important to determine how to improve students' learning experience in the three activities, as argued in 9.2.1~4.

9.2.1. Autonomy-supporting Learning Environment

The present study has shown the importance of an autonomy-enhancing learning setting to trainee translators' autonomous and reflective learning. However, simply adopting such a learning setting, such as diary, TA and SGD, is not enough. Teachers' teaching approaches should also be autonomy-supporting.

For instance, diary, as a learning activity, can provide an autonomy-enhancing setting. If students are required to do this learning activity without knowing why they are using it and how they can benefit from it, this very requirement may change the autonomy-enhancing learning setting into a controlling setting. In such settings, students are motivated to keep their diary through external and/or introjected regulation (see 2.3.1.2.), neither of which are autonomous. Similar controlling learning

environment may occur if the teacher insists on a certain approach to translation. It is, therefore, important that translation teachers know how to create an autonomy-supporting environment (cf. Kiraly, 2000; Reeve, 1998, 2002; Reeve et al., 2004), in which autonomy-enhancing learning activities can work.

9.2.2. Change in Perception

As discussed in the previous chapters, when trainee translators feel more competent, autonomous and related to others, their motivation to complete activities (e.g. a learning activity) or to learn is stronger. However, trainee translators' motivation is complex and influenced by a variety of factors acting together. Whether trainee translator can be autonomously motivated greatly depends on the cost-effectiveness, cost-efficiency and psychological cost of doing the activity or learning.

If the gain in efficiency and effectiveness is greater than the cost, it appears that trainee translators are more likely to continue to learn. Psychological costs identified in the present study include those caused by low-self-perceived translation competence, prior learning experience and negative feelings generated by relationship with peers (such as in the teacher-student scenario in the SGD). If these costs can be reduced through pedagogical measures or teaching approaches, then trainee translators' motivation to learn will be stronger.

Therefore, it is suggested that students be told the importance of paying attention to their own translating process and the competence they have gained during the process rather than focusing only on their translation product. This is not only for them to find, for instance, why they have made translation mistakes (Gile, 1995), but also to generate a sense of progress and hence higher self-perceived competence or to

avoid their assuming a student's role in SGD due to low self-perceived competence, which may cause too much negative psychological cost.

It is also suggested that students' prior learning experience and learning needs be investigated at the beginning of a translation course. One reason for doing this should be to find out whether students' pre-existing perception of translation and how to learn translation (e.g. translation can only be learned through practice or semantic meaning is the only meaning that should be considered when translating) may influence or hinder them from attaining discipline-based knowledge and becoming a fully autonomous translator in the future.

9.2.3. Reflective Thinking Ability

The present study has shown that trainee translators cannot be assumed to have developed reflective learning skills. To exploit the full potential of the three learning activities, it is important that students learn to reflect deeply and critically. As discussed in Chapter Eight, deep and critical reflection on translation and translating needs to be situated in translation theories. Therefore, if developing reflective translators is to be more than educational slogan, it requires pedagogical efforts in at least two aspects: introducing students to how to reflect critically, and, subsequently, helping them to attain subject-matter autonomy.

It is, therefore, suggested that translation theories be introduced in a way that their strength in helping translation practice can be felt by students. Since trainee translators' one main focus when translating is the meaning of the whole or part of the source text, it is suggested that the different frames of reference of meaning upheld or

emphasised by different translation theories be introduced in company with suitable translation tasks, such as the one suggested by Arrojo (2005; see 2.1.).

9.2.4. Practicalities

As suggested above, whether trainee translators are autonomously motivated to do one activity is greatly influenced by how effective and efficient this activity can be to their learning and what psychological cost it may generate. Therefore, it is suggested that the diary-, TA- and SGD-learning activities be used where they have the most advantages and in a way that maximises their advantages, as outlined below.

9.2.1.1. Diary

Diary is an easy-to-use learning activity, therefore it can be used frequently, such as after every or alternate translation assignments. However, in order to avoid students writing about content that is not useful to their learning, which risks students perceiving the keeping of a diary as a waste of time, it is suggested that guidelines or topics be suggested to students. Such guidelines or topics can also be used to cover areas of expertise that are important for professional translators.

In addition, as pointed out in previous chapters (cf. Matsumoto, 1996), turning trainee translators into a researcher using their own diary is useful to their learning because this provides them with opportunities to identify recurring translation problems, helping them to take responsibility for their own learning.

9.2.1.2. TA

The TA-learning activity is particularly useful in identifying problems related to translation speed and recurring translation problems. However, since it is often

regarded as time-consuming, it is suggested that it be used less frequently, perhaps once a month, or for difficult paragraphs of the ST, as suggested by most of the subjects of the present study (cf. Wakabayashi, 2003).

The TA-learning activity is composed of five sub-activities: translating, thinking-aloud, recording, listening, and TAJ-writing. The present study shows that individual students may have different views or perceptions each of these sub-activities. Therefore, it may be worthwhile for the TA-learning activity to be introduced to students so that they can explore whether or which of these sub-activities may be useful to their learning.

9.2.1.3. SGD

SGD is also an easy-to-use learning activity so it can be used as frequently as diary. However, since students' perception of their own and their peers' competence is an important factor in the success of SGD groups, it is suggested that group members' attention be directed to the goal of SGD and its advantages (cf. Dörnyei, 2001).

The present study found that SGD groups tend to focus on translation products in their discussion. This may direct group members' attention to translation quality, resulting in low or high self-perceived translation competence and constant assumption of the same role in transmission-oriented scenarios in SGD (e.g. teacher-student scenarios).

Changing the group membership may help to improve this situation, since trainee translators can then learn from different peers and are less likely to be trapped in the same role from constantly interacting with the same peers. However, it is suspected that changes in group membership may not be able to improve some trainee

translators' learning experience in SGD. For instance, those who have good translation competence may feel that they have little to gain from discussion even in changing groups. A shift in attention from translation product to translating process may help to solve this problem. It is, therefore, suggested that translating process be included as a topic for discussion or as an element in discussion and that students are informed of the importance of translating process.

9.3. Revisiting the Four Traditional Beliefs

As described in Chapter One, there are four traditional beliefs about translator training, which have been challenged in recent decades. Debates around these beliefs have contributed greatly to our understanding of translators as a profession and have paved the way for more learner-centred and process-oriented pedagogical approaches, including using diary, think-aloud and small group discussion as learning activities.

However, such debates are often inconclusive partly due to a lack of empirical evidence. The following will discuss how the findings of the present study may contribute to these debates.

9.3.1. Translator Training is a Matter of Practice, not Theory

No translation scholars would deny the importance of practice in translator training since a person is not a translator if s/he does not translate at all. It is also undeniable that some translators are self-taught and develop good translating skills through practice and experience without learning any theory. This line of arguments has been welcome particularly by professional translators (Shreve, 1995). However, if practice

alone can develop good translators, anyone who desires to become a good translator can become one through a lot of practice. Then, what translation teachers need to do is to give students numerous translation assignments and wait for them to become good translators. This is arguably not efficient and the result is unpredictable.

The opposite line of argument is that theory can inform students of knowledge required to be a good translator. Prescriptive theories are often criticized as prescribing how translation *should* be done and what equivalent criteria *should* be adopted (Robinson, 1991). Adoption of any prescriptive theory represents an adoption of a perspective on translation. Different perspectives are often incompatible with each other due to different frames of reference of meaning on which they are based (see also 2.1.1.). In the 1980s, descriptive theories of translation, deriving particularly from TAP research, started to gain momentum and were often used to argue that what is taught to students should be based on professional practice (Kiraly, 1995). Thus, Shreve (1995) likens translator training to the medical profession by saying that doctors first describe and then prescribe medicine and so should translation teachers. Such argument certainly reduces the gap between theory and practice.

However, description and prescription of a medicine or a course of treatment are based on the findings of extensive research into the medicine, people and how people react to it. In translator training, we may know how to describe and then prescribe good translation strategies and relevant learning activities, but we know relatively little about how individual trainee translators assimilate such strategies and learn from learning activities. Can such strategies be learned? Can students benefit from such learning activities? If so, how do they learn and benefit? We have no firm answers to these questions. Therefore, debate about trainee translators' learning should not only

revolve around theory and practice but also extend to learning itself.

The findings of the present study imply that theories, either prescribed or described, cannot be directly assimilated by students. There has to be a series of high-levels of cognitive activities, such as comparison, judgment, and validation, or in Piaget's terms, assimilation and accommodation. Nevertheless, if students always translate in the same way, it means they are not learning. Learning should be a process of changing, or in Mezirow's term, a process of transformation (see 2.4.). If students know nothing about translation theory or strategies, they have nothing to compare with their own practice of translating, and therefore less stimulus to learn.

Therefore, the purpose of learning about theory should at least include using it as a basis to evaluate one's own practice. In other words, the purpose of learning translation theory should not be to "absorb" it directly, like taking medicine, but to use it as a base for comparison to examine one's own existing frame of reference of meaning. Theory input should be judged and examined by students to see whether their own meaning schemes/perspectives need to be changed in the light of its input.

9.3.2. Trainees Learn from Translation Mistakes

The findings of the present study show that trainee translators can learn from their translation mistakes. For example, if they translate a term incorrectly, they will probably not make the same mistake again. However, how many translation tasks do they need to do in order they can make all possible mistakes and find all possible correct translations?

What is more important, it seems, is for student to know why they make mistakes. The

present study has shown that students can find why they made translation mistakes through a deep investigation of their own meaning schemes and meaning perspectives, which rule or govern their translation decisions. When they can find the inadequacies of their meaning schemes and meaning perspectives, and ways to improve them, the influence is far-reaching and can be applied to all translation tasks.

9.3.3. Translator Training Involves Transmitting Knowledge and Skills to Trainees

In the last two decades, there has been criticism of the transmissionist perspective on learning. One main basis of such criticism is that knowledge cannot be directly conveyed from the teacher to the student. Such criticism makes sense to a certain degree because the student needs to make sense of the knowledge before it can be assimilated or accommodated.

However, the findings of the present study indicate that, transmissionist teaching approaches do have advantages. Individual students need to construct knowledge that makes sense to themselves, but they cannot do so in a vacuum of knowledge. They need to know the existence of relevant knowledge first. Transmission of knowledge is perhaps one of the most effective or efficient ways of telling students where and what essential knowledge is. It does not mean that all students can assimilate the knowledge after it is conveyed to them. It only means that they know where to get it and how to use it if they decide to do so in the future or when the timing is appropriate. Therefore, how knowledge is conveyed to students as a resource and how it is constructed by them should be seen as two distinct processes of learning.

What needs to be taken into consideration is the psychological cost caused by

transmissionist teaching approaches. When knowledge transmitted by the teacher is regarded as the only knowledge that students need to know or can use, negative feelings may occur and de-motivate or a-motivate students from learning or exploring new learning experience autonomously.

9.3.4. Product or Process?

In recent decades, there has been a call for a shift in translator training from product-centred to more process-centred approaches. One main rationale for such argument is that one can learn good strategies from investigating translating process or find reasons for translation mistakes (e.g. Gile, 1995). However, such debates, it may be argued, overlook the psychological effects of product-centred and process-centred approaches.

For instance, the present study found that focusing on translating process may increase students' self-perceived progress and hence self-perceived translation competence, while focusing on translation (the *product*) has the opposite effect, leading to low self-perceived translation competence and hence low motivation to learn. However, the present study also found that differences in meaning presented in different translation products can lead students to question why such differences exist, and this in turn may motivate them to reflect more deeply and examine their own and others' meaning schemes/perspectives. This implies that the debate between product- and process-centred approaches needs to be further investigated.

9.4. Future Research

Translation studies is a much younger discipline than other more established disciplines, such as linguistics, adult learning, second language learning, and

educational psychology. It is natural that it borrows from other disciplines as there is no need to repeat research in areas where translation and other professions share common ground.

However, Translation Studies is a unique discipline and has its own body of knowledge and practice. It requires discipline-oriented teaching and learning approaches and skills. Although increasing numbers of translation scholars (see Chapter Two) have devoted themselves to research in this applied branch of Translation Studies (Holmes, 1972/2000), some areas have not yet been fully covered.

The present study took up the challenge of exploring the area of trainee translators' learning activities and it has generated interesting findings. The findings and most of their implications have been discussed in the previous chapters, but other equally interesting issues, which fell outside the scope of the present study, were noted. Some of the most promising ideas for further research based on these issues are listed below.

9.4.1. Reflection and Habitual Action

The present study has found that reflective thinking plays an essential role in trainee translators' learning, but further research is required to explore the relationship between trainee translators' reflective thinking and habitual action (see 2.4.1.). After students reflectively think through a translation problem, resulting in, for instance, changes in their frame of reference of meaning or meaning schemes/perspectives, how does the result of such changes become a habitual action?

Practice is perhaps one of the easiest answers to this question. However, if one compares this process of learning to translate to riding a bicycle, one would find that, before riding a bicycle becomes a habitual action, one has to learn how to keep balance and how to steer. Likewise, there are methods that facilitate the learning of typing more effectively and efficiently before typing becomes a habitual action. Therefore, in translator training, practice is an easy answer but it apparently is not all the answer.

This is reminiscent of the finding from the TAP research of Jääskeläinen and Tirkkonen-Condit (1991) that, while decision-making processes in some areas become automated, the translator becomes more conscious about decision-making in some other areas. Further study, that uses TAP and research methods that include reflective thinking (e.g. diary), may be able to provide some answers to how students' reflective actions may become habitual actions. This can then help to design translation curriculum in a more informed way.

9.4.2. Reflective Thinking Ability and Translation Quality

The present study has found evidence that reflective thinking abilities can facilitate trainee translators' learning process. According to motivation theories and adult learning theories, this should result in better translation quality in the long run after students' translation competence has been improved. In other words, *increase* in reflective thinking ability should result in better translation quality through changes in meaning schemes/perspectives.

However, direct links between reflective thinking ability and translation quality are not demonstrated in the present study. A long-term quantitative research, therefore, may

be able to make conclusions on any such links.

9.4.3. Professional and Trainee Translators' Motivation

The present study has identified perceived competence as an important motivational factor for trainee translators. However, students can be motivated by a variety of sources (Dörnyei and Murphey, 2003). In the present study, it was found that some students' prior learning experience had great influence on their motivation to learn in their current translation programme. However, the present study also found that students' learning experience could be influenced by their belief about learning in general and their perceived value of learning and life, but there was not enough data in the present study to explore this issue further.

These aspects require further investigation so that trainee translators' motivation can be further understood. Likewise, we know relatively little about professional translators' motivation while they are working professionally, nor about factors that influence their motivation. If translation is to become more firmly established as a profession, all aspects of its practice and factors that influence its practice should be investigated so the profession can be described more completely. Motivation, as an important aspect of human nature, cannot be neglected. In addition, only when we know more about both professional and trainee translators' motivation and the main factors involved can we provide better teaching support.

9.5. Final Remarks

The present study has made interesting findings about how diary, think-aloud, and small group discussion are used by trainee translators as learning activities, and how they can be used in a more effective and efficient way. It has also identified important

factors that influence trainee translators' learning through the three learning activities. These findings have contributed to our understanding of trainee translators' learning and have provided some ideas for future research. Although the research journey of the present study has now ended, it is not the end of research needing to be done in the pedagogical branch of Translation Studies.

Appendices

Appendix A: The English Source Texts

Source Text 1

Extracted from "France and Its Muslims" by Stéphanie Giry, September/October 2006, *Foreign Affairs*

Over the past few years, terrorist bombings of the public transport systems of Madrid and London have sparked fears that Europe may be breeding its own crop of indigenous jihadists. Less understandably, those events have also sometimes been conflated with events such as the murder of the Dutch filmmaker Theo van Gogh by a deranged fanatic, last fall's riots in the French banlieues, and recent protests over disparaging cartoons of the Prophet Muhammad. Together, these events have been taken as evidence that the immigration and integration policies of several European countries have all failed.

This diagnosis is glib and alarmist, and it overlooks more nuanced and encouraging sociological realities. What to do about homegrown Muslim terrorism is a serious question, of course, but it is not the only one worth asking. And too often it obscures a critical fact: that the vast majority of Europe's 15-20 million Muslims have nothing to do with radical Islamism and are struggling hard to fit in, not opt out. The problem of jihadism is largely distinct from the issue of Muslims' integration into the European mainstream.

Source Text 2

Extracted from "Ill-conceived and unenforceable"
20 November 2006, *The Independent*

There are some subjects where social disapproval is a more appropriate reaction than the blunt instrument of the law. It may even be counterproductive, as with hunting which now has more active followers than ever before.

The police are, perhaps wisely, doing little to enforce this badly drafted, poorly conceived law. We live in a pluralist society in which morality is increasingly relative. There are wide disagreements on many issues, of which the proper balance between animal rights and human liberty is but one example. But good law requires consensus and that does not exist; indeed there are parts of the country - where hunting takes place - where the consensus is pretty much anti-anti-hunting. And disregard for authority is encoded in English DNA.

In the past we argued that Parliament had better things to do than legislate on an issue which was totemic for all the wrong reasons, smacking as it did of the facile posturing of an outdated class war. Politicians should not have wasted their time on this. Nor, now, should the police. Aggressive enforcement risks undermining the consent of the public to be governed. Animal rights activists will be indignant but inaction is, here, the right course of action.

Source Text 3

Extracted from "A disturbing indictment of our values and priorities"

08 November 2006, *The Independent*

Guess which radical campaigning organisation recently said the following: "We continue to imprison too many people with mental health problems... The majority of offenders with lower-level disorders are not dangerous and could be better treated outside the prison system without any risk to the public." The answer? Not some prison reform lobby group, but the British Government. The words are taken from Labour's five-year plan to reduce reoffending.

So why, given such a clear understanding and commitment, was a report issued by MPs (member of parliament) yesterday branding the way prison deals with mentally-ill people as "dysfunctional" and claiming that the current overcrowding in jails - with Britain's highest prison population ever - is making things worse for unstable inmates?

The plain fact is that despite all the rhetoric about fighting crime, prison is not a political priority for this government, or for any previous one. Those in prison are, general public opinion holds, the lowest of the low who deserve everything they get. And of these invisible outlaws, the ones who are most kept out of public mind are the mentally ill. To be sure, there is an outcry when a newly released schizophrenic runs amok with a machete or pushes someone under a Tube train. But as soon as the news spotlight is removed, the blind eye is turned.

Source Text 4

Extracted from "Speaking truthiness to power" by Julia Hobsbawm,

May 26, 2006, *The Guardian*

Imagine that big business launches a new brand called Truth. This brand would have the values beloved of modern advertising, namely mass appeal and that coveted but

intangible ingredient, integrity.

Media loves to espouse truth, even though trust in truth has worn thin amongst the public. A recent MORI poll showed that 77% of people do not trust journalists to tell the truth, beating government by several points. (We still trust doctors, apparently, but I doubt that extends to spin doctors.)

The reddest "red top" proclaims that truth matters above all else, hence the hasty despatch of its editor, Piers Morgan, in 2004 for publishing falsified pictures of prisoner abuse in Iraq. The fact that he actually broke a story of international significance did not matter: editorial heads roll fast if it can be proved that they publish lies. The New York Times famously suffered from the scandals of Jayson Blair and Judith Miller - the latter accused by the columnist Maureen Dowd on her own paper of being little more than a "stenographer for the White House".

So the brand of truth has become tarnished and that most feared thing a brand or product can be: disbelieved. So can Truth continue to sell?

Source Text 5

Extracted from "Top-Secret Torture"

November 21, 2006, The Washington Post

BURIED WITHIN a recent government brief in the case of Guantanamo Bay inmate Majid Khan is one of the more disturbing arguments the Bush administration has advanced in the legal struggles surrounding the war on terrorism. Mr. Khan was one of the al-Qaeda suspects who was detained in a secret prison of the CIA and subjected to "alternative" interrogation tactics -- the administration's chilling phrase for methods most people regard as torture. Now the government is arguing that by subjecting detainees to such treatment, the CIA gives them "top secret" classified information -- and the government can then take extraordinary measures to keep them quiet about it. If this argument carries the day, it will make virtually impossible any accountability for the administration's treatment of top al-Qaeda detainees. And it will also ensure that key parts of any military trials get litigated in secrecy.

Mr. Khan is one of 14 people transferred to Guantanamo earlier this year from the CIA's secret prison program. After his transfer, lawyers seeking to represent him asked for an order granting them access on the same terms as lawyers representing other detainees. The government objected on two main grounds. It contended that the

court lacks jurisdiction because of two new laws that strip federal courts of authority over detainee matters.

Source Text 6

Extracted from "How to Keep the Bomb From Iran" By Scott D. Sagan
September/October, 2006, *Foreign Affairs*

The ongoing crisis with Tehran is not the first time Washington has had to face a hostile government attempting to develop nuclear weapons. Nor is it likely to be the last. Yet the reasoning of U.S. officials now struggling to deal with Iran's nuclear ambitions is clouded by a kind of historical amnesia, which leads to both creeping fatalism about the United States' ability to keep Iran from getting the bomb and excessive optimism about the United States' ability to contain Iran if it does become a nuclear power. Proliferation fatalism and deterrence optimism reinforce each other in a disturbing way. As nuclear proliferation comes to be seen as inevitable, wishful thinking can make its consequences seem less severe, and if faith in deterrence grows, incentives to combat proliferation diminish.

A U.S. official in the executive branch anonymously told The New York Times in March 2006, "The reality is that most of us think the Iranians are probably going to get a weapon, or the technology to make one, sooner or later." Such proliferation fatalists argue that over the long term, it may be impossible to stop Iran -- or other states for that matter -- from getting the bomb.

Appendix B: Questionnaires

(1) Questionnaire A

Self-learning Workshop

Dear Participants,

Please read the following questions and answer them in **Chinese and/or English**, whichever you feel most natural at the time. This questionnaire aims at helping me understand and analyze your learning patterns, so please answer them with as many details as possible and use as much space as you like. If there is any question that you are not sure of the meaning, please feel free to contact me.

Please also note that the information you provide in this questionnaire will only be used by me for research purpose and will not be disclosed to any third party without seeking your prior written permission. If there is any information you do not feel comfortable to provide me with, you do not need to provide it.

All the best,

Part I: Basic information:

1. _____ Age group (a) 21-25 (b) 26-30 (c) 31-35 (c) 36-40 (d) others
2. What is your language proficiency? (e.g. How many languages can you speak? How long have you been studying them? How would you rate your proficiency in each language?)
3. What is your education/training background (major, minor, related to translating and/or interpreting or not)
4. What is your work experience (e.g. related to translating and/or interpreting or not)
5. What kind of book/magazine/publication do you prefer? (Your reading preference)

Part II: Study habits related to translating

1. What are your general strategies for translating (procedure, process, informant, dictionary, relying on teachers, oneself or other methods, etc.)
2. Do you feel you are making acceptable progress so far? If you do, how? In what aspects (e.g. language, translating skills)? If not, why?
3. Have you ever heard of or used “diary” as a learning method? What is your impression on it?
4. Have you ever heard of or used “think-aloud” as a learning method? What is your impression on it?
5. Have you ever heard of or used “discussion” as a learning method? What is your impression on it?

Part III: Expectations

1. Why did you enroll in the T&I program? Please elaborate. (e.g. personal choice, family pressure, social pressure, organization pressure, career pressure.)
2. What is your expectation of the program?
3. What is your expectation of curricula?
4. What is your expectation of teachers?
5. What is your expectation of yourself?
6. Other expectations?

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR TIME !

(2) Questionnaire B

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR THE DIARY-LEARNING MODE

PART I*

Please fill in the appropriate alphabet (A~E) to indicate your level of agreement with statements about your actions and thinking in the diary/TA/SGD-learning mode.

** In this questionnaire, the “diary” refers to a learning diary.

*** Please **DO NOT REFER BACK** to the questionnaire you did for your first learning mode.

A— definitely agree (完全同意)

B— agree with reservation (同意但有所保留)

C— only to be used if a definite answer is not possible (其他選項均不適用時)

D— disagree with reservation (不同意但有所保留)

E— definitely disagree (完全不同意)

- _____ 1. When I am working on some translations, I can do them without thinking about what I am doing.
- _____ 2. To complete a translation requires me to understand translation concepts.
- _____ 3. When keeping a diary, I sometimes question the way I do translations and try to think of a better way.
- _____ 4. As a result of keeping diaries, I have changed the way I translate.
- _____ 5. I do translations so many times that I started doing some of them without thinking about it.
- _____ 6. To complete a translation, I need to understand translation skills.
- _____ 7. In the diary mode, I like to think over how I have been translating and consider alternative ways of doing it.
- _____ 8. Keeping diaries has challenged some of my firmly held ideas/thoughts.
- _____ 9. As long as I remember what I have learned about translating, I do not have to think too much.
- _____ 10. I need to understand what I have learned about translating in order to perform translation tasks.
- _____ 11. In the diary mode, I often reflect on my translating actions to see whether I could have improved on what I did.
- _____ 12. As a result of keeping diaries, I have changed my normal way of doing

translations.

- _____ 13. If I follow the translation skills/concepts that I know, I do not have to think too much on them.
- _____ 14. I have to continually think about the translation concepts/skills that I know.
- _____ 15. In the diary-learning mode, I often re-appraise my translating experience so I can learn from it and improve for my next performance.
- _____ 16. When keeping a diary, I discovered faults in what I had previously believed to be right.

PART II

Please give as many detailed answers as possible. Please use **CHINESE AND/OR ENGLISH (中英文)** whichever is the most natural and expressive at the time. You may use as much space as you like.

(A) General Impression on Diary

13. What is your general impression on diary as a learning mode?
14. What are the advantages and/or disadvantages of keeping a learning diary?
15. How far does keeping a learning diary help or hinder your reflection (反省、思考)?
In what aspects?
16. How often and how long do you think is appropriate for keeping learning diaries?

(B) Impression on the Diary done in this Workshop

17. Did knowing that you would keep a learning diary have any influence on your translating behaviours? If yes, what was the influence?

FOR QUESTIONS 6~9, LOOKING AT YOUR LEARNING DIARIES MAY HELP TO REMIND YOU.

18. When did you decide what to write (e.g. while translating, before starting to write the diary, when you are writing a diary, other time, etc. There may be more than one answer.)?
19. Before you started to write your diary, did you organize your thoughts and think about what to write? If yes, how did you organize them? If no, how did you come up with a diary?
20. While you were writing your learning diary, did you come up with new ideas and/or questions? If yes, what were they? And what triggered them?
21. After you finished writing your learning diaries, have you ever thought about them? If yes, in what aspects? In no, were there any reasons?

22. Did keeping a learning diary have any influence on you (e.g. on your thoughts, attitudes, translating behaviours or anything else)? If yes, what was the influence?
23. After completing this diary-learning mode, will you consider using diary as a learning method? If yes, why? If no, why not?
24. Please read your diaries as follows. How do you feel about them? Have you had any findings (e.g. feelings, behaviours, processes, or anything else)? If yes, what are they?

Thank you very much for your time !

* Part I of this questionnaire was adapted from the Reflection Questionnaire presented in the paper entitled "Development of a Questionnaire to Measure the Level of Reflective Thinking" by David Kember, Doris Y.P. Leung, Alice Jones, Alice Yuen Loke, Jan McKay, Kit Sinclair, Harrison Tse, Celia Webb, Frances Kam Yuet Wong, Marian Wong and Ella Yeung, Hong Kong Polytechnic University, Hung Hom, Kowloon, Hong Kong. The copyright on the original questionnaire is owned by the forenamed authors.

(3) Questionnaire C

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR THE THINK-ALOUD MODE

PART I*

Please fill in the appropriate alphabet (A~E) to indicate your level of agreement with statements about your actions and thinking in the think-aloud-learning mode.

F— definitely agree (完全同意)

G— agree with reservation (同意但有所保留)

H— only to be used if a definite answer is not possible (其他選項均不適用時)

I— disagree with reservation (不同意但有所保留)

J— definitely disagree (完全不同意)

- _____ 1. When I am working on some translations, I can do them without thinking about what I am doing.
- _____ 2. To complete a translation requires me to understand translation concepts.
- _____ 3. When doing the think-aloud mode, I sometimes question the way I do translations and try to think of a better way.
- _____ 4. As a result of the think-aloud mode, I have changed the way I translate.
- _____ 5. I do translations so many times that I started doing some of them without thinking about it.
- _____ 6. To complete a translation, I need to understand translation skills.
- _____ 7. In the think-aloud mode, I like to think over how I have been translating and consider alternative ways of doing it.
- _____ 8. The think-aloud mode has challenged some of my firmly held ideas/thoughts.
- _____ 9. As long as I remember what I have learned about translating, I do not have to think too much.
- _____ 10. I need to understand what I have learned about translating in order to perform translation tasks.
- _____ 11. In the think-aloud mode, I often reflect on my translating actions to see whether I could have improved on what I did.
- _____ 12. As a result of doing think-aloud mode, I have changed my normal way of doing translations.
- _____ 13. If I follow the translation skills/concepts that I know, I do not have to think too much on them.

- _____ 14. I have to continually think about the translation concepts/skills that I know.
- _____ 15. In the think-aloud-learning mode, I often re-appraise my translating experience so I can learn from it and improve for my next performance.
- _____ 16. In the think-aloud learning mode, I discovered faults in what I had previously believed to be right.

PART II

Please give as many detailed answers as possible. Please use **CHINESE AND/OR ENGLISH (中英文)** whichever is the most natural and expressive at the time. You may use as much space as you like.

(A) General Impression on Discussion

1. What is your general impression on think-aloud as a learning mode?
2. What are the advantages and/or disadvantages of the think-aloud learning mode?
3. Does the think-aloud learning mode help or hinder your reflection (反省、思考)? In what aspects?
4. How often and how long do you think is appropriate for doing think-aloud while translating?

(B) Impression on the Discussions done in this Workshop

5. Did knowing that you would do think-aloud while translating have any influence on your translating behaviors? If yes, how did it influence you?
6. When did you decide what to write in your learning protocol? (e.g. before listening to your recordings, while listening to your recordings, after finishing listening to your recordings, or other time, etc. There may be more than one answer.)
7. While you were writing your learning protocol, did you come up with new ideas and/or questions? If yes, what were they? And what triggered them?
8. After you finished writing your learning protocols, have you ever thought about them? If yes, in what aspects? In no, were there any reasons?
9. Did doing the think aloud mode have any influence on you? If yes, how did it influence you?
10. After completing the think-aloud mode, will you consider using think-aloud as a learning method? If yes, why? If no, why not?
11. Please read your learning protocols as follows. How do you feel about them? Do you have any findings? If yes, what are they?

Thank you very much for your time !

* Part I of this questionnaire was adapted from the Reflection Questionnaire presented in the paper entitled “Development of a Questionnaire to Measure the Level of Reflective Thinking” by David Kember, Doris Y.P. Leung, Alice Jones, Alice Yuen Loke, Jan McKay, Kit Sinclair, Harrison Tse, Celia Webb, Frances Kam Yuet Wong, Marian Wong and Ella Yeung, Hong Kong Polytechnic University, Hung Hom, Kowloon, Hong Kong. The copyright on the original questionnaire is owned by the forenamed authors.

(4) Questionnaire D

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR THE SGD-LEARNING MODE

PART I*

Please fill in the appropriate alphabet (A~E) to indicate your level of agreement with statements about your actions and thinking in the discussion-learning mode.

K— definitely agree (完全同意)

L— agree with reservation (同意但有所保留)

M— only to be used if a definite answer is not possible (其他選項均不適用時)

N— disagree with reservation (不同意但有所保留)

O— definitely disagree (完全不同意)

- _____ 1. When I am working on some translations, I can do them without thinking about what I am doing.
- _____ 2. To complete a translation requires me to understand translation concepts/skills.
- _____ 3. In discussion, I sometimes question the way others do translations and try to think of a better way.
- _____ 4. As a result of discussion, I have changed the way I translate.
- _____ 5. I do translations so many times that I started doing some of them without thinking about it.
- _____ 6. To complete a translation, I need to understand translation concepts/skills.
- _____ 7. In the discussion mode, I like to think over how I have been translating and consider alternative ways of doing it.
- _____ 8. Discussion has challenged some of my firmly held ideas/thoughts.
- _____ 9. As long as I remember what I have learned about translating, I do not have to think too much.
- _____ 10. I need to understand what I have learned about translating in order to perform translation tasks.
- _____ 11. In the discussion mode, I often reflect on my translating actions to see whether I could have improved on what I did.
- _____ 12. As a result of discussion, I have changed my normal way of doing translations.
- _____ 13. If I follow the translation skills/concepts that I know, I do not have to think too much on them.
- _____ 14. I have to continually think about the translation concepts/skills that I know.

- _____ 15. In the discussion-learning mode, I often re-appraise my translating experience so I can learn from it and improve for my next performance.
- _____ 16. During discussion, I discovered faults in what I had previously believed to be right.

PART II

Please give as many detailed answers as possible. Please use **CHINESE AND/OR ENGLISH (中英文)** whichever is the most natural and expressive at the time. You may use as much space as you like.

(A) General Impression on Discussion

25. What is your general impression on discussions as a learning mode?
26. What are the advantages and/or disadvantages of discussions?
27. Do discussion help or hinder your reflection (反省、思考)? In what aspects?
28. How often and how long do you think is appropriate for doing discussion?

(B) Impression on the Discussions done in this Workshop

29. Did knowing that you would do a discussion have any influence on your translating behaviors? If yes, what was the influence?
30. Did you prepare for the discussions? If yes, what did you prepare and when did that happen? If no, were there any reasons?
31. While you were discussing, did you have new ideas and/or questions coming up? If yes, what were they? And what triggered them?
32. After you did the discussions, have you ever thought about them? If yes, in what aspects? In no, were there any reasons?
33. Did the discussions have any influence on you? If yes, what was the influence?
34. After completing this learning mode, will you consider using discussion as a learning method? If yes, why? If no, why not?

Thank you very much for your time !

* Part I of this questionnaire was adapted from the Reflection Questionnaire presented in the paper entitled "Development of a Questionnaire to Measure the Level of Reflective Thinking" by David Kember, Doris Y.P. Leung, Alice Jones, Alice Yuen Loke, Jan McKay, Kit Sinclair, Harrison Tse, Celia Webb, Frances Kam Yuet Wong, Marian Wong and Ella Yeung, Hong Kong Polytechnic University, Hung Hom, Kowloon, Hong Kong. The copyright on the original questionnaire is owned by the forenamed authors.

Appendix C: Questionnaire by Kember et al. (2000)

Habitual Action

1. When I am working on some activities, I can do them without thinking about what I am doing.
5. In this course we do things so many times that I started doing them without thinking about it.
9. As long as I can remember handout material for examinations, I do not have to think too much.
13. If I follow what the lecturer says, I do not have to think too much on this course.

Understanding

2. This course requires us to understand concepts taught by the lecturer.
6. To pass this course you need to understand the content.
10. I need to understand the material taught by the teacher in order to perform practical tasks.
14. In this course you have to continually think about the material you are being taught.

Reflection

3. I sometimes question the way others do something and try to think of a better way.
7. I like to think over what I have been doing and consider alternative ways of doing it.
11. I often reflect on my actions to see whether I could have improved on what I did.
15. I often re-appraise my experience so I can learn from it and improve for my next performance.

Critical Reflection

4. As a result of this course I have changed the way I look at myself.
8. This course has challenged some of my firmly held ideas.
12. As a result of this course I have changed my normal way of doing things.
16. During this course I discovered faults in what I had previously believed to be right.

Appendix D: Subjects' Learning Motivation, Learning Progress and Attributed Causes

Subject No.	Learning Motivation			Learning Progress	Attributed Causes *
	Career	Interest	English		
A	√	--	--	√	Speed Skills
B	√	√	--	X	Quality
C	--	√	--	X	Background knowledge
D	√	--	--	√	Skills
E	√	--	--	X	Quality Time management
F	--	--	√	X	Not study hard enough
G	√	√	--	X	Quality
H	√	--	--	√	Language Skills
I	--	--	√	√	Skills
J	√	--	--	√	Speed Skills Quality
K	√	√	--	X	Quality
L	--	√	--	√	Language Skills
M	√	--	--	X	English
N	√	√	--	√	Speed
				X	English
O	√	√	√	√	English Speed Skills
P	√	√	--	X	Skills
Q	√	--	--	√	Speed
R	√	√	--	√	Skills
				X	Quality
S	--	√	--	√	Skills
T	--	√	--	√	Skills
U	√	--	--	√	Skills Background knowledge
V	√	√	--	X	Not enough practice

W	√	√	--	√	Speed Skills
---	---	---	----	---	-----------------

* √:yes, X:no, and --: not mentioned by the subject.

Appendix E: Instructions for the Diary Learning Mode

Please keep a diary **right after** completing each translation. You may use English and/or Chinese, whichever you feel most natural at the time.

- I. **Guidelines** (Please note that these are only guidelines. You may write down any thoughts related to each translation task.)
- (5) Please describe your translating process (How do you translate? How do you solve problems? What strategies do you use? How do you make decisions? How much time do you use? How do you feel while translating, etc.)
 - (6) Please assess your own translation (the product), (Do you feel it is an acceptable translation? Are there sentences/phrases/words that can be polished more but you don't know how? etc.)
 - (7) General impression of this task's difficulty (Why is it difficult or easy for you? etc.)
 - (8) You may note down anything you think is important to your learning.

You need to turn in your **translation and diary** by email after you complete each translation.

Appendix F: Instructions for the Think-aloud Learning Mode

PART I: Guidelines for the think-aloud learning mode

Please generate a think-aloud recording while you are translating and a learning journal after you finish translating.

Guidelines (Please note these are only guidelines. You may write down any thoughts related to each translation task and may use English and/or Chinese, whichever you feel most natural at the time.)

- (1) You may note down anything related to your translating process (How do you translate? How do you solve problems? What strategies do you use? How do you make decisions? How much time do you use? How do you feel while translating, etc.)
- (2) You may note down anything related to your translation (the product), (Is it an acceptable translation? Are there sentences/phrases/words that can be polished more but you don't know how? etc.)
- (3) You may note down your general impression of this task's difficulty. (why is it difficult or easy for you? etc.)
- (4) You may note down anything you think is important to your learning.

You need to turn in your **translation and learning protocol** by email after you complete each translation. You need to turn in your recordings after you complete each translation or after you complete the learning mode.

Part II: Materials for the Think-aloud training session

1. **Practice Procedures** (think aloud when you are working on the questions.)
(adapted from Ericsson et al., 1984, 1993)
 - (a) What is the result of 2×3 ? 4×6 ? 2×8 ?
 - (b) What is the result of 19×28 ? 14×17 ? 23×13 ?
 - (c) Name 20 people that you know.
 - (d) How do you translate "How are you?" "Thank you." "I will come."
 - (e) How do you translate "Writing on this topic is not very easy"?
 - (f) How do you translate "Writing on the topic of humour in the Arab World?"
 - (g) How do you translate "Writing on the topic of humour in the Arab World,

past and present, is a task full of danger.

2. How do we think aloud and generate a recording?

You may use English and/or Chinese, whichever you feel most natural at the time.

Example:

Writing on the topic of political humour in the Arab World, past and present, is a task full of danger.

以阿拉伯世界的政治幽默為撰寫的主題，無論是過去或現在的阿拉伯世界，都是一件充滿危險的工作。

Transcribe the recording into a protocol:

Writing on the topic of political humour in the Arab World, past and present, is a task full of danger.....所以先從.阿拉伯世界開始翻，以阿拉伯世界的政治幽默，以阿拉伯世界的政治幽默為撰寫的主題,按一下滑鼠,為撰寫...選 1...為撰寫的主題...把它改成全形,是一份充滿危險的工作,句點,先用小點代替, **past and present**, 無論是..插在逗點後面..無論是過去或現在的阿拉伯世界, 待會可能要再修一下...無論是過去或現在的阿拉伯世界，都是一件充滿危險的工作,阿拉伯世界重複了,所以,無論以現在或過去的,過去或現在的阿拉伯世界為主題,無論以現在或過去的阿拉伯世界,先這樣子好了.

3. What is the “learning protocol” you will be generating for the workshop?

You don't need to transcribe actually. Instead, what you need to do is: listen to your recordings and write down things that you think are important to your learning.

Example:

Writing on the topic of political humour in the Arab World, past and present, is a task full of danger.....所以先從.阿拉伯世界開始翻 (1)，以阿拉伯世界的政治幽默，以阿拉伯世界的政治幽默為撰寫的主題,按一下滑鼠,為撰寫...選 1...為撰寫的主題...把它改成全形,是一份充滿危險的工作,句點,先用小點代替, past and present (2), 無論是..插在逗點後面..無論是過去或現在的阿拉伯世界, 待會可能要再修一下...無論是過去或現在的阿拉伯世界，都是一件充滿危險的工作,阿拉伯世界重複了,所以,無論以現在或過去的,過去或現在的阿拉伯世界為主題,無論以現在或過去的阿拉伯世界,先這樣子好了.

You may write down anything your think is important. For example:

- (1) You may write down “I started from ”阿拉伯世界” if you think it is important to you.
- (2) Or: I didn’t know where I should place “past and present” so I changed my mind several times. Then I decided to revise it later. I spent 15 minutes on this sentence, too long. I wandered a while.

Appendix G: Instructions for the Discussion Learning Mode

There are some guidelines for your discussion, but you may discuss any other issue raised by this task that you think is important to your learning. You may use English and/or Chinese in your discussion, whichever you feel most natural at the time.

- (1) You may discuss your translating process (How do you translate? How do you solve problems? What strategies do you use? How do you make decisions? How much time do you use? How do you feel while translating?, etc.)
- (2) You may discuss your translation (the product), (Is it an acceptable translation? Are there sentences/phrases/words that can be polished more but you don't know how? etc.)
- (3) You may discuss your general impression of this task's difficulty (why is it difficult or easy for you? etc.)
- (4) You may discuss anything you think is important to your learning.

You need to turn in your **translation by email** after you complete each text.

Appendix H: The Pilot Study The Coding System for TAP Used in the Pilot

Categories:

Source text – Strategies -- Target text

1. Translation Problems

(A) Comprehension problems:

morphemic level (CD-M)

word level (CD-W)

phrase level (CD-P)

clause level (CD-C)

sentence level (CD-S)

discourse level (CD-D)

idiom level (CD-I)

culture-related (CD-CR)

(B) Author-related problems:

temporal difference (A-T)

activism (A-A)

writing style (A-W)

(C) Transfer problems:

literal vs. free (CC-LF)

domesticating vs. foreignizing (CC-DF)

Amplification vs. omission (CC-AO)

(D) Others (CC-O)

2. Strategies:

(A) Comprehension strategies:

Bilingual dictionary (CS-BD)

Monolingual dictionary (CS-MD)

Inference (CS-I)

Author's background checking-up (CS-AB)

Era-specific publications (CS-EP)

Others (CS-O)

(B) Retrieval strategies:

Equivalence (RS-IE)

Class shift (RS-CS)

Segmentation (RS-S)
Semantic analysis (RS-SA)
Others (RS-O)

(C) Decision-making strategies

Intuition (DS-I)
Experience (DS-E)
Theory (DS-T)
Others (DS-O)

3. Effectiveness

Very effective effective fair ineffective very ineffective

4. Efficiency

Very efficient efficient fair inefficient very inefficient

5. Note

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