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Conceptualizing translation revision competence: A pilot study on the 'fairness and tolerance' attitudinal component

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Although translation revision plays a crucial role in the production of high-quality translations, research into translation revision competence (TRC) is relatively new and underdeveloped compared with research into translation competence (TC). This article addresses that gap by focusing on the validation of the TRC model developed by Robert, Remael and Ureel. Using questionnaires and revision tasks in a pretest–posttest experimental design, we investigated whether a course on revision and editing affected the degree of fairness and tolerance that participants showed when revising others' translations. Analyses of the results showed that the participants in the experimental group did not make fewer unnecessary changes after taking a course on revision and editing. In addition, the types and sizes of the unnecessary changes that they made were not influenced by taking the revision and editing course. However, when exposed to a revision task without clear instructions and context, participants who had taken the course on revision and editing were significantly less categorical when providing post-treatment answers, even though this behaviour was not reflected in their attitudes in the revision tasks. These findings invite further research into the attitudinal component of TRC.

Conceptualizing translation revision competence: A pilot study on the 'fairness and tolerance' attitudinal component

1. Introduction

According to the International Standard for Translation Services (ISO 17100) and its predecessor, the European standard EN 15038 for translation services, translation services providers have to include a 'revision' phase in their production process and are expected to "ensure that the target language content is revised" (International Organization for Standardization, 2015, p. 10). The revision is performed by a reviser after the translation phase, that is, after the translation-production phase carried out by the translator, who is also expected to self-revise the translation. The reviser is someone other than the translator and has all the translator's competences defined in the standard: translation competence, linguistic and textual competence in the source and the target languages, competence in research, information acquisition and processing, cultural competence, technical competence and domain competence (International Organization for Standardization, 2015, p. 6). In addition, the reviser must fulfil the same qualification criteria as the translator, that is, be a recognized translation graduate from a higher education institute (HEI), or a recognized graduate (in any other field) from an HEI with two years of full-time professional experience in translating, or a full-time professional with five years of full-time experience in translating. Moreover, the graduate is expected to have "translation and/or revision experience in the domain under consideration" (International Organization for Standardization, 2015, p. 6). In other words, according to the standard, experienced translators should be able to revise and there does not seem to be a difference in competence between translators and revisers, except that the latter must also have experience.

By contrast, Translation Studies scholars investigating revision and revision competence seem to agree that translation revision competence (TRC) does indeed share various subcompetences with translation competence (TC), but that there are some fundamental differences between the two profiles and that TRC implies additional subcompetences. In her comparison of the concepts of translation and revision, Hansen (2009) states that "translation revision seems to require additional skills, abilities and attitudes, and/or enhanced levels of competence in certain areas" (p. 274). Hansen's conceptual definition closely resembles Mossop's view (1992). He had already included in his description of the goals of a revision course for translation students that the ability to justify changes is a crucial step towards becoming a better reviser and that, for translators, it is crucial to "achieve the mental switch from a 'retranslating' to a 'revising' frame of mind" (Mossop, 1992, p. 82). In addition, Mossop (2014) underscored the significance of interpersonal skills, as did Horguelin and Brunette (1998) in their revision handbook. Likewise, Künzli (2006) agrees that the acquisition of interpersonal competence should constitute an important focal point in courses on translation revision.

Drawing on insights from different models in TC (PACTE, 2003, 2008, 2009, 2011a, 2011b, 2014, 2015), TransComp (Göpferich, 2009), EMT (EMT Expert Group, 2009) and research in revision (competence), Robert, Remael and Ureel (2016) proposed a model of translation revision competence (TRC) consisting of nine subcompetences and three variables determining the use of all subcompetences (Figure 1).

Figure 1. Robert et al. (2016) TRC Model

Robert et al. (2016) started the validation of their TRC model in a pilot study conducted at the University of Antwerp within the framework of a one-year research project (2014–2015) focusing on four elements: (1) the knowledge-about-research subcompetence, (2) the strategic subcompetence, (3) the tools and research subcompetence and (4) the psycho-physiological components of revision competence. Results for the first three elements have already been reported (Rigouts Terryn, Robert, Ureel, Remael, & Hanoulle, in press; Robert, Rigouts Terryn, Ureel, & Remael, in press)[1]. The present article will focus on the last element, that is, the aforementioned psycho-physiological components. In their model, Robert et al. (2016) tried to define these components as accurately as possible, since they are partially similar to personal qualities in TC models, which are sometimes said to be poorly categorized (Pym, 2013, p. 489). In the model, psycho-physiological components are both cognitive and attitudinal components, but they also include psycho-motor mechanisms, although this is not explicitly mentioned in the definition. The definition remains tentative at this stage of the research project, since it is based only on the PACTE and TransComp models and because it has not been tested yet. In the 2016 model, the components are defined as follows:

(1) memory, emotion, creativity, logical reasoning, analysis and synthesis, intellectual curiosity, perseverance, rigour, critical spirit, knowledge of and confidence in one's own abilities, the ability to measure one's own abilities, motivation;

(2) perception: ability to abstract or distance oneself from one's own or others' previous formulations;

(3) attention: attentiveness to pragmatic, linguistic, stylistic phenomena and errors;

(4) fairness and tolerance: revising frame of mind as opposed to retranslating (*Does the text need to be improved?* and not *Can the text be improved?*);

(5) specific attitudes such as sociability, respect for others, patience, honesty, sense of responsibility, modesty (Robert et al., 2016).

In the pilot study referred to above, one particular attitudinal component was investigated: 'fairness and tolerance'. This component was identified by Hansen (2009, pp. 274–275), who compared TC with TRC after a longitudinal study of revision with translation students and professionals. As noted by Robert (2012), 'fairness and tolerance' and the 'ability to explain' seem to be the only two differences between TC and TRC in Hansen's model. In this article, we will concentrate on the results of the pilot study related to the following hypotheses on fairness and tolerance:

(1) Hypothesis 1 (H1): Compared with translation trainees, revision trainees show more fairness and tolerance, in that they make fewer hyperrevisions (= unnecessary changes, see Section 2).

(2) Hypothesis 2 (H2): Compared with translation trainees, revision trainees show more fairness and tolerance, in that their hyperrevisions involve as few words as possible in a text-based revision task.

(3) Hypothesis 3 (H3): Compared with translation trainees, revision trainees show more fairness and tolerance, in that they make fewer categorical statements about suggested changes when exposed to a revision task – at the level of the sentence – without clear revision instructions.

From the formulation of these hypotheses, it is clear that we consider hyperrevisions as an indicator for the variable fairness and tolerance, or, to put it simply, a high number of

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hyperrevisions is an indication of a lack of fairness and tolerance. In revision research, the concept of hyperrevisions (or unnecessary changes) is important and has often been discussed, as we will show in Section 2, which focuses on revision interventions. In Section 3, we will highlight the methodological considerations taken into account to test the hypotheses above. Section 4 will be dedicated to results and discussions and followed by conclusions.

2. Translation-revision interventions: A typology

On the basis of their impact on the quality of the translation, revision interventions are generally categorized as follows in publications on revision: necessary or justified changes (quality improved), unnecessary or unjustified changes (quality neither improved nor deteriorated), introduction of errors (quality deteriorated) and errors not corrected (quality not improved). As far as we know, one of the first uses of the phrase 'unnecessary changes' in Translation Studies was in the early 1980s, when Arthern, (1983) used the phrase to evaluate and rank the performance of the revisers that he had to supervise and evaluate.

Unnecessary changes are generally discussed from two perspectives: revision quality and revision principles. From a quality perspective, as said before, unnecessary changes are used to evaluate the quality of the revision or of the reviser's performance. For example, Arthern (1983) included unnecessary changes in his formula for revision quality measurement, next to "substantive errors left or introduced" and "formal errors left or introduced". This typology, slightly adapted, was subsequently used by Horguelin and Brunette (1998), Künzli (2006, 2007, 2009), Robert (2012, 2013, 2014) and Robert and Van Waes (2014) to measure revision quality in their studies.

According to one of the major principles in revision, hypperrevisions (=unnecessary changes) must be avoided: revision is not about asking oneself "whether a sentence can be improved, but whether it needs to be improved" (Mossop, 2001, p. 149). This had already been stated by Horguelin and Brunette (1998, p. 40), who said in their manual about revision that revision is neither a matter of retranslating nor one of rewriting. A vision that is shared by others, such as Rochard (2004, p. 68), who compared revision to a police investigation and the reviser to the police agent or the investigator: s/he (i.e., the reviser) does not have the right to destroy the results of the initial investigation, since he would then deny the translator's work, thus abandoning his function of reviser for that of translator. More recently, Mossop (2014, p. 206) listed six bad attitudes of revisers, among which two are related to unnecessary changes: (1) "I wonder if this passage can be improved. (Of course it can, but does it need to be?)" and (2) "I'm revising, so I have to make some changes. (No, you don't)".

The four revision interventions described above are generally called necessary (or justified) changes, hyperrevisions (= unnecessary changes), overrevisions (introduction of an error) and underrevisions (error left). In this study, as explained in the introduction, we will concentrate on *hyperrevisions*. However, other types of interventions will also be discussed briefly in the methodology section.

3. Methodology

To verify the TRC hypotheses above, we opted for a pretest–posttest design, with a control group and an experimental group. Two different data-collection tools were used: (1) two questionnaires (one pretest questionnaire and one posttest questionnaire) and (2) four revision tasks (two pretest revision tasks and two posttest revision tasks). The tools

for measurement selected for each subcompetence under investigation are summarized in Table 1.

3.1. Participants

The participants were 21 MA students in their final semester of a language programme. The control group consisted of 9 participants, language students who participated in the pretest and posttest without taking a revision and editing course. The experimental group consisted of 12 participants who were tested before and after attending a course on revision and editing, which was an elective course in the Master's in Translation programme at the University of Antwerp, Belgium. The revision and editing course lasted one semester (2 hours/week, 13 weeks, from February 2015 to May 2015) and the participants received both lectures and practical assignments on translation revision. The participants had to complete graded tasks during the course to ensure that they spent time and effort on revision and editing during the entire semester and that they attended at least 90% of the classes.

The majority of the participants were students in the Master's in Translation programme (18 participants in total, 6 in the control, 12 in the experimental group). The remaining 3 participants were students in the Master's in Linguistics or the Master's in Linguistics and Literature who had less translation experience than the others, but had a similar knowledge of the source and target languages. They were included for two main reasons: first, because volunteers were scarce and they were among the few students willing to take part in the experiment; second, their inclusion was expected to provide insightful indications as to whether translation experience would play a part in revision performance and whether this design should be included in future studies with larger groups of participants. However, since there were only three of them, no conclusions

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could be drawn, but we decided to keep them in the analysis to have two groups with approximately the same number of participants. The 21 participants were all native speakers of Dutch. Details about participant profiles can be found in Table 2.

All participants were 'translation trainees' and 'translation revision trainees' or language students and, thus, not professional translators or revisers. Although the hypotheses should ideally be tested with professionals, this was not viable within the scope of the pilot study presented here.[2] The students had some translation experience, which they gained during their bachelor's and master's programmes. Consequently, the results would be a good indication of what to look for in the future, in a larger research project. However, any future studies should include professionals (see Section 5).

3.2. Materials[3]

The participants were given four revision tasks and two questionnaires, divided equally over the pretest and the posttest.

3.2.1. Pretest and posttest revision tasks

The four texts used for the four revision tasks were general press releases, which were aimed at wider (non-specialized) audiences. In Belgium, this text type is often made available in the country's three national languages: Dutch, French and German. As a result, the four texts were not too specialized but did deal with specific current topics and belonged to a genre that often requires translation. Moreover, the texts were chosen because they were considered suitable for the participants' level of translation experience and/or proficiency in the source and target languages.[4] Dutch, the participants' L1, was the target language (TL) for the first pretest task (Text 1) and for the first posttest task (Text 3). The source languages (SL) for these two tasks were

English or French (whichever the participants were most proficient in). English or French, the participants' L2, were the TLs for the second pretest task (Text 2) and the second posttest task (Text 4). The SL for these two tasks was Dutch. Although revision in the foreign language (i.e., inverse revision) is often not considered best practice, one instance of inverse revision was included because it is common in countries with languages of lesser diffusion. By way of illustration, both pretest and posttest source texts in English are provided in Appendices 1 and 2.

The participants were given a revision brief for each task before they started the revision work (see Appendix 3). The revision instructions stated that the participants' revisions would be published immediately after being submitted. In other words, the participants were asked to carry out a 'pragmatic' revision, although the adjective 'pragmatic' was not explicitly used in the instructions.[5] The instructions did not provide too much detail about which revision parameters had to be used (i.e., quality criteria applied to revision, and in particular Mossop's 2014 revision parameters, see Section 3.2.2), because we wanted the instructions to be as unobtrusive as possible for the participants. However, for the first revision tasks (Texts 1 and 3, revision into Dutch) in both the pretest and the posttest, the revision brief stated that the participants had to revise everything, which meant content, language and style. For the second set of revision tasks (Texts 2 and 4, revision from Dutch), the participants were asked to revise only language and style. Although the participants had access to the target texts and source texts (during all tasks) and although the type of revision we expected was never explicitly stated, the revision brief implied bilingual revision (thus comparative, that is, with source text) for the first task and monolingual revision for the second task (thus not comparative, without source text).

Because time pressure is a vital feature of professional revision, the participants' time to work on each task was limited. Mossop (2014) suggests a speed of 600−750 words/hour for bilingual revision (which we expected for Texts 1 and 3) and 1000−1250 words/hour for monolingual revision (which we expected would be required for Texts 2 and 4). Consequently, the participants were allotted 35 minutes for the first task of the pretest and posttest (Texts 1 and 3) and 25 minutes for the second task of the pretest and posttest (Texts 2 and 4). A summary of the revision task descriptions is provided in Table 3.

The revision tasks were carried out in MS Word, on computers equipped with internet access and electronic dictionaries. Upon request, electronic versions of the source texts and paper versions were made available. All participants had worked on the computers before, so their performance was not negatively affected by any unknown environmental factors

3.2.2. Operationalization of hyperrevisions

To measure the ability to avoid hyperrevisions (Hypotheses 1 and 2 above) or, in the same vein, to restrict revision to necessary changes, which is a way of measuring revision quality as explained in Section 2, each text contained 25 items for revision. The items were intentional errors that the participants were expected to correct. Item selection was carried out based on common mistakes made by translation students whose L1 is Dutch.[6] To improve item-selection reliability, each item was checked and approved by two experts with experience in teaching translation in the master's programme in the relevant languages. To ensure that the items covered a wide range of possible mistakes, we used the revision parameters proposed by Mossop (2014) (see below). Because presentation (i.e., layout, typography, organization) was not the focus

of the pilot study, Mossop's presentation parameters were not included. However, we did add a 'consistency' category, to allow for errors being made multiple times in the same text or for different terms being used to express the same idea. Consistency does not appear as such in Mossop's list of criteria (2014, p. 134), but it is addressed in a separate chapter as an aspect that has to be controlled, whether the text is a translation or not (Mossop, 2014, pp. 90–96; see also Endnote 7). We ensured that every target text had at least one item in each of the ten categories. The first four categories of mistakes were related to 'transfer and content': (1) accuracy, (2) completeness, (3) logic and (4) facts. In addition, six categories were specified for linguistic problems: (1) smoothness, (2) tailoring, (3) sub-language, (4) idiom, (5) mechanics and (6) consistency.[7]

The participants' actual activities in the revision tasks (i.e., what they did to the items, if they did anything at all) were coded as follows: (1) necessary changes, (2) missed necessary changes, (3) underrevisions, (4) overrevisions, (5) hyperrevisions and (6) improvements (a change was made where there was no error, but the change was deemed a minor stylistic improvement). In the present study, the focus is on hyperrevisions, that is, on interventions categorized as 5 in the list of changes above.

3.2.3. Pretest and posttest questionnaires

To test the third hypothesis about fairness and tolerance (i.e., compared with translation trainees, revision trainees show more fairness and tolerance, in that they make fewer categorical statements about suggested changes when exposed to a revision task, at the level of a sentence, without clear revision instructions), participants were presented with a pretest and posttest questionnaire in Dutch (see Appendix 4). In addition to questions dealing with the participants' profiles (e.g., gender, age, L1, L2s studied at BA and MA level, types of studies, revision experience), fairness and tolerance was tested in the

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context of a fictitious revision task: participants were given five sentences in Dutch in the pretest and nine in the posttest.[8] For each sentence, a one-word change was suggested and the participants were asked whether they would make that change. For example, the sentence: *Ik rijd met de automobiel* ("I drive the automobile"). Participants were asked if they would change the Dutch noun *automobiel* into *auto* (similar to changing the English noun *automobile* into *car*). The suggested changes were synonyms, archaisms, regionalisms, that is, changes that were never completely wrong, since no context and no revision instructions were provided along with the sentences. Participants had to answer using a 4-point Likert scale with (1) yes, certainly, (2) yes, probably, (3) probably not or (4) certainly not.

4. Results and discussion

We applied various statistical tests to the data collected. We opted for non-parametric tests, since the sample size was relatively small (21 participants). When we compared the experimental group with the control group, we applied the Mann-Whitney test (U, for two independent groups). When we compared a particular group in the pretest with the same group in the posttest, we used the Wilcoxon signed-rank test (T, for two related groups). For all statistical tests, we applied a significance level of .05 (standard practice in the humanities), which means that the p-value must be lower than .05 for the results to have statistical significance (i.e., not be due to chance). As suggested in Field (2009, p. 550), the effect size (i.e., the measure of the magnitude of an observed effect) is also reported. The effect size sheds light on the practical significance of findings. When the scale of measurement for a variable was nominal, we conducted a chi-square test (χ2) (Field, 2009, pp. 688–689). The results are reported as recommended by Field (2009, p. 550, p. 558).

4.1. Compared with translation trainees, revision trainees show more fairness and tolerance, in that they make fewer hyperrevisions (H1)

Because of the smaller sample size for the revision task in the foreign language, we focused on only the revision tasks in the mother tongue (Texts 1 and 3), where the sample was the largest. The descriptive statistics are summarized in Table 4.

In the pretest, there were no significant differences between the experimental group and the control group, as far as the numbers of hyperrevisions were concerned: U=40.00, z=−1.01, p=.17. In the posttest, there was no difference either with regard to hyperrevisions: U=48.00, z=−.43, p=.34. As far as within-group comparisons were concerned, no result was significant: T=28, z=−.45, p=.34 (hyperrevisions, experimental group) and T=17, z=−.14, p=.45 (hyperrevisions, control group).

These results appear to support the finding that the treatment had no effect on the number of hyperrevisions. However, it has to be noted that the texts in the revision tasks already contained a high number of items, which probably left little time to make any other changes, and thus, to make hyperrevisions. Besides, the time allocated to the revision task (35 minutes, see Section 3.2.1) is based on indications for professional revisers. In other words, with revision trainees, it would have been preferable to extend the allocated time to be able to observe possible hyperrevisions.

4.2. Compared with translation trainees, revision trainees show more fairness and tolerance, in that the hyperrevisions they make involve as few words as possible (word-level changes when possible) (H2)

To test this hypothesis, we worked in four stages. First, we analysed the changes and distinguished four types of hyperrevisions. Second, we determined whether there were differences in frequency between the four types of hyperrevisions. Third, we determined whether the participants' behaviour related to these four types of hyperrevisions had

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changed between the pretest and the posttest. Finally, we focused on the 'size' of the hyperrevisions, that is, the number of words involved.

4.2.1. Typology of unnecessary changes

To verify our hypothesis related to the size of the hyperrevisions in terms of words or characters, we first analysed the changes and distinguished four types of hyperrevisions: (1) deletions, (2) additions, (3) replacements and (4) displacements.

As shown in Figure 2, for both Text 1 (pretest) and Text 3 (posttest) collectively, replacements were the most frequent types of hyperrevisions, followed by additions, displacements and deletions. The descriptive statistics for hyperrevisions are summarized in Table 5.

Figure 2. Hyperrevisions by type (in %)

To select the appropriate statistical test, we first conducted a test of normality, which proved significant for all four categories, except for the replacements. Consequently, to determine whether their frequency of use was significantly different, we conducted the non-parametric Friedman's ANOVA test to compare the four types of hyperrevisions. The test was significant: $\chi2(3)=42.44$, $p<.001$.

To identify the significant differences by pair, we conducted post-hoc tests, more specifically Wilcoxon signed rank tests for every one of the six comparisons. However, as recommended by Field (2009, pp. 577–579) and Larson-Hall (2010, pp. 251–252), we applied a Bonferroni correction to control for Type I errors by dividing the usual level of significance (.05) by the number of comparisons, which is six here (i.e. deletion–addition, deletion–replacement, deletion–displacement, addition–

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replacement, addition–displacement, replacement–displacement).[9] In other words, a significance level of .008 has to be considered. The results of the test are summarized in Table 6. It appears that replacements are significantly more frequent than all other types of hyperrevisions, that additions are significantly more frequent than deletions but not compared with displacements, and that displacements are significantly more frequent than deletions.

We repeated the same tests for both Text 1 and Text 3 separately. As can be seen in Figure 3, the same trend is visible, with replacements being the most frequent type of hyperrevisions.

Figure 3. Hyperrevisions by text and type

For Text 1, a non-parametric Friedman's ANOVA test was conducted to compare the four related groups of hyperrevisions and the result was significant: $\chi^2(3)=35.72$, $<.001$. The same result was found for Text 2: $\chi^2(3)=34.21$, $p<.001$. Once again, we conducted post-hoc pairwise comparisons. The results are summarized in Table 7.

As shown in Table 7, in Text 1 (pretest), replacements are significantly more frequent than all other changes, but there is no significant difference between the other three categories. In Text 3 (posttest) replacements are once again significantly more frequent than all other types of hyperrevisions. Moreover, additions are significantly more frequent than deletions, but not compared with displacements. Finally, there is no significant difference in frequency between deletions and displacements.

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4.2.2. Hyperrevisions typology: Participants' behaviour

In order to gain a better insight into the participants' behaviour with regard to the four types of hyperrevisions, we conducted between- and within-group comparisons (Tables 9 and 10 respectively) for all four types of hyperrevisions. All descriptive statistics are summarized in Table 8.

As can be seen in Tables 9 and 10, there was a change in the participants' behaviour but for only one type of hyperrevisions: additions. In the pretest, there was no difference between the experimental group and the control group, but they behaved significantly differently in the posttest, with the experimental group making significantly fewer additions than the control group. As far as within-group comparisons are concerned, the experimental group behaved in a similar way in the pretest and posttest, but the control group did not and made significantly more additions in the posttest. In other words, we cannot say whether the treatment had an effect on the type of hyperrevisions, which remained stable from pretest to posttest.

4.2.3. Size of unnecessary changes

To measure the size of hyperrevisions, we looked at two features: on the one hand, we calculated the number of words involved for each type of change, and on the other hand, since replacements were the most frequent hyperrevisions, we calculated the 'replacement rate'. We obtained this rate by taking the number of words deleted in the translation, from which we subtracted the number of words that replaced the deleted words in the revision. In the case of a tolerant and fair replacement, this rate should be as close to zero as possible, which would mean, for example, that two words were replaced with two words (e.g. 2 words minus 2 words = zero). According to one of the principles of revision (Mossop, 2014, p. 205), and thus, in line with the tolerance and

fairness attitude, the reviser should try "to make small changes to a sentence rather than rewriting it". Consequently, we consider that replacements should involve as few words as possible, and thus, that the replacement rate should be as close to zero and can even be inferior to zero (e.g. 2 minus 1 = -1).

As shown in Figure 4, the number of words involved for all four types of changes remained stable between the pretest and the posttest. For replacements, there are two scores: the number of words deleted in the translation ('replacements deleted'), and the number of words that replaced these deleted words in the revision ('replacements added'). The Wilcoxon signed rank test for two related groups was never significant (Table 11).

Figure 4. Numbers of words involved (per type of change, per text)

Once again, we conducted between-group and within-group comparisons (Tables 13 and 14 respectively). All descriptive statistics are summarized in Table 12. As far as between-group comparisons are concerned, there was only one significant result: in the posttest, the number of words involved in additions was significantly lower for the experimental group. As far as within-group comparisons are concerned, two significant results were observed: (1) in the experimental group, the number of words involved in additions was significantly lower in the posttest than in the pretest and (2) in the control group, the number of words involved in additions was significantly higher in the posttest than in the pretest.

In other words, all in all, we can say that the number of words involved in all types of changes remained stable across both groups and between the pretest and

posttest, with the exception of the number of words involved in additions, which may show a tendency towards more fairness and tolerance in the experimental group.

Finally, as announced before, we calculated a replacement rate for both tests and both groups. The between-group comparison test was not significant, neither for the pretest (U=50.00, Z=−.339, p=.397, exact sig. 1-tailed) nor for the posttest (U=41.50, Z=−.929, p=.188, exact sig. 1-tailed). The within-group comparison test was not significant either, neither for the experimental group (Z=−.431, p=.391, exact sig. 1-tailed) nor for the control group (Z=−.844, p=.227, exact sig. 1-tailed).

In conclusion, it cannot be said that the treatment had an effect on the way participants dealt with the size of hyperrevisions. However, it has to be noted that, from the beginning, the majority of changes, for all types, generally involved simply one word.

4.3. Compared with translation trainees, revision trainees show more fairness and tolerance, in that they make fewer categorical statements about suggested changes when exposed to a revision task at the sentence level, without clear revision instructions (H3)

As explained in the Methodology section, participants had to make judgements about suggested changes in five sentences in the pretest and in nine sentences in the posttest. We considered that Answers 1 and 4 were categorical statements, contrary to Answers 2 and 3 (see Section 3.2.3). Consequently, we calculated the sums of all Answers 1 and 4 on the one hand, and the sums of Answers 2 and 3 on the other hand. This was followed by the calculation of the percentage for each category, since we had to work with 5 questions in the pretest and 9 questions in the posttest. The descriptive statistics are summarized in Table 15 and the statistical tests in Tables 16 and 17.

As far as between-group differences are concerned, there were no significant differences between the experimental group and the control group in the pretest. Both groups answered categorically (Option 1 or 4) in approximately 60% of the cases. In the posttest, however, the experimental group was significantly less categorical than the control group: the participants in the experimental group formulated categorical statements in 30.6% of the cases, compared with 58% in the control group. As far as within-group comparisons are concerned, a significant difference was observed in the experimental group, with a significant increase in tolerance in the posttest (i.e., a decrease in the percentage of Answers 1 and 4, or, which is obviously the counterpart, an increase in the percentage of Answers 2 and 3). In the control group, however, no significant difference in tolerance was observed. The score remained approximately 60% of less tolerant answers.

In conclusion, it can be said that revision trainees showed more tolerance than translation trainees when exposed to a revision task without clear instructions and context, that is, when having to make statements about proposed revisions in isolated sentences (in the questionnaire). These results are not in line with their attitudes in the revision tasks, as shown above (see Section 4.2.2), since they did not make fewer hyperrevisions in the posttest and thus, did not show more tolerance and fairness after the course.

5. Conclusions

Within the framework of a one-year research project at the University of Antwerp, we investigated the translation revision competence model as presented by Robert, Remael and Ureel (2016). The current article focuses on the psychological components of the TRC model, more specifically on fairness and tolerance, and

investigates whether revision trainees have a higher sense of fairness and tolerance than translation trainees because they adopt a revising frame of mind instead of a retranslating frame of mind and thus, make fewer unnecessary changes ('hyperrevisions'). We compared revision trainees (experimental group) with translation and/or language trainees (control group) in their final semester of a language programme at graduate level. They were given revision tasks and questionnaires at the beginning and at the end of the semester. The experimental group took a course on revision and editing whereas the control group did not.

Contrary to our expectations, we found that the participants in the experimental group (revision trainees) did not make fewer hyperrevisions after taking a course on revision and editing, and that the type and size of those changes were not influenced either. However, it has to be noted that the number of hyperrevisions was already very low in the pretest and remained low in the posttest. This might due to the fact that we worked with a revision speed which was suggested for professionals by Mossop (2014). In other words, the trainees may have been too pressed for time, so that concentrating on necessary changes – which is what they should do –, took the entire allocated time, so that they were not tempted to make hyperrevisions, although we had expected that they would. Robert (2012) had indeed observed that professional revisers are tempted to make hyperrevisions when there is no time limit to a revision task.

When presented with revision decisions in separate sentences in a questionnaire (as opposed to revising a whole translation) however, the revision trainees were significantly less categorical in their statements about the necessity to make changes. In other words, it seems to indicate that revision trainees are conscious of the necessity to

be fair and tolerant as revisers, but are only conscious of that revision principle when exposed to a simple revision task at sentence level.

Conducting a shorter pilot study has the advantage of uncovering potentially interesting topics to investigate in a larger study, while revealing methodological problems to be avoided. First of all, in future work, we will work with professional revisers, which will be more representative than comparing trainees. This will also solve the second problem about the time constraints, which were designed for professionals. Third, we will consider using texts with a smaller number of items and maybe even a text without any items, so that the hypothesis about hyperrevisions can be tested more thoroughly. For now, this pilot study was not able to confirm or reject the hypothesis that revision trainees have an increased sense of fairness and tolerance compared with translation trainees. However, it has paved the way for future research on TRC.

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Tables

Table 1. Experimental design

Subcompetence	Indicator	Data-collection tools	Measurement
Psycho-physiological components	*Fairness and tolerance*	*Pretest task 1&2* *Posttest task 1&2* *Pretest questionnaire* *Posttest questionnaire*	*Quantitative and qualitative analysis of hyperrevisions* *5 Likert scale questions* *9 Likert scale questions*

Table 2. Participant profiles

Programme enrolment	Experimental group	Control group	Total
Master's in Translation	12	6	18
Master's in Linguistics	0	1	1
Master's in Linguistics and Literature	0	2	2
Total	12	9	21

Table 3. Revision task description

	Pretest		Posttest	
	Task 1	Task 2	Task 1	Task 2
Text no	Text 1	Text 2	Text 3	Text 4
SL[1]	Eng/Fre	Dut	Eng/Fre/Ger	Dut
TL[2]	Dut	Eng/Fre	Dut	Eng/Fre/Ger
Revision	Everything	Language/style	Everything	Language/style
Time (min)	35	25	35	25
Text type	Press release	Press release	Press release	Press release

[1]*Source language (Dut = Dutch, Eng = English, Fre = French, Ger = German)*
[2]*Target language*

Table 4. Hyperrevision scores

Hyperrevisions	Experimental group			Control group		
	M	*Mdn*	*SD*	*M*	*Mdn*	*SD*
Pretest	5.58	4.00	4.19	7.11	8.00	4.17
Posttest	6.00	5.50	3.49	7.22	6.00	4.82

Table 5. Hyperrevisions (experimental group and control group collectively)

Hyperrevisions	*M*	*Mdn*	*SD*
Deletion	1.00	1.00	1.00
Addition	2.76	2.00	2.32
Replacement	7.71	7.00	4.78
Displacement	2.09	2.00	1.81

Table 6. Hyperrevisions (pairwise comparisons, experimental group and control group collectively)

Pairwise comparison	*Z*	*p*
Deletion–addition	–2.98	.001*
Deletion–replacement	–4.02	.000*
Deletion–displacement	–2.62	.004*
Addition–replacement	–3.83	.000*
Addition–displacement	–1.24	.116
Replacement–displacement	–4.02	.000*

Note. Exact significance, one-tailed. Level of significance: .008

Table 7. Hyperrevisions (pairwise comparisons, per text)

Pairwise comparison	Text 1 (pretest)		Text 3 (posttest)	
	Z	*p*	*Z*	*p*
Deletion–addition	−1.91	.030	−2.86	.002*
Deletion–replacement	−4.05	.000*	−3.84	.000*
Deletion–displacement	−2.07	.024	−1.85	.036
Addition–replacement	−3.65	.000*	−3.38	.000*
Addition–displacement	−.29	.399	−1.96	.031
Replacement–displacement	−3.53	.000*	−3.74	.000*

*Note. Exact significance, one-tailed. Level of significance: .008

Table 8. Hyperrevisions

	Experimental group					
	Text 1 (pretest)			Text 3 (posttest)		
Hyperrevisions	*M*	*Mdn*	*SD*	*M*	*Mdn*	*SD*
Deletion	.58	.00	.79	.42	.00	.52
Addition	1.30	1.00	1.23	1.08	1.00	1.38
Replacement	3.25	2.50	2.26	4.17	3.50	2.98
Displacement	1.25	0.50	1.71	0.75	1.00	0.87

	Control group					
	Text 1 (pretest)			Text 3 (posttest)		
Hyperrevisions	*M*	*Mdn*	*SD*	*M*	*Mdn*	*SD*
Deletion	.78	.00	1.09	.22	.00	.44
Addition	1.11	1.00	1.17	2.11	2.00	1.36
Replacement	4.11	3.00	2.89	4.00	3.00	3.12
Displacement	1.33	1.00	1.32	0.89	1.00	0.93

Table 9. Hyperrevisions, between-group comparisons

Hyperrevisions	Text 1 (pretest)			Text 3 (posttest)		
	U	*Z*	*p*	*U*	*Z*	*p*
Deletion	50.50	−.28	.419	43.50	−.97	.324
Addition	47.50	−.49	.351	27.50	−1.96	.025*
Replacement	44.00	−.72	.246	51.00	−.22	.424
Displacement	47.50	−.49	.333	49.00	−.38	.356

Note. Exact significance, one-tailed. Level of significance: .05

Table 10. Hyperrevisions, within-group comparisons

Hyperrevisions	Experimental group		Control group	
	Z	*p*	*Z*	*p*
Deletion	−.71	.375	−1.19	.188
Addition	−.72	.309	−2.25	.016*
Replacement	−1.02	.168	−.14	.480
Displacement	−.86	.230	−.95	.234

Note. Exact significance, one-tailed. Level of significance .05

Table 11. Paired comparisons

# words in	*Z*	*p*
Deletions	−1.06	.187
Additions	−1.05	.465
Replacements deleted	−1.05	.155
Replacements added	−.10	.166
Displacements	−.42	.352

Note. Exact significance, one-tailed. Level of significance: .05

Table 12. Size hyperrevisions

| | Experimental group | | | | | |
| | Text 1 (pretest) | | | Text 3 (posttest) | | |
Hyperrevisions	*M*	*Mdn*	*SD*	*M*	*Mdn*	*SD*
Deletion	0.58	0.00	0.79	0.50	0.00	0.67
Addition	2.00	1.00	2.82	4.20	4.00	2.48
Replacement deleted	4.00	3.50	3.01	5.66	4.00	4.46
Replacement added	3.38	3.00	2.85	5.75	4.00	5.10
Displacement	1.91	0.50	2.71	1.41	1.00	2.27

| | Control group | | | | | |
| | Text 1 (pretest) | | | Text 3 (posttest) | | |
Hyperrevisions	*M*	*Mdn*	*SD*	*M*	*Mdn*	*SD*
Deletion	0.66	0.00	0.86	0.22	0.00	0.44
Addition	1.11	1.00	1.17	2.11	2.00	1.36
Replacement deleted	7.33	5.00	7.93	8.22	7.00	7.41
Replacement added	7.11	5.00	8.72	6.55	5.00	4.63
Displacement	3.11	1.00	5.44	3.00	1.00	4.50

Table 13. Between-group comparisons

| | Text 1 (pretest) | | | Text 3 (posttest) | | |
Hyperrevisions	*U*	*Z*	*p*	*U*	*Z*	*p*
Deletion	51.50	−.20	.500	42.50	−.99	.253
Addition	48.00	−.44	.345	16.00	−2.76	.002*
Replacement deleted	40.50	−.97	.175	45.50	−.61	.282
Replacement added	43.50	−.76	.236	47.50	−.46	.331
Displacement	47.00	−.52	.314	49.00	−.38	.362

Note. Exact significance, one-tailed. Level of significance: .05

Table 14. Within-group comparisons

Hyperrevisions	Experimental group		Control group	
	Z	p	Z	p
Deletion	−.28	.500	−1.19	.172
Addition	−1.87	.047*	−1.76	.039*
Replacement deleted	−1.38	.090	−.070	.484
Replacement added	−1.42	.090	.00	.523
Displacement	−.418	.359	−.170	.477

*Note. Exact significance, one-tailed. Level of significance: .05

Table 15. Categorical statements (descriptive statistics)

	Experimental group			Control group		
Answers	M	Mdn	SD	M	Mdn	SD
Pretest % – 1 & 4	58.33	60.00	21.67	60.00	60.00	26.46
Pretest % – 2 & 3	41.66	40.00	21.67	40.00	40.00	26.46
Posttest –1 & 4	30.55	33.33	23.75	58.02	55.56	19.86
Posttest –2 & 3	69.45	66.47	23.75	41.98	44.44	19.86

*Note. Exact significance, one-tailed. Level of significance: .05

Table 16. Between-group comparisons

	U	Z	p
Pretest tolerance Answers 1 & 4	47.50	−.500	.307
Pretest tolerance Answers 2 & 3	47.50	−.500	.307
Posttest tolerance Answers 1 & 4	21.50	−2.342	.010*
Posttest tolerance Answers 2 & 3	21.50	−2.342	.010*

*Note. Exact significance, one-tailed. Level of significance: .05

Table 17. Within-group comparisons

	Z	p
Experimental group Answers 1 & 4	–2.41	.007*
Experimental group Answers 2 & 3	–2.41	.007*
Control group Answers 1 & 4	–.30	.398
Control group Answers 2 & 3	–.30	.398

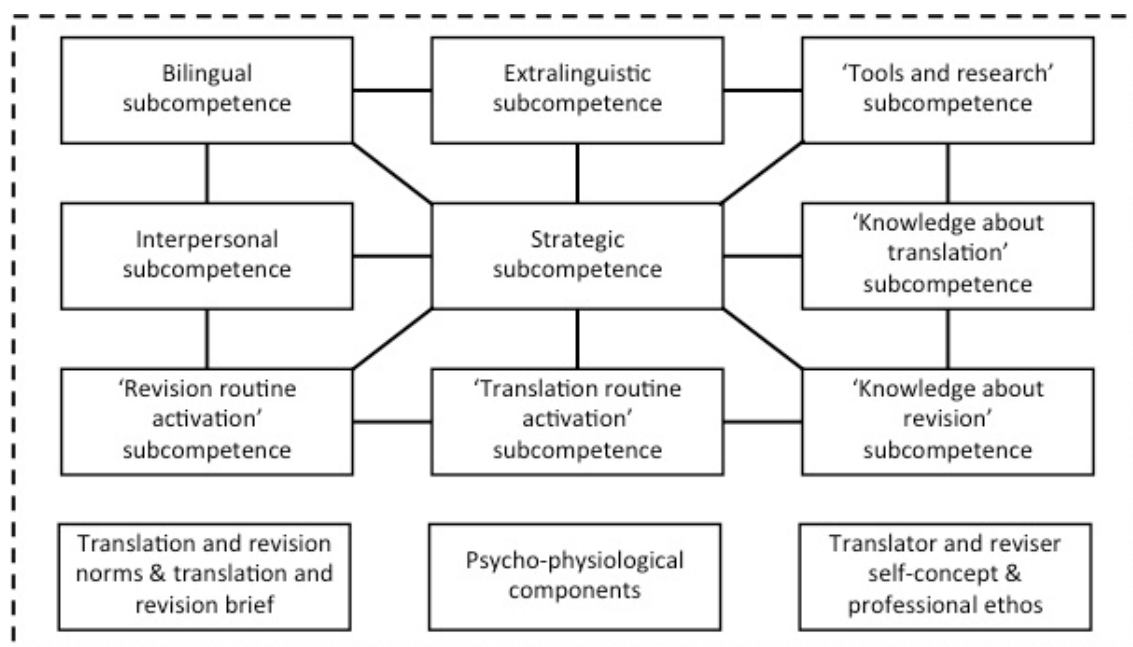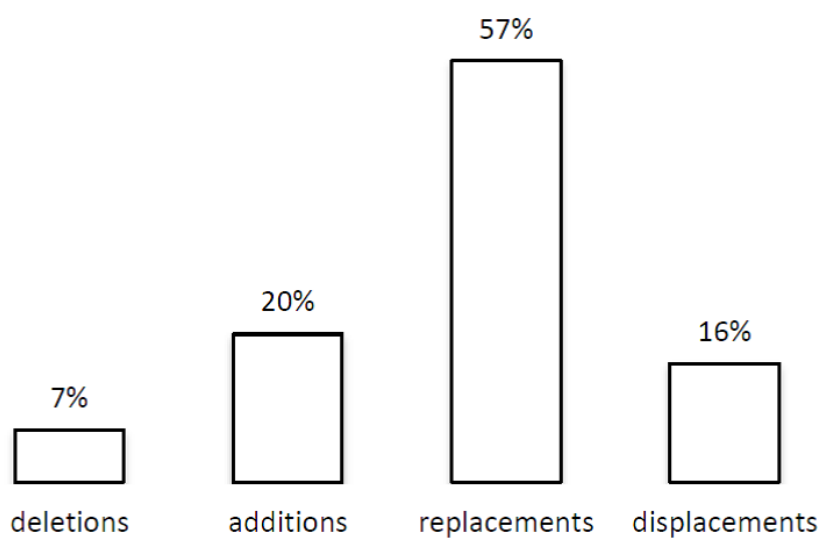*Note. Exact significance, one-tailed. Level of significance: .05
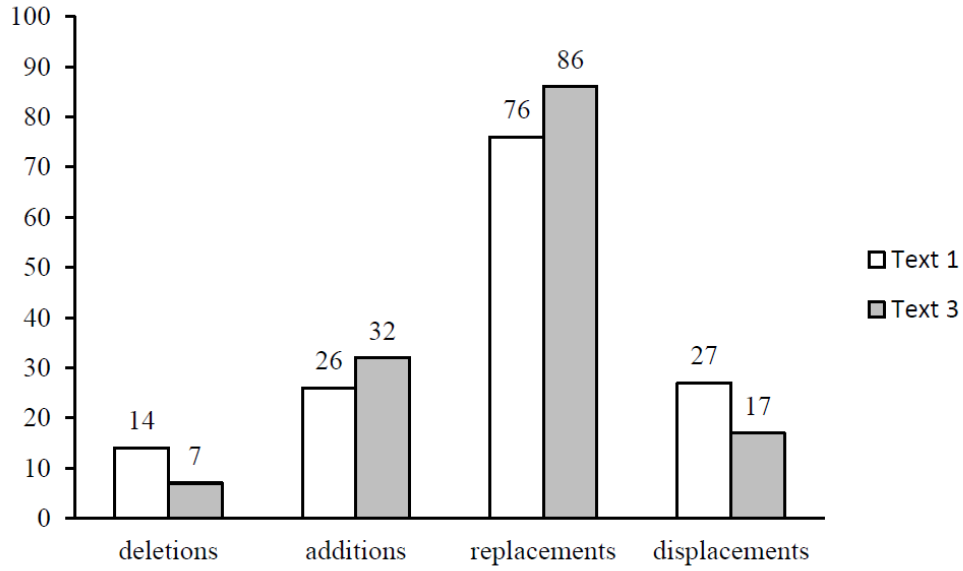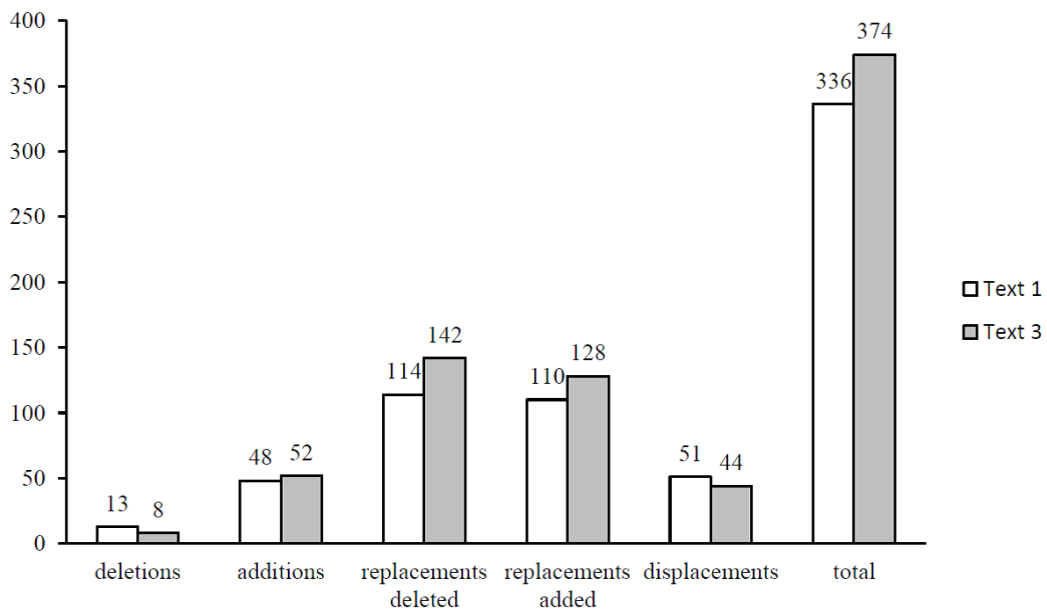
Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4

Appendices

Appendix 1: Pretest source text (English version)

RONA AND THE AIR MILES REWARD PROGRAM SIGN MULTI-YEAR RENEWAL AGREEMENT

LOYALTYONE, CO. AND RONA INC. MAINTAIN NATIONAL, LONG-TERM AGREEMENT EXTENDING 22-YEAR PARTNERSHIP

TORONTO, ON July 2, 2014 – RONA Inc. and LoyaltyOne, Co., owner of the AIR MILES Reward Program, announce that they have entered into a multi-year renewal of their long-standing arrangements which allow RONA to issue AIR MILES reward miles and accept AIR MILES Cash redemptions at more than 500 stores across Canada that operate under RONA banners.

AIR MILES Collectors earn reward miles on all purchases made at RONA retail banners at a rate of 1 reward mile for every $20 spent, and can take advantage of bonus offers and promotional multipliers on products at more than 500 RONA retail stores. All holders of RONA commercial or consumer credit cards can double their AIR MILES reward miles every time they use their cards. AIR MILES Collectors who have opted-in to the AIR MILES Cash feature can also instantly redeem their reward miles at the cash register at a rate of 95 reward miles for $10 off their purchases.

"As Canada's number one home improvement retailer, we are proud to be associated with AIR MILES, Canada's premier loyalty program. For more than 20 years, we have continuously offered the AIR MILES program to our customers," says Claire Bara, Marketing Vice President at RONA. "We know our customers are avid AIR MILES Collectors who recognize the value of the program. Our partnership allows us to offer our AIR MILES customers key incentives, unique promotions and add value to their shopping experience and allows us to better understand and anticipate their needs."

"RONA was one of the original Sponsors that launched with the AIR MILES Reward Program more than two decades ago, and continues to be an important part of our continued success," says Andy Wright, President, AIR MILES Reward Program. "More than 20 years later, our two companies maintain a close partnership and work together to fulfill the same objective - to reward customers for their continued loyalty."

RONA retail banners in the agreement include all RONA-branded banners. For more information on RONA offers and other AIR MILES Sponsors, visit www.airmiles.ca.

Appendix 2: Posttest source text (English version)

Carrefour gears up for a responsible and charitable 2014 Autumn term

Once again this year, Carrefour and Carrefour Market stores are working to ensure that all children can go back to school in the best possible conditions. As part of their efforts, throughout the summer they will be collecting - in partnership with Le Relais and Les Restos du Cœur associations - donations tiof school bags and other supplies that will go straight to families experiencing difficulties.

Collecting school bag donations alongside Le Relais
For the third year running, Carrefour is organising a national school bag collection campaign in aid of Le Relais. Between 2 and 20 July 2014, parents and children can donate school bags in Carrefour and Carrefour Market stores.

The school bags must be in a good condition (with no holes), and the straps, handles, wheels and fasteners must be in good working order.

These school bags will then be given to the Relais association which distributes them among families who need them.

For the association, taking donations creates long-term jobs for people suffering from social exclusion (to date, 1100 jobs have been created in France and more than 300 in Africa). It also encourages recycling, and thus helps to preserve the planet.

Carrefour is giving vouchers to the donors in order to thank them:
- In hypermarkets: a €10 voucher to be used towards a €50 purchase in the leather goods, calculator and stationary departments. Valid from 02/07 to 07/09.
- In supermarkets: a €5 voucher to be used towards a €25 purchase in the leather goods, calculator and stationary departments. Valid from 02/07 to 07/09.

Over the last 2 years, this donation campaign has given a second life to some 320,000 school bags.

Appealing to people's generosity for school supply donations
Continuing along these charitable lines, the retailer is organising a major nationwide school supply donation campaign on Saturday 30 August in Carrefour hypermarkets, and then again on 6 September in Carrefour Market supermarkets.

In all Carrefour and Carrefour Market stores, customers will be able to donate new school supplies to the Restos du Cœur association just after the checkouts. The retailer will then add €40,000 to these donations that will go straight to the association. In 2013, 57 tonnes of school supplies were donated as part of this campaign.

Appendix 3: Pretest and posttest revision briefs (translated from Dutch)

Revision brief pretest

Revise the translation of this Canadian press release. The translation will be published online at http://www.pilootenvliegtuig.nl/ and both language and contents must be okay. The translation should be as long as the original text.
The text is given to you on 2 July 2014 (the day on which the original text is published) and the translation has to be ready for publication that same day. You are given 35 minutes for this assignment.

Revision brief posttest

Revise the translation of this press release. The translation will be published online at carrefour.eu/nl and will be used by Dutch-speaking visitors of the website. The translation must be okay with regard to language and contents (layout is not important) and will be published immediately after being revised.

The text is given to you on 2 July 2014 (the day on which the original text is published) and the translation has to be ready for publication that same day. You are given 35 minutes for this assignment.

Appendix 4: Pretest and posttest questionnaires (Dutch)

Link to pretest questionnaire:
https://docs.google.com/forms/d/1iJ8dcpr7UzGEI_md_PChhpMYogMu6nRW_CVZtxjl2zU/formResponse

Link to posttest questionnaire:
https://docs.google.com/forms/d/1jQcSpXXR4kWvaZKzzJeiF-C7Fk084CfdMn5tqzyoWyo/viewform?usp=send_form

Acknowledgements

NOTES

[1] Both publications report the following results (in brief): revisers' declarative knowledge of revision was significantly better than that of translators, but revisers did not perform significantly better than translators in a revision task. The results also showed that translators and revisers appeared to use the same tools but revisers spent more time in resources (e.g., online dictionaries) than translators. It has to be noted that revisers and translators were, as is the case in this publication, revision trainees and translation trainees respectively.

[2] The study was conducted as part of a STIMPRO project at the University of Antwerp, Belgium. STIMPRO projects are stimulation projects for departments that have recently integrated into the university, such as the Department of Applied Linguistics, Translation and Interpreting, where the study was conducted. Funding is limited to one researcher and a limited budget for experiments is available, which makes recruiting professionals and remunerating them almost impossible. Robert (2012) has shown that recruiting participants and organizing experiments at the revisers' workplaces is time-consuming and cannot be realized in such a short time span.

[3] All texts, revision briefs and links to the questionnaires are available in the Appendices.

[4] Both target texts in Dutch are of a similar level of difficulty based on the readability score Douma Flesh for Dutch (42.39 and 37.45, both considered "difficult", that is, between 30 and 45) (see Defrancq & Van Laecke 2009). The source texts in French and in English were also considered "difficult" according to the Flesh Kincaid Reading Ease score. Texts of these level are suitable for university students.

[5] Brunette (2000) makes the distinction between didactic and pragmatic revision. Didactic revision is a form of revision that allows the original translator to learn from mistakes made in that the reviser makes visible corrections and suggestions in the text and the translator uses the remarks to improve the translation. By contrast, with pragmatic revision, the reviser corrects the translation without giving it back to the translator and the changes are not visible: the revised translation is considered finished, with no visible remarks.

[6] Common mistakes were determined and selected drawing on the teaching experience of several lecturers in translation into Dutch at the department where the study was conducted (department of Applied Linguistics, Translators and Interpreters, University of Antwerp)

[7] To define these different categories, Mossop (2014, p. 134), formulates a series of corresponding questions: "(1) Accuracy: Does the translation reflect the message of the source text?; (2) Completeness: Have any elements of the message been left out?; (3) Logic: Does the sequence of ideas make sense? Is there any nonsense or contradiction; (4) Facts: Are there any factual, conceptual or mathematical errors? For linguistic problems: (1) Smoothness: Does the wording flow? Are the connections between sentences clear? Are the relationships among parts of each sentence clear? Are there any awkward, hard-to-read sentences?; (2) Tailoring: Is the language suited to the users of the translation and the use they will make of it?; (3) Sub)language: Is the style suited to the genre? Has correct terminology been used? Does the phraseology match that used in original target-language texts on the same subject?; (4) Idiom: Are all the word combinations idiomatic? Does the translation observe the rhetorical preferences of the target language?; (5) Mechanics: Have the rules of grammar, spelling, punctuation, house style and correct usage been observed?". We added a sixth category, "consistency", which is addressed elsewhere by Mossop in his 2014 handbook (pp. 90–96).

[8] The difference in number of questions is related to the fact that the posttest was partly used to grade the participants, with their consent. In other words, parts of the posttest were not anonymous, which is not an ideal situation, but unavoidable in the time that participants were willing to devote to the experiments. In our department of translation, where the number of students is limited, finding participants on a voluntary basis remains a challenge.

In Flanders, the Master's in Translation is a one-year graduate programme, worth 60 ECTS. It includes an internship and the necessary courses to prepare students for the translation industry. However, this means that students of translation are under tremendous pressure and generally not willing to take up additional tasks. This is the reason why we decided to organize the posttest as a graded task, since the majority of the students were not willing to take part in an additional test session. Deontologically, we cannot oblige them to take part in experiments for research purposes.

[9] When entertaining research hypotheses, researchers run the risk of making errors. A Type I error is defined by Field (2009) as an error that occurs "when we believe that there is a genuine effect in our population, when in fact there isn't" (p. 56). Likewise, Coolican (2014) defines a Type I error as a "[m]istake made in rejecting the null hypothesis when it is true" (p. 437).